



REVISITING TRADITIONAL LINGUISTIC SCHOOLS

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Abstract

This study aims to reexamine the historical and intellectual development of the traditional linguistic school and its contribution to the emergence of modern linguistics. Employing a systematic literature review method, data were collected from classical linguistic monographs, peer-reviewed journal articles, and published academic lecture notes. The analysis was conducted through a descriptive-chronological approach by comparing the ideas of major figures from the Greek and Roman periods, the Middle Ages, and the Renaissance, leading to the pre-structuralist era. In addition, this research investigates linguistic traditions in the Eastern world—particularly India and the Arab sphere—as a comparative perspective to Western scholarship. The findings indicate that traditional linguistics is predominantly prescriptive, centered on word-class classification, and foundational to subsequent linguistic theories.

Keywords: traditional linguistics; history of linguistics.

Abstrak

Penelitian ini bertujuan mengulang kembali perkembangan historis dan konseptual aliran linguistik tradisional serta kontribusinya terhadap lahirnya linguistik modern. Kajian dilakukan dengan metode literature review melalui penelusuran sistematis terhadap buku-buku klasik linguistik, artikel ilmiah, serta diktat akademik yang relevan. Analisis dilakukan secara deskriptif-kronologis dengan membandingkan gagasan para tokoh utama dari tradisi Yunani, Romawi, Abad Pertengahan, Renaisans, hingga masa pra-strukturalisme. Selain itu, penelitian ini juga meninjau perkembangan pemikiran linguistik di dunia Timur, khususnya India dan Arab, sebagai pembanding perspektif Barat. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahwa linguistik tradisional bersifat preskriptif, berfokus pada klasifikasi kata, serta meletakkan fondasi penting bagi teori-teori linguistik selanjutnya.

Kata kunci: Aliran linguistic tradisional, Sejarah linguistik

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of language emerged in the nineteenth century under the term "linguistics." Lepschy (1994) explains that the term "linguistics" dates from the early nineteenth century, and there is no ancient term that corresponds to it. In late antiquity, grammarians, in particular, provided descriptions of Greek and Latin, which are the distant forerunners of



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modern descriptive grammar. Before becoming an independent study, linguistics was a cross-section of philosophy, logic, and philology (Pardede, 2022). Parera (1986) explains that philosophy treats language as a tool for thinking, logic uses language as a means of thinking, and philology examines language in exploring comparative grammar.

The study of language aims to explain and describe phenomena in nature and society. Language, as a subset of nature and society, also plays a crucial role in research. In detail, the objectives of language research are outlined in three functions: 1) classifying and differentiating, 2) connecting, and 3) scientifically controlling language. First, related to its function, language studies attempt to classify and differentiate the languages studied based on linguistic data and facts. For example, at the phonological level, researchers distinguish between phones, phonemes, and allophones, then combine them based on similarities in articulatory points. Second, language is an integrated system; therefore, in the second function, researchers attempt to connect linguistic elements. Parera (1986) provides an example: in phonology, sounds have a linear relationship to form a meaningful word. Third, this final function relates to the organization and development of language. In Indonesia, this organization and development function is carried out by an agency called the Language Development and Development Center.

This discussion of traditional linguistic theory is divided into two main topics, geographically: traditional linguistic theory in the West and in the East. First, in the description of traditional linguistic theory in the West, the development of linguistics during the Greek and Roman eras is the focus, given that these two regions are considered the birthplace of world civilization. Second, the study of linguistic theory in the East has focused solely on India, considered the birthplace of linguistics in the East, and the Arab region, whose language remains an international language and the language of religious scriptures for the world's largest community.

Until this century, assumptions, hypotheses, and linguistic theories can be divided into three major groups. These groups can be explored through the history and development of linguistic schools that have developed alongside language research. The linguistic schools we currently understand range from traditional or classical, to structural, to functional. This paper will focus on the development of traditional or classical linguistics. This school is known as traditional linguistics because it is the oldest theory and serves as the foundation for

the development of linguistic theories. Soeparno (2013) explains that the history of the development of traditional or classical science began with the Ancient Greek tradition, while the history of language development in the eastern region began with the Indian tradition.

According to Parera (1986), traditional linguistics has the following characteristics: 1) traditional linguistic theories draw on assumptions and hypotheses about language from philosophy and logic; 2) the language data studied is written language; 3) written language data is limited to Greek and Latin; 4) language is not a product of culture but rather a means and instrument of communication and thought; 5) language analysis is based on philosophical thought; and 6) language data that does not conform to philosophical logic is considered exceptional or erroneous. As the school that initiated the development of linguistic schools, this study inherits traditional theories that can be used as a surgical knife for subsequent schools.

Lepschy (1994) explains that traditional linguistics plays a crucial role in the development of linguistics today because its school of thought has been able to divide words into classes similar to those we still recognize today, such as nouns, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, and so on. This school has also identified familiar morphological categories such as case, number, and tense. Furthermore, this school provides systematic, though often sporadic, rules regarding inflection and word formation. Furthermore, this traditional school also shows what is right and what is wrong, and in the works of two grammarians, namely Apollonius Dyscolus in the second century AD and Priscian in the early sixth century. In fact, we find the earliest surviving discussion of syntax. Therefore, considering the significant influence of traditional linguistics in providing a legacy for the development of linguistics, this article will outline in detail a review and examination of the history and development of classical or traditional linguistics, starting from the Greek and Roman eras, up to the gateway to the transition from classical to modern linguistics.

II. THEORETICAL STUDIES

The study of traditional linguistics is rooted in the philosophical and philological traditions that developed since Ancient Greece. According to Robins (1967), the study of language in its early days did not stand as an independent discipline, but rather was intertwined with logical, rhetorical, and metaphysical thought. This view is reinforced by Parera (1986), who stated that traditional linguistics viewed language primarily as a means of

thought and communication, thus linguistic analysis was heavily influenced by philosophical categories. In the Greek and Roman traditions, figures such as Plato, Aristotle, Varro, and Priscian formulated classifications of parts of speech, concepts of inflection, and syntactic principles that were then passed down to European grammarians for centuries (Lepschy, 1994).

In addition to the Western tradition, the development of traditional linguistics in the East also made fundamental contributions. Bloomfield (in Robins, 1967) called Panini's grammar one of the greatest intellectual achievements in human history due to its highly detailed systematic analysis of phonology and morphology. Indian and Arabic linguistic traditions display a strong emphasis on pronunciation accuracy, standardization of language structure, and the relationship between language and sacred texts, demonstrating a prescriptive character similar to that of the classical Western tradition. Thus, in both East and West, traditional linguistics tends to emphasize linguistic norms, form classification, and the use of written language as the primary reference.

These characteristics were later conceptually formulated by modern scholars. Soeparno (2013) asserts that traditional linguistics is characterized by a prescriptive orientation, a predominance of word class classifications, and a reliance on Greek and Latin grammatical models. Lepschy (1994) adds that although this approach is not as empirical as modern linguistics, its contributions are crucial in laying the foundations for grammatical analysis, such as morphological categories, early syntactic systems, and principles of lexical classification. This theoretical foundation is used in this study to examine the historical development of traditional linguistics from both Western and Eastern perspectives and its position as a foundation for modern linguistics.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

This research is a conceptual study using a literature review method. According to Creswell (2014), conceptual research aims to develop theoretical understanding through systematic literature analysis. Data collection was conducted by reviewing various relevant literature sources, including classical and modern linguistics books such as those by Robins (1967), Lepschy (1994), Parera (1986), and Soeparno (2013), scientific articles published in national and international journals, and published lecture notes. The selection of literature sources followed the purposive sampling principle proposed by Patton (2002), selecting

sources based on their relevance to the historical development of traditional linguistic schools, from both Western and Eastern perspectives.

Data analysis was conducted using a descriptive-analytical method following the Miles and Huberman (1994) framework, which includes data reduction, data presentation, and conclusion drawing. The data collected from various literature sources are then compared and synthesized chronologically to find the patterns, characteristics, and contributions of each period to the development of linguistics, starting from the Ancient Greek, Roman, Middle Ages, Renaissance, until the birth of modern linguistics. The analysis process also includes the identification of important figures, key concepts, and the distinctive characteristics of traditional linguistic schools that distinguish them from later linguistic schools, as described in the linguistic historiography approach by Koerner (1995).

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

The division of traditional linguistic schools begins with the history of these schools and their development based on the theories of contemporary figures. Robins (1994) chronologically explains the historical trajectory of the classical school, initiated by Greek thinkers. The practical and theoretical results of Greek linguistics were then adopted by Rome, passed on by Rome to Latin grammarians, and then continued by scholars in the Middle Ages through the Renaissance.

Traditional Greek Linguistic Schools

The study of language in Greek times has a very long history, spanning approximately 600 years from the 5th century BC. The main linguistic issues that linguists debated at that time were (1) the conflict between *physis* and *nomos*, and (2) the conflict between analogy and anomaly. Greek philosophers questioned whether language was natural (*physis*) or conventional (*nomos*). Natural or physical means that language has an origin and source in eternal, irreplaceable principles outside of humanity. In the field of semantics, the group that adheres to this school of thought, the naturalists, argue that every word is related to an object. For example, the word *onomatopoeia*, or words based on sound imitation, is a form of speech. Conversely, the conventionalists argue that language is conventional. This means that word meanings are derived from traditions or customs that are subject to change. According to the conventionalists, *onomatopoeia* is merely a coincidence. Most concepts of the same

object, nature, and state are expressed in different word forms. The contrast between analogy and anomaly concerns the issue of language as something regular and irregular.

Based on the study of Greek, we know the names of groups and figures who played a significant role in the study of this language. We will discuss them briefly below.

The Sophists

The Sophists conducted empirical studies of language in the 5th century AD. In their studies, this group emphasized rhetoric. From the Sophists' findings, we inherit sentence types based on their content, meaning, and structure. Protagoras distinguished several types of sentences, including prayers, questions, statements, commands, narratives, answers, orders, reports, and invitations.

Plato

One of the most serious debates of our time regarding language was the conflict between the notion that language is governed by nature (physis) or conventional (nomos), and the debate between analogy and anomaly. Plato, in his Dialogues, had Cratylus and Hermogenes debate the nature of language.

Physicists argued that every word has a relationship with the object it refers to. Physicists argued that every word has a relationship with the object it refers to, for example, onomatopoeic words (words derived from imitations of the sounds of objects) (Chaer, 2007). This theory, also known as the bow-bow theory or echoic theory, states that human language is an imitation of natural sounds (Keraf, 1996:3). For example, onomatopoeic words, or words formed from imitations of sounds such as crowing, roaring, meowing, and nouns, such as gecko, tokek, frog, and qithar.

In contrast, conventionalists argue that words are formed from traditions or customs, which are subject to change. Conventionalists believe that all words that appear around speakers are nomos, meaning that each word is derived from the habits or conventions of its users (Chaer, 2007). For example, pena (Indonesian); qolam (Arabic); pen (English) are words whose appearance is arbitrarily agreed upon by their speakers. According to conventionalists, the presence of onomatopoeia in word formation occurs merely by chance.

Second, the conflict between analogy and anomaly. Analogists, including Plato and Aristotle, argue that language is regular. This regularity is explained by the

examples of boy-boys and girl-girls. In contrast, anomalyists argue that language is irregular. Supporting this view is the change from child to children (childs) and several irregular verbs in English.

Plato explained that language is the expression of one's thoughts through onomata and rhemata, which are reflections of one's ideas transmitted through the air currents of the mouth. Based on this understanding or definition of language, Plato directly classified words into two types: onomata and rhemata. Onomata, derived from the word "onoma," meaning name (in everyday language), is a noun (in modern language), a subject (in a sentence), or a word type that usually forms the basis of a statement. Rhemata, derived from "rhema," can be a phrase, utterance (in everyday language), a verb, and a verbal (in grammatical terms).

Onoma and rhema are members of the "logos," meaning sentence or clause, and phrases or word types used to express statements. Furthermore, Plato also exerted significant influence in the field of phonology. Plato also used a basic classification of letters or elements of speech into sounds (phneenta) and unsounds (aphona) (Lepschy, 1994). Phneenta refers to sounds that can be heard and pronounced. This includes all the vowels and consonants that form words in a language. These sounds are the active elements of speech that can be heard by the listener and produced by the speaker (can be called segmental sounds). In Plato's context, aphona refers to elements or aspects of language that are not heard or spoken. This may include more abstract or theoretical aspects of language that are not directly related to the sounds produced during speech (called suprasegmental sounds).

Aristotle

Plato's understanding was further inherited and developed by his student, Aristotle. In his thinking on language, Aristotle continued to distinguish between two types of words: onoma and rhema, but added another type of word, syndesmoi. This new type of word was a type of conjunction or particle (now known as the functional word type). This type of word does not have lexical meaning, but rather serves a function and is meaningful syntactically or at the sentence level.

Soeparno (2013) explains that Aristotle's division of types of words is no longer purely philosophical but has also led to linguistic thinking. For example, in defining,

onoma is defined as a type or class of words that undergoes declension (changes in form due to gender, number, and case). Rhema is defined as a word type that undergoes conjugative changes (changes in form caused by markers of charm, number, and tense). In contrast, syndesmoi do not change form in the declension or conjugation process.

In addition to explaining word types, Aristotle also differentiated word types based on gender. In his classification, Aristotle divided word types into three categories: masculine, feminine, and neuter. Furthermore, Aristotle also explained the relationship between rhema and tense (time). Typologically, this language is classified as a flexion language.

Stoics

The Stoics were a group of philosophers and logicians who developed in the early 4th century BC. Their contributions to the development of linguistics can be explained in three ways. First, they distinguished between the logical study of language and the grammatical study of language. Second, they empirically explained meaning in three main aspects. Third, they also focused on the description of sound.

The Stoics' approach to explaining meaning is explained in three aspects: 1) the 'symbol or sign', called semaion, is the sound of language; 2) meaning is what is referred to by semaion or lekton; and 3) external things, called objects or situations of language, are called pragma. They provide an example of the word 'gramma' (letter); analysis explains that this word has the meaning of 'gramma' (a sign in writing, 'gramma'), and the name 'gramma' refers to the letter.

Furthermore, the Stoics also focused on sound, 'phone' (phone). They distinguished between legein (sounds that are part of the phonology of a language but have no meaning) and prophetai (sounds that have meaning) (segmental sounds). Concerning words, the Stoics expanded the theory inherited from Plato and Aristotle. In their explanation of rhema, they not only categorized rhema by tense but also by gender and number. The term they used was categorization, which describes the infinite and finite forms.

The category of parts of speech was also not overlooked in the development of linguistics among these Stoics. They initially divided parts of speech into four types: onoma, rhema, syndesmoi, and arthon. Onoma is a word that describes nouns and

proper names. Rhema is a word in a sentence that describes an event and does not experience a case. Syndesmoi is a function word. Words that indicate gender and number, for example, in Greek, ho, he, to, hoi, hai, ta, indicate masculine, feminine, neuter, singular, and plural genders (now known as particles or pronouns).

Alexandrians

The Alexandrians of ancient Greece made significant contributions to the development of language and linguistic studies, particularly during the Hellenistic period. After the founding of Alexandria by Alexander the Great in the 4th century BC, the city became an intellectual center of the ancient world. The Library of Alexandria, renowned as one of the largest libraries in the world, became a center of scientific and literary activity, including the study of language.

One of the best-known studies produced by this group is the Grammar of Dionysius Thrax (hereinafter abbreviated as DT). This book is a grammar that explains language comprehensively and systematically. This grammar was later translated into Latin under the title *Ars Grammatika*. The DT grammar focuses on phonology and morphology, while aspects of syntax are not covered in this book. Several chapters are explained in this grammar, including chapters on letters and parts of speech. Regarding letters, the DT explains that there are 24 letters ranging from Alpha to Omega. These letters are divided into 7 vowels: /a/, /e/, /ē/, /i/, /o/, /y/, /ō/. There are 6 diphthongs, namely ai, ay, ei, ey, oi, and oy. There are also 17 consonants, namely b, d, g, dz, th, l, m, n, ks, p, s, r, t, ph, ch, ps, and so on.

In the DT word classification, word types are classified into eight types: nouns (onoma), which include names of people, places, or objects; verbs (rhema), which describe actions or states; participles (metoché), which are the type of words currently known as participles and function to characterize nouns and verbs; articles (arthron), which define nouns (similar to "the" or "a" in English); pronouns (antonymia): words that replace nouns; prepositions (prothesis): words that indicate the relationship between nouns and verbs; adverbs (epirrhema): adverbs that describe verbs or adjectives; and conjunctions (syndesmos): words that connect words or sentences.

Traditional Roman Linguistic School

Cultural contact between Greece and Rome was long-standing. The fall of Greece, after Alexander the Great, gave rise to a new empire that expanded eastward and westward into Italy. Christianity at that time was a driving force behind the Roman Empire. In linguistics, the Romans were greatly influenced by Greek linguistic works. Robins (1967) argued that Roman linguistics was essentially the application of Greek thought to Latin. The relatively high structural similarities, strengthened by the unification of Greek and Roman civilizations, led to the interconnected development of linguistics between the two nations. Major grammarians within this traditional Roman school include Varro and Priscia.

Varro's Views

Robins (1997) explains that Varro was the first serious Latin writer on linguistic questions. Stoic thought was deeply rooted in Varro's linguistic views, and he was also familiar with the Alexandrian doctrine. Even Varro's grammar bears a strong resemblance to the grammar of Latin Latin. Varro's views on language are outlined in his 25-volume book, *De Lingua Latina*. In this book, Varro explores studies related to etymology, morphology, and syntax. The following is a brief explanation.

Etymology

In this field, Varro collected and analyzed sound changes and their meanings over time. In his findings, he provided an example of the change in the sound "duellum" to "bellum," meaning "war." This change in meaning occurred in the word "hostis," meaning "foreigner," which changed to "enemy." Robins (1997) outlined a weakness in Varro's etymological view, particularly in comparing Latin and Greek, which is the assumption that all words with similar forms are direct borrowings.

Direct borrowing in linguistics refers to words taken directly from one language to another without significant changes in form or meaning. In this context, if a Latin word has a similar form to a Greek word, Varro (a 1st-century BC Roman scholar) assumed that the word was borrowed directly from Greek, or in other words, that the Latin word originated from Greek without undergoing a complex process of adaptation. For example, the Greek word "philosophia" was taken directly to the Latin "philosophia," meaning "philosophy" in both languages.

Words

Varro recognized that in word formation, there are forms that occur by analogy and anomalies, or regular and irregular forms. Robins (1997) defines a word as a part of speech that cannot be separated and is its minimum form. In his study of morphology, Varro was interested in how words change form according to grammatical rules, particularly in Latin, which is known for its complex inflectional system.

Inflection is the change in word form to indicate grammatical information such as tense, case, gender, number, or mood. In Latin, inflection is crucial because a word's form determines its function in a sentence. Varro studied various noun inflections, including changes in noun form to indicate case (nominative, accusative, genitive, etc.) and number (singular and plural). For example, the noun *amicus* (friend) is changed to *amici* in the plural, and to *amici* in the genitive singular.

Varro also examined verb inflection, which indicates time (present, preterite, future), mood (indicative, imperative, subjunctive), and aspect (perfective or imperfective). For example, the verb *amare* (to love) changes to *amat* for the third-person singular present indicative, and *amavit* for the perfective (preterite). Varro attempted to identify consistent patterns in these changes and classify them based on generally applicable rules.

In addition to inflection, Varro also studied derivation, the process of forming new words by adding prefixes, suffixes, or internal changes to the root (stem). An example in Latin is the root word *terra* (earth), which can form the derived word *terrestris* (related to land). In this case, Varro analyzed how the suffix *tris* is used to form adjectives from nouns.

Priscian's View

The Priscians (or Priscians), named after the famous Roman grammarian Priscianus Caesariensis (often shortened to Priscian), were a group of grammarians focused on the development of Latin grammar. Robins (1967) states that they “worked systematically through his subject, the description of the language of classical Latin literature.” This group focused on the systematization and codification of Latin grammar. Priscian's most famous work is *Institutiones Grammaticae* (Institutions of

Grammar), which is one of the most influential texts on Latin grammar and was highly valued in the Middle Ages as a basis for grammar teaching.

One of Priscian's major contributions was the classification of Latin words into eight grammatical parts of speech. He expanded on the pre-existing system of Greek grammarians such as Dionysius Thrax. Robins (1967) explains that Priscian elaborated on each part of speech in detail in his work: Nomen, a word that denotes an entity, either concrete or abstract. Pronomen is a word that replaces a noun to avoid repetition. Verbum is a word that indicates an action, state, or event. Adverbium is a word that modifies or provides additional information about a verb, adjective, or other adverb. Participium is a participle of a verb that functions as an adjective. Conjunction is a word that connects clauses or phrases. Praepositio is a word that shows the relationship between words in a sentence. Interjection is a word used to express emotions spontaneously.

Furthermore, Priscian's view of phonology, in his work *Institutiones Grammaticae*, emphasized the importance of the relationship between sounds and letters in Latin (Robins, 1967). He classified letters based on vowels and consonants, focusing on the length of vowels, which can change a word's meaning. For example, malus (evil) with a short vowel differs from malus (apple tree) with a long vowel. He explained that vowels are sounds that can be pronounced alone without the assistance of other sounds. Priscian also explained how consonants are pronounced and how sound assimilation occurs in compound words. He also discussed diphthongs, syllabic stress, and the role of accent and prosody in determining word meaning and correct pronunciation.

Robins (1967) also highlighted the influence of Greek on Latin phonology, particularly in the pronunciation of loanwords. He paid particular attention to inconsistently pronounced letters (such as h in some Latin words) and the importance of correct spelling for proper pronunciation. His work served as a guide for Latin students, helping them understand phonology systematically and avoid pronunciation and spelling errors.

In syntax, Priscian introduced the concepts of active, passive, neutral, and oratio.

Oratio is a harmonious arrangement of words indicating a sentence's completion. Oratio

also demonstrates that a single sentence can become a complete sentence within a speech. For example, someone asks, "What is good in life?" and the interlocutor answers, "honor." According to Priscian, the single sentence honor "honor" is classified as a complete sentence based on the complete meaning and function conveyed by the word.

The Greek and Roman schools of thought played a significant role in the development of linguistic studies worldwide. Lepschy (1994) even explicitly explained that traditional Greek and Roman linguistics played a significant role in the development of linguistics, particularly in providing grammatical descriptions. Therefore, Greek and Latin grammar can be considered the forerunners of modern descriptive systems of grammar.

Middle Ages

Robins (1967) states that the Middle Ages designates and characterizes the period of European history between the collapse of the Roman Empire as a unified civilization and the series of events and cultural changes known as the Renaissance, generally considered the opening phase of the modern world. A key characteristic of the Middle Ages is the central role played by the Latin education system. Robins (1967) argues that Latin holds a place of honor in analysis. Latin was used as the language of the church, diplomacy, and science. Furthermore, Latin was also used as a lingua franca.

Speculative Grammar

Speculative Grammar (abbreviated as SG) is the integration of descriptions of Latin grammar as formulated by Donysius Thrax and Priscia into the scholastic system. Scholasticism itself is the result of the integration of Aristotelian philosophy with the thoughts of Thomas Aquinas into Catholic theology. This approach is heavily influenced by scholastic philosophy, particularly Aristotle's logic, and aims to understand the relationship between language, human thought, and reality.

Robins (1967) SG formulated three terms related to language: modi significandi, modi essendi, and modi intellegendi. Modi essendi refers to "modes of being" or how something exists in the real world. It is the fundamental nature of objects or concepts in the world that serves as a reference for words in language. The word "book" in Indonesian refers to a physical object with tangible properties: something made of paper, usually with pages, containing writing, and readable. The fundamental nature of

a book as a physical object is its form, material, and function as a source of information or recreation.

Modi intelligendi refers to the "mode of understanding," or how the human mind perceives and understands objects in the real world. This is the cognitive process that occurs in our minds when we observe and categorize objects, phenomena, or concepts. When someone sees a "book," their brain categorizes the object based on their previous experiences and knowledge of books.

Modi significandi is the "mode of signification," or how language (words, phrases, sentence structures) signify meaning or express understanding of objects and concepts. This refers to how language structures are used to convey meaning connected to reality (modi essendi) and our understanding of reality (modi intelligendi). [buku] in Indonesian is a signifier that represents the physical object of a book in the real world (modi essendi) and the concept of a book that we understand in our minds (modi intelligendi).

Furthermore, TBS is very keen to formulate the Universality of Grammar: TBS adherents believe that grammar is universal, meaning that every language in the world shares the same basic principles. They believe that there is a grammatical structure that underlies all human languages, because language originates from the way humans think and understand the world. This is one of the ideas that appeals to modern linguistic theories, including the idea of universal grammar, later developed by linguists such as Noam Chomsky.

The Renaissance

The development of linguistics during the Renaissance was a pivotal period in the history of language studies. This period, which lasted from the 14th to the 17th centuries, was marked by major changes in the way scholars viewed and studied language. At the beginning of the Renaissance, the primary focus of linguistic study was on classical languages, especially Latin and Greek. Renaissance scholars had a keen interest in ancient texts and sought to understand and preserve these languages.

Renaissance scholars began to develop more systematic philological methods for analyzing and comparing ancient texts. Lorenzo Valla, an Italian humanist, was a key figure in this field. His work "Elegantiae Linguae Latinae" (1444) became the standard for the study

of Latin grammar for centuries. Over time, the attention of Renaissance linguists began to expand to the vernacular languages of Europe. This represented a significant shift from an exclusive focus on classical languages. Scholars began codifying the grammars of languages such as Italian, French, Spanish, and English. One important work in this regard is "Gramática de la lengua castellana" (1492) by Antonio de Nebrija, considered the first modern grammar of a modern European language.

The Renaissance period also saw a surge in interest in the origins of language and the relationships between different languages. Scholars began comparing languages and attempting to discover connections between them. Although many theories of this period were later proven inaccurate, these efforts laid the foundation for the future development of historical and comparative linguistics.

Another important aspect of Renaissance linguistics was the emphasis on rhetoric and stylistics. Renaissance humanists viewed the ability to speak and write elegantly as essential skills. They studied and taught classical rhetorical techniques, which they applied not only to Latin but also to vernacular languages.

Overall, the Renaissance period marked a significant turning point in the history of linguistics. The shift from an exclusive focus on classical languages to the recognition and study of vernacular languages, the development of more systematic philological methods, and a growing interest in comparative language all contributed to the foundation of modern linguistics.

Leading Up to the Birth of Modern Linguistics

Leading up to the birth of modern linguistics, several important developments in the study of language occurred that laid the foundation for linguistics as a systematic and scientific discipline. This period, which lasted from the late 18th to the early 20th century, was marked by the emergence of various approaches and theories that paved the way for modern linguistics. One of the most influential schools of thought during this period was historical-comparative linguistics. This school emerged as a result of the discovery of the relationship between Sanskrit and European languages. Sir William Jones, in a speech in 1786, stated:

"The Sanskrit language, whatever its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more

perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than

either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident."

This statement sparked a great deal of interest in the comparative study of languages and language evolution. Scholars such as Franz Bopp, Jacob Grimm, and Rasmus Rask began to develop systematic methods for comparing languages and reconstructing their parent languages.

Furthermore, the neogrammarian school emerged in the late 19th century. Neogrammarians, such as Karl Brugmann and Hermann Osthoff, emphasized the importance of unambiguous sound laws in the evolution of language. They argued that sound changes occur regularly and predictably. During the same period, interest in language typology also emerged. Wilhelm von Humboldt, a German philosopher and linguist, developed the concept of the internal structure of language and classified languages based on their grammatical structure.

Overall, the period leading up to the birth of modern linguistics was marked by a diversification of approaches to the study of language. From a focus on the history and comparison of languages, to the analysis of the internal structure of languages and the experimental study of speech sounds, this period witnessed the development of various methods and theories that became the foundation of modern linguistics.

The Development of Language in the East

The development of linguistics in the East has a rich and diverse history, with significant contributions from various traditions and cultures, such as India, Arabia, and China. The history of linguistics in the East began approximately four centuries BC. It can be concluded that the development of language in the East was nearly simultaneous with the development of language in the West. Each region has a distinct approach to the study of language, encompassing grammar, phonology, morphology, and even aspects of the philosophy of language.

India has one of the world's oldest linguistic traditions, beginning with the works of Panini (4th century BC), a grammarian renowned for his monumental work, Vyakarana. Bloomfield greatly admired Panini's work, describing it as "one of the greatest monuments of human intelligence." This work is the earliest grammatical system to include a detailed

analysis of Sanskrit. This work was truly remarkable for its comprehensive and thorough description of Sanskrit, particularly its phonology, for such an early period.

Panini's primary contribution was in the analysis of morphology—how words are formed from roots through inflection and derivation. His theory encompassed how sounds interact within words and became the basis for the development of grammar in India. Panini also provided the foundation for a highly sophisticated study of phonetics through the analysis of scripts and sounds. The Devanagari script was meticulously constructed, with each sound in Sanskrit representing Sanskrit sounds in great detail.

Panini's work was primarily designed to facilitate the Brahmanas and Brahmacharis in teaching their followers the meaning and experience of the Vedas. This standardization of grammar was intended to ensure correct pronunciation, as in their religion, incorrect pronunciation could result in unfulfilled mantras and, according to beliefs, could even bring disaster.

Characteristics of Traditional Linguistic Schools

Based on the explanation of the theories above, the Western and Eastern perspectives can be characterized as emphasizing prescriptive patterns, based on Greek and Latin grammar, dominated by word classification, and focused on linguistic rules. Here's the explanation.

Prescriptive

Traditional linguistics tends to be prescriptive (Nasrollahi, 2025). This means that linguists in this school emphasize rules about how language should be used rather than describing how language is used in everyday life. The goal is to standardize language, especially in literary, religious, and educational contexts. Grammar is written as a guide for speakers to use language correctly and well.

Based on Latin and Greek Grammar

In Europe, traditional linguistics was heavily influenced by classical Latin and Greek grammar, primarily because these two languages served as primary models for language development and education. Concepts such as subject, predicate, case, gender, and conjugation were taken from Latin and Greek grammar and applied to other languages. For example, Latin's highly structural grammar influenced how other European languages were analyzed (Ayress, 2019).

Grammar Dominated by Classification of Word Parts

The most prominent characteristic of the traditional school of linguistics is the dominance of classification of word parts. This is based on the fact that word parts are the oldest aspect in the history of linguistic studies. Plato discovered two types of words, and they have been further developed by subsequent scholars. Even today, the book "Standard Indonesian Grammar" still prioritizes the classification of word parts as one of its main areas of study. According to Soeparno (2013), some well-known figures in the traditional school of linguistics in Indonesia include van Ophuysen, Sutan Takdir Alisyahbana, Madong Lubis, and others.

Focus on Writing and Formal Language Forms "Oriented to Rules"

Traditional linguistics focuses more on written language and formal language forms than on spoken language (Shunaq, 2019). For example, the grammar developed is based on the analysis of literary texts, holy books, or official documents, rather than on everyday speech. Greater emphasis is placed on rhetorical beauty and grammatical accuracy in written texts.

V. CONCLUSION

Traditional or classical linguistics schools have historically spanned the ages, from Greek linguistics to Roman linguistics, the Middle Ages, and the Renaissance, all the way up to the birth of modern linguistics. Each school within this traditional sphere has its own distinctive characteristics and significant influence on the development of linguistic studies to the present day. However, classical or traditional linguistics is typically prescriptive, based on Greek and Latin, with a grammar dominated by word class classification, and a focus on rules.

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