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Halliday functions of language

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A review of M. A. K. Halliday, Aspects of Language and Learning This volume was published as one of the "M.A.K. Halliday Library Functional Linguistics" Series. It is based on a series of lectures given by Professor Halliday at the National University of Singapore in 1986. The theme of these lectures is to construct a linguistically informed theory of education, providing a linguistic interpretation of how people learn. The lectures as a whole provide an essential framework of Halliday's ideas on language, knowledge and education. Chapter one, "Language, Learning and 'Educational Knowledge'", aims to demonstrate that the process of learning is itself a linguistic process. To do that, Halliday traces back to the very beginning of the learning process, the ontogenetic beginning of a human child. By observing how a human infant develops his own protolanguage, Halliday is able to show that a child not only uses language to express, but also to act, the two functions corresponding to what he calls the ideational and interpersonal metafunctions of language. The linguistic and the learning ability of the child keep developing until he meets a new challenge when he goes to school, the transition from "commonsense knowledge" to "educational knowledge" Chapter two, "The Evolution of a Language of Science", explores the language of science from a diachronic perspective. The aim of the research is by nature educational. As children move from commonsense knowledge to educational knowledge, they may have difficulties with educational discourse. The task of the linguist is to identify the nature of the linguistic demands that are imposed on children. In this chapter, Halliday does this by examining how the language of science has evolved. Four classical scientific passages from the fourteenth century to the nineteenth century are analyzed and compared with a span over 400 years. The result of the comparison shows a tendency towards the packaging of information and abstraction. It is such features that set apart educational discourse from everyday, commonsense discourse. Chapter three, "Learning to Learn Through Language", starts with a brief discussion on the possibility of applying linguistics to early childhood education. Research has shown a child is able to develop his protolanguage for his own purposes. A further account of children's "language diary" shows children are also using their language to learn. Even though what factors contribute to children's learning ability is not yet clear, children's preschool experience of spoken language plays an important part in their education in school. Seven general principles are suggested on which children's learning ability must be founded. 8 queens problem algorithm.pdf The gap between children's preschool language and the scientific discourse in school is not as wide as generally assumed. There exists a continuity between the two, the latter of which is further discussed in the next chapter. Chapter four, "Language and Learning in the Primary School", explores the learning process from four perspectives: initial literacy, style and registers in the primary school, the beginnings of scientific discourse, spoken and written language in education. When children begin their school education, they have to call up experiences stored previously, to help them learn to read and write. There is much more to children's writing ability than just writing a narrative. Children should also learn to write other types of writing including scientific discourse, for they learn, not just scientific knowledge, but also the language in which knowledge is presented. In the process, children gradually become aware of the differences between spoken language and written language, i.e. the grammatical intricacy of the spoken language vs. the lexical density of the written language. Specifically how subject-oriented learning takes place is further explored in the next chapter. Chapter five, "The Language of School 'Subjects'" investigates another stage of learning. As children move on to secondary school, they begin to work with different school subjects. The task of educational linguistics is not just to describe the language of subject learning, but also to explain it regarding the way language is used.

Halliday's Seven Basic Functions of Language

- Halliday identified seven functions of language that complement the communicative competence:
  1. *Instrumental function*: get things.
  2. *Regulatory function*: control others' behavior.
  3. *Interactional function*: create interaction with others.
  4. *Personal function*: express personal feelings and meanings.
  5. *Heuristic function*: learn and discover.
  6. *Imaginative function*: create imaginary worlds.
  7. *Representational function*: communicate information to others.

Teaching environment is not restricted to classroom, but takes various forms including textbook, library research, homework and so on, in which the field is the same, but the tenor and the mode are different. It is the tenor and the mode, rather than the field that sets the patterns of teaching. The analysis of how the discourse matches up to the context shows that every teacher is a teacher of language, which is to say all learning is a linguistic process. Chapter six, "English and Chinese: Similarities and Differences", approaches the issue of language and education from a comparative point of view. All human babies are alike in that they develop a system of their own protolanguage despite the differences in their mother tongue. It may be a stage comparable to an earlier phase in the evolution of human language. Observation of children's transition into the mother tongue shows important similarities with their mode of entry into the language. The mode of learning for English-speaking and Chinese-speaking children is essentially the same. Speaking different mother tongues does not create significant differences regarding children's understanding of school subjects. There do exist significant differences between English and Chinese which may create different learning experiences for learners. Nevertheless, both languages will develop in the same direction due to pressure from social and technical development. Chapter seven, "Languages and Cultures", provides an even broader picture of language and learning. Complex patterns of English in Singapore are described. Examples from different languages are also cited and analyzed to further illustrate the relationship between language and culture. The aim is to draw on general principles relating to language and learning. Chapter eight, "Language, Education and Science: Future Needs", is the last lecture given in this series of talks in Singapore. It rounds off the lectures by not only summarizing the previous talks, but also pointing out directions toward which educational linguistics should develop. At the end of the lecture, Halliday draws attention to an emerging research frontier, the increasing contact between linguistics and natural science. Throughout the lectures, Halliday has been trying to present the perspective that learning is a linguistic process. Learning is not simply learning the knowledge of the subject. Rather, it is more about learning how the knowledge of the subject is codified and transmitted via language. It is therefore important for a linguist to explain how language functions in the process of education. To answer that, at least three questions should be asked: (1) How is knowledge organized through language? (2) How does language help students to learn? (3) What does the teacher need to know about language in order to help students along their learning process? These lectures were given 30 years ago in a Singapore context. Nonetheless, throughout the last three decades, these questions have constantly been asked, addressed and answered. Relevant studies range from uncovering the nature of science discourse and investigating science literacy in primary and secondary school (Halliday and Martin 1993), to raising teachers' awareness about language challenges (Schleppegrell and de Oliveira 2006). The fruitful dialogue between Bernstein's sociology of education and Halliday's systemic functional linguistics has led to an even great interest in the study on language, knowledge and education (Martin and Veel 1998; Christie and Martin 2007; Martin and Rose 2007; Rose and Martin 2012; Maton 2013). In all these studies, language is put "squarely in the centre of the picture" (149). The quest for the nature of language and learning is going to continue for a long time to come. Christie, F., and J.R. Martin (eds.). 2007. Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives. London: Continuum. Google Scholar Halliday, M.A.K., and J.R. Martin. 1993. Writing science: Literacy and discourse power. London: Falmer Press. Google Scholar Martin, J.R., and D. Rose. 2007. Genre relations: Mapping culture. London: Equinox. Google Scholar Martin, J.R., and R. Veel (eds.). 1998. Reading science: Critical and functional perspectives on discourse of science. New York: Routledge. Google Scholar Maton, K. 2013. Knowledge and knowers: Towards a realist sociology of education. London & New York: Routledge. Google Scholar Rose, D., and J.R. Martin. 2012. Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge and pedagogy in the Sydney school. London: Equinox.

Halliday's Model of Language Functions

Function	Examples	Classroom Experiences
Use language to communicate preferences, choices, wants, or needs (Instrumental)	"I want to ..."	Problem solving Gathering materials Role playing Persuading
Use language to express individuality (Personal)	"Here I am ..."	Making feelings public Interacting with others
Use language to interact and plan, develop, or maintain a play or group activity (Social Relationships/Interactional)	"You and me ..." "I'll be the cashier, ..."	Structured play Dialogues and discussions Talking in groups
Use language to control (Regulatory)	"Do as I tell you ..." "You need ..."	Making rules in games Giving instructions Teaching
Use language to explain (Representational)	"I'll tell you." "I know."	Conveying messages Telling about the real world Expressing a proposition
Use language to find things out, wonder, or hypothesize (Heuristic)	"Tell me why ..." "Why did you do that?" "What for?"	Question and answer routines Inquiry and research Metalinguage
Use language to create, explore, and entertain (Imaginative)	"Let's pretend ..." "I went to my grandma's last night."	Stories and dramatizations Rhymes, poems, and riddles Nonsense and word play

Google Scholar Schleppegrell, M., and L. de Oliveira. 2006. An integrated language and content approach for history teachers. Journal of English for Academic Purposes 5: 254–268. Article Google Scholar Download references The author declares that he/she has no competing interests. British linguist (1925–2018) Not to be confused with Michael Holliday. For other people named Michael Halliday, see Michael Halliday (disambiguation). This article may require cleanup to meet Wikipedia's quality standards. The specific problem is: The references require work. There is a great swathe of papers listed, none of which are linked to the underlying resource. While this is not mandatory it makes it very hard for the reader to check what is said here. The same is true of the external sources section. Please help improve this article if you can. (July 2022) (Learn how and when to remove this template message) Michael HallidayHalliday at his 90th-birthday symposium, 2015Born(1925-04-13)13 April 1925Leeds, EnglandDied15 April 2018(2018-04-15) (aged 93)Sydney, AustraliaOther namesM. A. K. HallidayAlma mater University of London Peking University Known forSystemic functional linguisticsSpouse Ruqaiya Hasan (died 2015)Scientific careerFieldsLinguisticsInstitutionsUniversity of EdinburghUniversity of CambridgeStanford UniversityUniversity of SydneyInfluences Vilém Mathesius Prague school Wang Li J.R. Firth Benjamin Lee Whorf Influenced Ruqaiya Hasan C.M.I.M. Matthiessen J.R. Martin Norman Fairclough Kristin Davids Michael Alexander Kirkwood Halliday (often M. A. K. Halliday; 13 April 1925 – 15 April 2018) was a British linguist who developed the internationally influential systemic functional linguistics (SFL) model of language. His grammatical descriptions go by the name of systemic functional grammar.[1] Halliday described language as a semiotic system, "not in the sense of a system of signs, but a systemic resource for meaning".[2] For Halliday, language was a "meaning potential"; by extension, he defined linguistics as the study of "how people exchange meanings by 'linguaging'".[3] Halliday described himself as a generalist, meaning that he tried "to look at language from every possible vantage point", and has described his work as "wander[ing] the highways and byways of language".[4] But he said that "to the extent that I favoured any one angle, it was the social: language as the creature and creator of human society".[5] Halliday's grammar differs markedly from traditional accounts that emphasise classification of individual words (e.g. noun, verb, pronoun, preposition) in formal, written sentences in a restricted number of "valued" varieties of English. ligozobuda.pdf Halliday's model conceives grammar explicitly as how meanings are coded into wordings, in both spoken and written modes in all varieties and registers of a language. Three strands of grammar operate simultaneously. They concern: (i) the interpersonal exchange between speaker and listener, and writer and reader; (ii) representation of our outer and inner worlds; and (iii) the wording of these meanings in cohesive spoken and written texts, from within the clause up to whole texts.[6] Notably, the grammar embraces intonation in spoken language.[7][8] Halliday's seminal Introduction to Functional Grammar (first edition, 1985) spawned a new research discipline and related pedagogical approaches. By far the most progress has been made on English, but the international growth of communities of SFL scholars has led to the adaptation of Halliday's advances to some other languages.[9][10] Biography Halliday was born and raised in England. His parents nurtured his fascination for language: his mother, Winifred, had studied French, and his father, Wilfred, was a dialectologist, a dialect poet, and an English teacher with a love for grammar and Elizabethan drama.[11] In 1942, Halliday volunteered for the national services' foreign language training course. He was selected to study Chinese on the strength of his success in being able to differentiate tones. After 18 months' training, he spent a year in India working with the Chinese Intelligence Unit doing counter-intelligence work. In 1945 he was brought back to London to teach Chinese.[12] He took a BA honours degree in modern Chinese language and literature (Mandarin) through the University of London—an external degree for which he studied in China. He then lived for three years in China, where he studied under Luo Changpei at Peking University and under Wang Li at Lingnan University,[13] before returning to take a PhD in Chinese linguistics at Cambridge under the supervision of Gustav Hallam and then J.R. Firth.[14] Having taught languages for 13 years, he changed his field of specialisation to linguistics,[15] and developed systemic functional linguistics, including systemic functional grammar, elaborating on the foundations laid by his British teacher J.R. Firth and a group of European linguists of the early 20th century, the Prague school. His seminal paper on this model was published in 1961.[16] Halliday's first academic position was as assistant lecturer in Chinese, at Cambridge University, from 1954 to 1958. In 1958 he moved to University of Edinburgh, where he was lecturer in general linguistics until 1960, and reader from 1960 to 1963. From 1963 to 1965 he was the director of the Communication Research Centre at University College, London. During 1964, he was also Linguistic Society of America Professor, at Indiana University. From 1965 to 1971 he was professor of linguistics at UCL. In 1972–73 he was a fellow at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioural Sciences, Stanford, and in 1973–74 professor of linguistics at the University of Illinois. In 1974 he briefly moved back to Britain to be professor of language and linguistics at Essex University. In 1976 he moved to Australia as foundation professor of linguistics at the University of Sydney, where he remained until he retired in 1987.[17] Halliday worked in multiple areas of linguistics, both theoretical and applied, and was especially concerned with applying the understanding of the basic principles of language to the theory and practices of education.[18] In 1987 he was awarded the status of Emeritus Professor of the University of Sydney and Macquarie University, Sydney. He has honorary doctorates from University of Birmingham (1987), York University (1988), the University of Athens (1995), Macquarie University (1996), Lingnan University (1999) and Beijing Normal University(2011).[19] He died in Sydney of natural causes on 15 April 2018 at the age of 93. Linguistic theory and description Halliday's grammatical theory and descriptions gained wide recognition after publication of the first edition of his book An Introduction to Functional Grammar in 1985. A second edition was published in 1994, and then a third, in which he collaborated with Christian Matthiessen, in 2004. A fourth edition was published in 2014. Halliday's conception of grammar – or "lexicogrammar", a term he coined to argue that lexis and grammar are part of the same phenomenon – is based on a more general theory of language as a social semiotic resource, or "meaning potential" (see Systemic functional linguistics). Halliday follows Hjelmslev and Firth in distinguishing theoretical from descriptive categories in linguistics.[20] He argues that "theoretical categories, and their inter-relations, construe an abstract model of language ... they are interlocking and mutually defining.[20] The theoretical architecture derives from work on the description of natural discourse, and as such 'no very clear line is drawn between' (theoretical) linguistics' and 'applied linguistics'".[21] So the theory "is continually evolving as it is brought to bear on solving problems of a research or practical nature".[20] Halliday contrasts theoretical categories with descriptive categories, defined as "categories set up in the description of particular languages".[20] His descriptive work has focused on English and Mandarin.

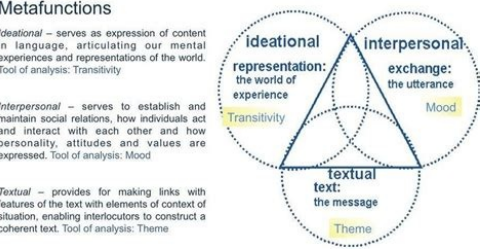




Halliday argues against some claims about language associated with the generative tradition. Language, he argues, 'cannot be equated with 'the set of all grammatical sentences', whether that set is conceived of as finite or infinite".[22] He rejects the use of formal logic in linguistic theories as "irrelevant to the understanding of language" and the use of such approaches as "disastrous for linguistics".[23] On Chomsky specifically, he writes that "imaginary problems were created by the whole series of dichotomies that Chomsky introduced, or took over unproblematicized: not only syntax/semantics but also grammar/lexis, language/thought, competence/performance. Once these dichotomies had been set up, the problem arose of locating and maintaining the boundaries between them." [23] Studies of grammar Fundamental categories Halliday's first major work on grammar was "Categories of the theory of grammar", in the journal Word in 1961.[16] In this paper, he argued for four "fundamental categories" in grammar: unit, structure, class, and system. These categories are "of the highest order of abstraction", but he defended them as necessary to "make possible a coherent account of what grammar is and of its place in language"[24] In articulating unit, Halliday proposed the notion of a rank scale. The units of grammar form a hierarchy, a scale from largest to smallest, which he proposed as: sentence, clause, group/phrase, word and morpheme.[25] Halliday defined structure as "likeness between events in successivity" and as "an arrangement of elements ordered in places".[26] He rejects a view of structure as "strings of classes, such as nominal group + verbalgroup + nominal group", describing structure instead as "configurations of functions, where the solidarity is organic".[27] Grammar as systemic Halliday's early paper shows that the notion of 'system' has been part of his theory from its origins. Halliday explains this preoccupation in the following way: "It seemed to me that explanations of linguistic phenomena needed to be sought in relationships among systems rather than among structures – in what I once called "deep paradigms" – since these were essentially where speakers made their choices".[28] Halliday's "systemic grammar" is a semiotic account of grammar, because of this orientation to choice. Every linguistic act involves choice, and choices are made on many scales. Systemic grammars draw on system networks as their primary representation tool as a consequence. For instance, a major clause must display some structure that is the formal realisation of a choice from the system of "voice", i.e. it must be either "middle" or "effective", where "effective" leads to the further choice of "operative" (otherwise known as 'active') or "receptive" (otherwise known as "passive"). Grammar as functional Halliday's grammar is not just systemic, but systemic functional. He argues that the explanation of how language works "needed to be grounded in a functional analysis, since language had evolved in the process of carrying out certain critical functions as human beings interacted with their ... 'eco-social' environment".[28] Halliday's early grammatical descriptions of English, called "Notes on Transitivity and Theme in English – Parts 1–3"[29] include reference to "four components in the grammar of English representing four functions that the language as a communication system is required to carry out: the experiential, the logical, the discorsal and the speech functional or interpersonal".[30] The "discorsal" function was renamed the "textual function".[31] In this discussion of functions of language, Halliday draws on the work of Bühler and Malinowski. Halliday's notion of language functions, or "metafunctions", became part of his general linguistic theory. Language in society The final volume of Halliday's 10 volumes of Collected Papers is called Language in society, reflecting his theoretical and methodological connection to language as first and foremost concerned with 'acts of meaning'. This volume contains many of his early papers, in which he argues for a deep connection between language and social structure. Halliday argues that language does not exist merely to reflect social structure. For instance, he writes: ... if we say that linguistic structure "reflects" social structure, we are really assigning to language a role that is too passive ... Rather we should say that linguistic structure is the realization of social structure, actively symbolizing it in a process of mutual creativity. Because it stands as a metaphor for society, language has the property of not only transmitting the social order but also maintaining and potentially modifying it. (This is undoubtedly the explanation of the violent attitudes that under certain social conditions come to be held by one group towards the speech of others.)[32] Studies in child language development In enumerating his claims about the trajectory of children's language development, Halliday eschews the metaphor of "acquisition", in which language is considered a static product which the child takes on when sufficient exposure to natural language enables "parameter setting". By contrast, for Halliday what the child develops is a "meaning potential". Learning language is Learning how to mean, the name of his well-known early study of a child's language development.[33] Halliday (1975) identifies seven functions that language has for children in their early years. For Halliday, children are motivated to develop language because it serves certain purposes or functions for them. The first four functions help the child to satisfy physical, emotional and social needs. Halliday calls them instrumental, regulatory, interactional, and personal functions. Instrumental: This is when the child uses language to express their needs (e.g. "Want juice") Regulatory: This is where language is used to tell others what to do (e.g. "Go away") Interactional: Here language is used to make contact with others and form relationships (e.g. "Love you, Mummy") Personal: This is the use of language to express feelings, opinions, and individual identity (e.g. "Me good girl") The next three functions are heuristic, imaginative, and representational, all helping the child to come to terms with his or her environment. Heuristic: This is when language is used to gain knowledge about the environment (e.g. "What is the tractor doing?") Imaginative: Here language is used to tell stories and jokes, and to create an imaginary environment. Representational: The use of language to convey facts and information. According to Halliday, as the child moves into the mother tongue, these functions give way to the generalised "metafunctions" of language. In this process, in between the two levels of the simple protolanguage system (the "expression" and "content" pairing of the Saussure's sign), an additional level of content is inserted. Instead of one level of content, there are now two: lexicogrammar and semantics. 80223594580.pdf The "expression" plane also now consists of two levels: phonetics and phonology.[34] Halliday's work is sometimes seen as representing a competing viewpoint to the formalist approach of Noam Chomsky. Halliday's stated concern is with "naturally occurring language in actual contexts of use" in a large typological range of languages. talking angela hacker eyes Critics of Chomsky often characterise his work, by contrast, as focused on English with Platonic idealisation, a characterisation which Chomskysans reject (see Universal Grammar). Selected works Halliday, M. A. K.; McIntosh, Angus; Strevens, Peter (1964).

Functions	Where Language Is Used To:
Instrumental	Fulfill a need (e.g. want milk)
Imaginative	Create an imaginary world and may be seen in play predominantly (e.g. me an astronaut)
Heuristic	Learn about the environment (e.g. wassat)
Personal	Convey individual opinions, ideas and personal identity (e.g. me like grapefruit)
Representational	Convey facts and information (e.g. it hot)
Interactional	Develop and maintain social relationships (e.g. love you)
Regulatory	Influence the behaviour of others. (e.g. pick up)

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