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THE DIFFERENCES OF TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR (FORMAL GRAMMAR) AND STRUCTURAL GRAMMAR (NOTIONAL GRAMMAR) IN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Habib Syukri Nasution Universitas Muhammadiyah Sumatera Utara habibsyukri@umsu.ac.id

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
Received 24/5/23 Revised 18/6/23 Accepted 25/7/23	Language is the 'species-specific' and 'species-uniform' possession of man. It is God's special gift to mankind. Without language human civilization as we now know it would have remained an impossibility. Language is ubiquitous. Language is a primarily human and noninstinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols. There was some grammar in language development such as Traditional Grammar, Structural Grammar, Generative Transformational Grammar, Case Grammar, Stratification Grammar, Tagmemic Grammar, and the last Systemic Functional Grammar. All these grammar contributions to language development. The pattern of speech, sentence pattern, and syntactic structure are some of the contributions of Traditional grammar and Structural Grammar. Rhetorics, philology, and grammar are the first sciences in the language before linguistics. By the models of grammar, people can identify language development, especially in the scientific of language, beginning from Plato and Aristotle's era until today.
Keywords: Language, Traditional Grammar, Structural Grammar, Language Development	

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I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols, which permits all people in a given culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to communicate or to interact. (Finocchiaro 1974: 3) Language dissipates superfluous nervous energy, directs motion in others, both men and animals, sets matter in motion as in charms and incantations, transfers knowledge from one person to another, from one generation to another. Language is also the maker or unmaker of human relationships. It is the use of language that makes a life bitter or sweet. Without language man would have remained only, a dumb animal. It is our ability to communicate through words that makes us different from animals. Because of it omnipresence language is often taken for granted. But many a time it has become the serious concern not only of linguists but also of philosophers, logicians, psychologists, scientists and literary, critics, to name only a few.

Whereas language in the abstract is our facility to talk: the faculty of speech, which all human beings hold in common; a language is a particular code, a set of conventions which we operate through the possession of the faculty of speech; and a language is not held in common by all human beings but only by those who belong to specific-community.

Anthropologists regard language as a form of cultural behaviour sociologists as an interaction between members of a social group, study of literature as an artistic medium, philosophers as a means of interpretation of human experience, language teachers as a set of skills. Truly, language such a complex phenomenon that to define it in terms of a single level of knowledge, behavior, skill, habit, an event or an object will not so problem of its definition. None of the above definitions are perfect, Each them just hints at certain characteristics of language. Hence instead defining language, it would be worthwhile to understand its in characteristics.

B. Linguistics and Grammar

1. Linguistics

The word linguistics has been derived from Latin, *lingua* (tongue) and *istics* (knowledge or science). Etymologically, therefore, linguistics is the scientific study of language. But it is the study not of one particular language but of human language in general. It studies language as a universal and recognizable part of human behavior. It attempts to describe and analyze language. The field of linguistics comprises language in all its form and manifestations. Its aim is to seek a scientific understanding of the place of language in human life.

There are many definition of linguistics, they are

- a) Linguistics is the science that describes and classifies languages. The linguist identifies and describes the units and patterns of the sound system, the words and morphemes and the phrases and sentences, that is the structure of a language. (Lado, 1964:18)
- b) The field of study the subject of which is language. Linguists study language as man's ability to communicate, as individual expression, as the common heritage of a speech community as spoken sound, as written text. Etc. (Hartman & Stork 1972: 132)
- c) Linguistics is the science of language, or linguistics is the field of the study the subject of which is language. (Amin Ridwan, 2000:9)

The scientific of language based on the systematic research to the data of language refers to the theories of language. These data investigated to find out the nature of language system. Of course, the data will not conclude if the linguisi.s have no the concept in language structure. The contrast, the structure theory of language must be studied and compared to the data, so that the theory always consistent with the facts or data. The data is not people, nor behavior but the utterances of peoples.

2. Grammar

Grammar is a word that confuses considerably. It has been approached and defined differently by different scholars and schools of linguistics, Etymologically, the term 'grammar' goes back (through French and Latin) to a Greek word *grammatkia* or *grammatika technc* which may be translated as 'the art of writing.' But for a long time this term has been used very loosely to incorporate the whole study of language. The Greeks considered grammar to be a branch of philosophy concerned with 'the art of writing'. By the middle ages, grammar had come to be regarded as a set of rules, usually in text-book, dictating 'correct' usage. So in the widest and the traditional sense, grammar came to mean as a set of normative and prescriptive rules in order to set up a standard of 'correct usage'.

And grammar was both the art and the science of language. The grammarian until the nineteenth century was the law giver. Though still a valid interpretation for a layman, no contemporary or modern linguist will accept this definition of grammar in our age.

W. Nelson Francis in his essay *Revolution in Grammar* (Damon et. Al. eds. 1966: 1833) stated the three of grammar understanding:

- 1. the set of formal patterns in which the words of a language are *arranged in order* to convey larger meanings.
- 2. the branch of linguistic science which is concerned with the description, analysis, and formulization of formal language patterns.
- 3. linguistic etiquette.

II. METHODS

This study used a descriptive qualitative method. According to Mukhtar (2013: 10) a descriptive qualitative research method is a method used by researchers to find knowledge or theories of research at one particular time. The source of data in this research was obtained from the Doctor Dolittle novel by Hugh Lofting. In collecting the data for analyzing this research, the researcher gathered references that supported the subject matter of the data and apply some steps. The techniques for collecting data were conducted to get the information needed to support the goals of the research. The technique for collecting the data was a note-taking technique. The steps of data collecting are as follows:

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

By traditional grammar is meant basically the Aristotelian orientation toward language as exemplified in the work of ancient Greeks and Romans, the speculative work of the medieval and the prescriptive approach of the eighteenth century grammarians. The traditional grammar has a long tradition with it. There are ideas about sentence structure, deriving from Aristotle and Plato, ideas about the part of speech deriving from the Stoic grammarians, here are ideas about meaning stemming from the scholastic debates of the Middle Ages, ideas about the relationship between language and mind deriving from the seventeenth century philosophical controversies between, rationalists and empiricists, idea about correctness in language coming from the eight century grammars of English, and ideas about the history of language deriving from the nineteenth century emphasis on comparative philology.

It is the most widespread and influential and understood method of discussing languages in the world fairly well understood and consistently applied by teachers. Traditional grammar distinguishes between rational, emotional automatic of discourse in theory if not in grammatical practice. It goes fairly a thorough and consistent analysis of the declarative sentence. It is the vehicle by means of which ordinary students and scholars have mastered many languages for centuries.

In the words of Chomsky, "I think that we have much to learn from a careful study of what was achieved by the universal grammarians of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. It seems to me, in fact that contemporary linguistics would do well to take their concept of language as a print of departure for current work. Not only do they make a fairly clear and well-founded distinction between deep surface structure, but they also go on to study the nature of deep structure and provide valuable hints and insight concerning the rules that relate the abstract underlying mental structures to surface from the rules that we would now call grammatical transformations." What is more, universal grammar developed as part

of a general philosophical tradition that provided deep and important insights, also largely forgotten, into the use and acquisition of language, and furthermore, into problems of perception and acquisition of knowledge in general. These insights can be exploited and developed. The idea that the study of language should proceed within the framework of what we might now-a-days call cognitive psychology is sound. There is much truth in the traditional view that language provides the most effective means for studying the nature and mechanisms of the human-mind and that only within this context can we perceive the larger issues that determine the directions in which the study of language should develop, (*selected Reading*, pp. 3-4).

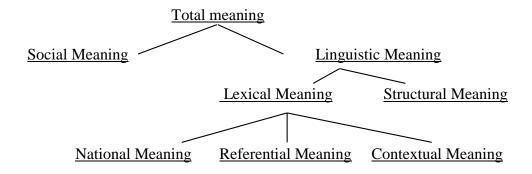
1.1 Weaknesses

Traditional grammar is inadequate and full of shortcomings. If it was adequate and perfect, there would have been no necessity of so many models of modern grammar. Traditional grammar is based mainly on Indo-European classical languages, hence it is a poor model for the grammars of languages that differ from Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, etc. It does not, adequately distinguish between all the linguistic levels-phonetic, morphological, syntactic, and semantic. It is normative and prescriptive rather than explicit and descriptive. Its rules are illogical; it is inconsistent and inadequate as a description of actual language in use. It neglects not only the contemporary usage but also the functional and social varieties of language. Its approach is diachronic (historical) rather than synchronic (contemporary). It tries to study a living language like a dead one. In his book the structure of English (1952), Fries challenges traditional grammars by calling them 'not insightful', pre-scientific, "prescriptive" and having a literary bias. There are full of inadequacies. There may be about 200 definitions of the sentences, yet they are notable to differentiate between,

The dog is barking The barking dog

Traditional grammar says that a noun is "the name of a person, place, or thing," yet cannot include *blue* and *red* in the list of nouns although they are the names of colors.

Traditional grammar uses meaning as the primary tool of linguistic analysis. Total meaning of a language utterance cannot be analyzed in the present stage of our knowledge. Meaning is a complex entity for the understanding of which a formal description of language should form the base. Furthermore, it fails to indicate clearly which meaning it is going to treat.



Traditional grammar gives priority to the written form. It is not a complete grammar; if does not treat all aspect of language's written forms. It is not a complete grammar; if does not treat all aspect of language adequately; it does not cover even the whole range of in language's written forms, but it is restricted to specific kinds of writing-the more formal styles, in particular. It gives a general conception of the nature of language in essentially aesthetic terms. A language, structure, word or sound is said to be more 'beautiful', 'ugly', 'affected', and so on, than another. It regards grammar as something God given, neat, holy, and does not allow the consideration for language change and ignores the fact that the grammar of a language should also change as the language changes. It is inadequate to analyze all the ambiguities. Its methods and notions are unverifiable, inaccurate, incomplete and inconsistent.; its descriptions are inexplicit and intuitive.

The tradition of universal grammar come to an abrupt end in the nineteenth century, for reasons that 1 will discuss directly. Furthermore, its achievements were very rapidly forgotten, and an interesting mythology developed concerning its limitations and excesses. It has now become something of a cliche among linguists that universal grammar suffered from the following defects:

- a) it was concerned with the sounds of speech, but only with writing;
- b) it was based primarily on a Latin model, and was in some sense 'prescriptive';
- c) its assumptions about language structure have been refuted by modern 'anthropological linguistics'. In addition, many linguists, though not all, would hold that universal grammar was misguided in principle in its attempt to provide explanations rather than mere description of usage, the later being all that can be contemplated by the sober scientist. (Selected Reading, p.2),

The traditional grammar has not an adequate notion of a linguistic rule. It appeals only to intuition. The rules are not adequate and wholesome the learner has to use his own commonsense or judgment in matters of unstated rules. This grammar concentrates on giving rules and defining terms, but its rules and definitions are not satisfactory, nor are they scientifically sound. To quote John Lyons, "The traditional grammarian tended to asume, not only that the written language was more fundamental than the spoken, but also that a particular form of the written language, namely the literary language, was inherently 'purer' and more 'correct' than all other forms of the language, written and spoken, and that it was his task, as a grammarian, to preserve, this from of the language from 'corruption' (An introduction to Theoritical Linguistics p.42). So traditional grammar is informal, unscientific, illogical, full of contradictions and inconsistencies, inexplicit, inadequate, prescriptive, uneconomical, unmethodical and unwholesome. It lacks scientific accuracy objectivity, precision. It ignores; the contemporary usage and all the varieties of languages.

1.2. Prescriptive Linguistics

It is also called Traditional Grammar because it is based on the traditional view of philosophers and scholars of classical languages. It is prescriptive or normative because it is concerned with formulating rules for the correct usage of language.

The scholars of classical languages set up a classification of seven to nine parts of speech, eight of which are still used: noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection. To explain the syntactic units of language they developed techniques and terminology: phrases, clauses, sentences; and subjects and predicates as parts of sentences. To explain variation or omission in the grammatical patterns, they use the

concept: of ellipses: the omission of a word or words from the complete grammatical construction of a sentence, but required for understanding it.

Sentences are classified according to their complexity, (1) simple, (2) compound, (3) complex, (4) compound-complex sentences; and according to the meaning or intention of the speakers, sentences are classified as: (1) declarative, (2) interrogative, (3) negative, and (4) imperative sentences. The function of the elements of sentences are described as: (1) subject, (2) predicate, (3) object of transitive verb, (4) object of preposition, (5) indirect object, (6) subjective complement (of linking verbs) (7) object complement, (8) appositive, and (9) noun of direct address.

2. Structural Grammar

The beginning of the twentieth century was marked by the new approaches suggested by Ferdinand de Saussure and the Prague School Linguists in Europe, the anthropological linguists in America, and the Advances then being made in behavioral psychology and natural sciences. Consequently, scientist began to study language in terms of observable and verifiable data obtained from the behavior of users of language. This new movement, which was a reaction against the traditional or universal grammars and an improvement upon the historical and comparative studies of languages in the nineteenth century, is characterized as structural linguistics as it attempts to describe languages as it is used in terms of recurrent element and recurrent regularities (structure). It has been called "mechanical" because its procedure is mechanical. It studies a language employing certain procedures, which linguists have formulated, tested and improved. Furthermore, it eschews the mentalistic approach, which is based on intuitive analysis of data, and insists on purely objective analysis.

In the words of John Lyon, the term structuralism means that each language is regarded as a system of relations (more precisely, a set of interrelated system), the element of which - sound, word, etc. have no validity independently of the relations of equivalence and contrast which hold between them. (Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics; p. 50)

The structuralists proved themselves to be iconoclasts. They used structure somewhat as a slogan and ignored meaning. They emphasized that the language should be studied in a mechanical way, and linguist should therefore discover the various constituents of language as a botanist discovers the petals of a flower. By structure the followers of Bloom field meant 'regularities', 'patterns' or 'rules' of language. In fact, they envisaged language structure in a very precise and limited manner in particular it was 'associated' with the 'phoneme' as the unit of phonology and the 'morpheme' as the unit of grammar. The structuralist's method implies that first we must find the phonemes and then the morphemes each without any reference to anything that had not already been empirically established.

When the morphological elements have been set up followed by a statement of their distribution, the structuralists can proceed on to analyze syntax into constituents, and state their relationship in terms of structure. Thus he has to establish phonemes without reference to morpheme (grammar), and both phonemes and morphemes without reference to semantic (meaning). So he is committed to the objective study of a language in order to arrive at an abstract, synchronic description of the organization of the language analyzed.

According to structuralism, any sentence of a language may be represented as a particular arrangement of the ultimate constituents, the minimal grammatical element; of which is composed. Every sentence has therefore what is known as linear surface. The structuralist developed the system of immediate constituent, or IC analysis.

Attention to structure, study of the spoken language, use of the inductive method of scientific analysis, and working from form to meaning characterize the work of the structural grammarian. He treats grammar as a device by which words are combined into larger units of discourse. He analyses the data, a given corpus by means of inductive methods, and formulates a grammar based on discovery procedures of the data. To him grammar would mean a catalogue of elements classified with restrictions enumerated, and relations made physically manifested. Restrictions were based on notions of distribution. It is a discovery of the organization of a sentence unto its immediate and ultimate constituents.

Basic Assumptions of Structural Linguistics

Priority of the spoken languages: While almost all traditional grammarians till the beginning of our own century assumed the 'superiority' of the written form to the spoken form, the structural linguists maintained that spoken form and must form main field of linguistic study. They maintain that the spoken language is primary and that writing is essentially a means of representing speech in another medium. The principle of priority of the spoken language over the written implies, first of all, that speech is older and more wide-spread than writing; that all systems of writing (except perhaps Chinese) are demonstrably based upon units of spoken language; that speech is acquired first and writing afterwards; and that no writing system in use can convey or represent all the features of speech. The extra-linguistic features (gestures, etc.) are missing in writing besides total values, contrastive stresses, etc. Impendence on written language tended to promote prescriptivism, and language teaching divorced from actual speech habits of the day. The structuralists attempted to change this emphasis with the great success.

Objective treatment of all languages: All languages are structurally complex and completely adequate to the needs of its speech community. It was a common belief of the descriptive linguist, who studied languages for a better understanding of human language as such, he look, every language, as an equal manifestation of the .structure of human language. At the same, time, he studied each language separately not assuming that languages had common universal properties.

Importance or synchronic description. Whereas the traditional and the historical grammarians were interested on the diachcronic (through time) studies of language, the structuralists found it important to describe the language of the day as it is available for study, and description. Synchronic description implies a study of usage of the day and of such varieties as exist in the language at the time of study.

Linguistics is a descriptive, not a prescriptive science: The traditional grammarian tended to assume, not only that the written language was more fundamental than the spoken, but also that a particular form of the written language, namely the literary language, was inherently 'purer' and more 'correct' than all other forms of the language, written and spoken; and that it was his duly as a grammarian, to 'preserve' the form of the language from 'corruption'. The traditional grammarian treated grammar as a set of normative, prescriptive rules. But the structuralists gave up such notions and treated linguistics as a descriptive science.

System Structure: The concern of the structural linguist was with describing the organization or the pattern, or the system or the structure of the language under scrutiny. According lo me structuralists, the most striking feature of human languages is the complexity of their structure. Their study of language was based on empirical evidence.

Language and Utterance: The structuralists maintained a clear distinction between language and utterance, between language and parole (see 3.2). language is an abstraction of a system at work the parole is an instance, manifestation, in context demonstration of the

principles at work. It was Saussure who indicated this difference between the two. He proposed that the descriptive linguist's task was to state the relationship between actual speech acts and their recurring patterns. So to a structuralists a language is not the same thing as an utterances: it is an abstraction of a system at work, the other is an instance, manifestation of the principles at work.

Strengths of Structural Linguists

The major contributions of structural linguistics, according to Chomsky, 'are methodological rather than substantive.' It made the study of language scientific, precise, verifiable and objective. It look a living dialect for the study and analyzed its features. The aim was to begin with the raw data and arrive at a grammatical description of the corpus (and therefore of the language). First the element (phonetic, morphemic or syntactic) are set and then are stated their distribution. And lastly, the syntax is analyzed into constituents, and their relationship Stated in terms of structures, but it is not always necessary to maintain this particular order. In brief 'the structural linguist is committed to objective study of a language in his own terms in order to arrive at an abstract, synchronic description of the organization of the language analyzed'.

Structural linguistics is empirical, makes exactness a methodological requirement and insist that all definitions be publicly verifiable or reliable. It examines all languages in terms of their phonological and grammatical systems. Because its description is structural, the uniqueness of each language is recognized; it also facilitates comparison, describes the minimum, required contrasts that underline any construction or conceivable use of a language and not just those discoverable in some particular use.

Weakness or Structural Linguistics

Chomsky criticized this school of linguistics for its being corpus bound, and neglect of meaning. Structuralism ignores explanatory adequacy, meaning, linguistic universals, native speaker's intuition an his competence of generating infinite number of sentences from a finite set of items. Structuralism analysis the data of a given corpus by means of inductive methods, and formulates a grammar based on discovery procedure of the data. To the structuralists grammar is a catalogue of element classified with restrictions enumerated, and relations made physical manifested. But the total corpus, cannot be captured or verified. Language is not merely and inventory, or catalogue of items as the structuralists imagined.

Structuralism fails to capture all ambiguities and relations. It does no include the idea of creativity. It does not account for the degree of grammatically and acceptability, nor does it stop the generation of ungrammatical sentences. Grammar produced by it is not predictive and explicite; it does not offer explanations for the interrelatedness of sentences. Grammar should not merely be a record of data; it should establish the general and innate properties of the language based on the intrinsic properties of human mind. Linguistics is a subclass of cognitive psychology. Language is both nature and nurture. Grammar should also specify what to say; when and why. But the structural grammar does not fulfill all these goals. The structuralists grammar is not a whole but a part of a whole-an inventory of units such as phonemes, morphemes, words, lexical categories, phrases. Descriptive grammar is simply one aspect of generative grammar, hence a phenomenon. Structuralism speaks nothing about the nature of language; it fails to establish a relationship between sound and meaning. A grammar should also account for deep structures and should be concerned with the task of giving a factually accurate formation

of the rules that generate deep and surface structures and semantic interpretation of deep structures. The units are logically prior to the grammar; the grammar is logically prior to the units, it concentrates on structuralism and ignores the native speaker's competence. It also ignores the psychological and sociological side of language. It is interested in data more for the sake of data than in capturing the creative power that generates and infinitive set of sentences; it does not speak of the generation. Hence, the emergence of Transformational – Generative grammar.

Traditional Grammar (Formal Grammar) vs. Structural Grammar (Notional Grammar)

Formal grammar is grammar that both in theory and in method is concerned solely with the observable forms, structural functions, and interrelations of the components of sentences or stretches of utterance, (Robins, op. cit-p. 182). Modern grammatical theory is frequently said to be 'formal', in contrast with traditional grammar, which was 'notional'. According to Jesperson, 'notional' grammar starts from the assumption that there exist 'extra lingual categories which are independent of the more or less accidental facts of existing languages' and are universal in so far as they are applicable to all languages, though rarely expressed in them in a clear and unmistakable way. 'Formal' grammar makes no such assumptions about the universality of such categories as the 'parts of speech', 'tense', 'mode', etc. (as they we traditionally defined) and claims to describe the structure of ever), language on it sown terms.

There are scholars who by formal mean 'the structural or modern anthropological linguistic ' which does not attempt to deal with deep structure and its relations to surface structure. Rather, is limited to surface structure - to the phonetic form of an utterance and its organization into units of varying size (Chomsky). It is much more concerned with the form than with the spirit or content. In the words of Chomsky, "Structural linguistics has very real accomplishments to its credit. To me, it seems that its Major achievement is to have provided a factual and a methodological basis that makes it possible to return to the problems that occupied the traditional universal grammarians with some hope of extending and deepening their theory of language structure and language use. Modern descriptive Linguistics has enormously, enriched the range of factual material available, and *has* provided entirely new standards of clarity and objectivity." (*Chomsky.op. cit. p. 5*).

One function of grammar is to specify as simply as possible for a language what sentences-are acceptable, and to do this in terms of some general theory of language structure. The grammarians of the formal grammar have formulated 'distribution' and 'discovery procedures'. In particular, it was assumed that the proper task of 'structural linguistic' was to formulate a technique, or procedure, which could he applied to corpus of attested utterance and, with the minimum use of the informant's judgments of 'sameness¹ and 'difference¹ could be guaranteed to derive the rules of the grammar from the corpus itself.

A grammatical description which is use entirely on the observable forms of a language may be called *formal grammar*, whereas a description based on meanings rather than forms is called *Notional* or *Philosophical Grammar*. A formal definition of noun in English might be a word which distinguishes between singular and plural and possibly has a possessive form¹, whereas a notional definition might be a 'naming word'. Traditional grammar has always been a fusion of notional and formal elements, which, has often led to inconsistencies and discrepancies.

Two major traditions have been distinguished in modern linguistic theory by Chomsky: one is the tradition of 'universal' or 'philosophical' or 'notional' grammar, which flourished in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; the second is the tradition of structural

or descriptive linguistics, which developed in the later-19th century and early, twentieth century and reached its culminating point in the 1950's. Universal grammar was concerned with general features of language structure rather than with particular idiosyncracies. Universal grammarians believed: Grammar should not be merely a record of the data of usage, but rather, should offer an explanation for such data. It should establish general principles applicable to all languages, based ultimately on intrinsic properties, of the mind, which would explain how language is used and why it has the particular properties to which the descriptive grammarian chooses, irrationally, to restrict his attention. (Noam Chomsky, *Selected Readings'*)

Chomsky further says that besides this, universal grammarians proceeded to develop a 'rich and far-reading account of the general principles of language structure' and a psychological theory dealing with certain aspects of language use, with production and comprehension of sentences. Universal grammar made a sharp distinction between what is called now 'deep structure' and 'surface structure'. What is more, universal grammar developed as part of a general philosophical tradition Lhai provided deep and important insight, also largely forgotten, into the use and acquisition of language and, further-more, into problems of perceptions, and acquisition of knowledge in general' (Selected Reading, p.3)

The universal grammarian was interested in the universal properties of languages and not in their individual idiosyncrasies or individual properties. They believed all languages were alike. They were vague and gave airy pronouncements not supported by any rigorous formalism. In theory grammar should not be merely a record of date but should rather offer explanation (in the inter - relatedness of sentences). They were interested in the organizing power but they did it in the form of *imprension*. They did not create any *formalism*, they did not have motivated rules, leading from one to the other. Yet they had a vision, not the framework to organize.

Anthropological or structural linguists, on the other hand were interested in studying languages as a mirror of culture. No cultures are alike hence no language are alike. 'Structural linguistics Is a direct outgrowth of the concepts that emerged in Indo-European comparative study, which was primarily concerned with language as a system of phonological units that undergo systematic modification in phonetically determined contexts. Structural linguistics reinterpreted this concept for a fixed slate of a language, investigated the relations among such units and the patterns they form, and attempted with varying success, to extend the same kind of analysis of 'higher levels of linguistic' structure. Its fundamental assumption is that procedures of segmentation and classification, applied to data in a systematic way, can Isolate and identify all types of elements that function in a particular language along with the constraints that obey. A catalogue of these elements, their relations, and their restrictions of distribution, would, in most structuralists views, constitute a full grammar of the language (*Chomsky, Selected Readings, pp. 4-5*)

Structural linguistics provided a remarkable and scientific methodological basis of language study. It also provided new standards of clarity and objectivity. These methodological contributions are not limited to a raising of the standards of pieclsion. In a more subtle way, the idea that language con be studied as a formal system, a notion which is developed with force and effectiveness in the work of Harris and Heckett, is of particular significance. It is, in fact, this general insight and the techniques that emerged as it developed that have made it possible, in the last few years, to approach the traditional problems once again. Specifically, it is now possible to study the problems or rule-governed creativity in

natural language. The problem of constructing grammars that explicitly generate deep and surface structures and express the relations between them, and the deeper problem of determining the universal conditions that limit the form and organization of rules in the grammar of human language' (CJwmsky Selected, Keaihngs, p. 5).

Nevertheless, structural linguistics is the scientific study of language. It is inductive, objective, tentative, and systematic, it is concerned with reportable facts, methods, and principles; it works by means of observations, hypotheses, experiments, postulates, and inferences; its products are descriptive verbal or algebraic statements about language. So the main difference between formal and notional grammar is the following:

Notional (Traditional or Universal) Formal or Structural Grammar Grammar 1. New, developed mainly in the 1. Old, declined after the 18 ih 1 twentieth century. century. 2. Pre-scientific (or unscientific) 2. Scientific 3. Illogical, inconsistent and 3. Consistent, logical and unmethodological methodological 4. Subjective and intuitive 4. Objective and verifiable 5. Informal 5. Formal 6. Studies languages as if they 6. Studies a language as a mirror were all alike of culture; since no Cultures are alike, no two languages are alike. 7. Gives priority to written form 7. Gives priority to the spoken especially literary form of form the contemporary, actual language usage 8. Lacks precision and economy 8. full of precision and Is 9. Is a set of prescriptive or economy normative rules 9. Is an inventory of all the linguistic units: phonemes/ morphemes, phrases, clauses, 10. Gives due emphasis sentences 10. Since meaning is a very meaning complex phenomenon, ignores 11. Based on Greek and Latin 12. Fusion of all linguistic levels meaning 13. Explanatory (how and why) 11. Based on factual study of 14. Humanistic and philosophical language. 12. Separation of all linguistic study 15. Has a long history models levels 13. Observational and descriptive 14. Empirical science 15. A short history

IV. CONCLUSION

Language is the most powerful, convenient and permanent means and form of communication. Non-linguistic symbols such as expressive gestures, signals and various kinds, traffic lights, road sign, flags, emblems and many more as well as shorthand, morse and other codes, the deaf and dumb and Braille alphabets, the symbols of mathematics and logic, etc. are, etc. are also means of communication, yet they are not so flexible, comprehensive, perfect and extensive as language is. Language is the best means of self-expression. It is through language that humans express their thoughts, desires, emotions, feelings it is through it they store knowledge, transmit message, transfer knowledge and experience from one person to another, form one generation to another. Most of activities in the world are carried on through or by it. It is through that humans interact. It is language again that yokes present, past and future together.

There are some types of grammar in language development such as Traditional Grammar, Structural Grammar, Generative Transformational Grammar, Case Grammar, Stratificational Grammar, Tagmemic Grammar, and the last Systemic Functional Grammar. Each grammar has a particular significant function in language development. Language is a science, that is linguistics. The development of scientific language give some effects in science and technology development. Simply speaking, language give the colors in the word in every human civilizations.

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