

Reconceptualization of Language Modularity: An Innovative Pragmatic Approach to Teaching English

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Abstract

Language is varied and complicated. Language is modular, according to Jakobson, since it comprises two parts: meaningless sounds and meaningful signs. Chomsky believes people have unique modules and develop language modules intrinsically through universal grammar rules. Fodor considers the mind a family of modules with a language module. This article presents a novel and pragmatic perspective on the nature of language and its function in teaching English—vocabulary teaching. Through the author's research, this work has produced an innovative pragmatic view of language that can be implemented in teaching English. Language is a subsystem that is functionally operational, self-contained, demarcatable, indexable, teachable, learnable, instructible, computerizable, and connectable. Subsystems can include subsidiary subsystems, making them open- or closed-word classes. This novel view of language as a subsystem contributes to language teaching and learning. Subsystem Knowledge (SSK), including form, meaning, structure, use, information, and related concepts, is required for teaching and learning a subsystem. Additionally, the aim of this article is to elucidate the functionality of this pragmatic view of language in language teaching and provide a set of guidelines on how to implement it using cooking vocabulary as an example. The studies cited in this paper examine language modularity through a cognitive lens and do not have direct implications for language instruction, unlike the present perspective on language, which is pragmatic as it combines linguistics and language teaching. Understanding the various components of a subsystem is beneficial for practitioners in teaching English.

Keywords: Language learning, language modularity, subsystem knowledge, cooking vocabulary, vocabulary teaching and learning.

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1. Introduction

What is a language? Is the question "What is language?" legitimate itself? Are all languages alike? What are the properties of language? There are many human languages, and many aspects of these languages remain unstudied. In light of this, Chomsky (2006) proposes that studying a few languages in depth is preferable to superficially studying many. Additionally, whether the "What is language?" question has been definitively answered remains unclear.

Language can be defined in different terms and from different points of view. Some scientists from different fields, like sociology and psychology, define a language being related to humans; they implicitly tend to take the concept of language for granted (Searle, 2016).

Other scientists and linguists describe this assumption about language as problematic. Consequently, they have defined language, specifically in terms of communication. They claim that language is a tool of communication. Therefore, language is defined in terms of communicational functions: referential, emotive, conative, metalinguistic, poetic/aesthetic, and pathic.

In answering the questions, what is language? And how modular is it? In the mid- and late-1970s, language was a means of communication that is arbitrary, systematic, structurally dependent, and culturally transmissible. Additionally, duality was added as a property of language. Jakobson sees language as a tool of communication, therefore, he sees speech as a two-level structure: a phonological and morphological level—double articulation or duality patterning. This concept was first introduced by the French linguist Andre Martinet in 1949. Language is composed of meaningless and distinctive sounds that, when put together, produce meaningful signs—words and morphemes. This division of linguistic structure is what makes the language faculty modular. Then, language in Jakobson's sense is a twofold structure; one is distinct and meaningless, which gives rise to another element that is meaningful: language. The point of view of language in Jakobson's view is simple; it still does not explicitly talk about the modularity of language; rather, it says that combining phonemes results in word formation, and these words have an arbitrary meaning that conveys meaning; hence, this process can result in an unlimited number of utterances.

Nevertheless, the endeavor to delineate language based on its communicational functions presents certain challenges. When discussing communication, the term refers to the exchange of information between two individuals. However, at times, this exchange might encounter difficulties in terms of the underlying intents involved, which can be referred to as Multiple Intents. The issue with defining a language just as a tool of

communication lies in the presence of several underlying messages. Hence, in this context, communication is seen as devoid of external stimuli, and as a result, the attempt to define language solely in terms of communication is inadequate. The inherent problem lies in the fact that communication serves as a means for transmitting messages. The act of communication inherently involves the conveyance of meaningful messages. The idea of meaning poses challenges and complexities in defining language as a means of communication. This is mostly due to the inherent assumption that meaning is universally understood and accepted.

The definition of language as a system per se, has inherent problematic aspects. The notion that certain elements of language lack systematicity and predictability is seen in cases where a verb must be derived from a noun. In such instances, it is observed that the addition of a morpheme is necessary in some cases, while in others, the only alteration is the displacement of emphasis. Numerous facets of human language exhibit asymmetry, irregularity, and idiosyncrasy.

2. Accounts of Language Modularity

2.1 Jakobson's Modularity of Language

In the mid- and late-1970s, language was a means of communication that was arbitrary, systematic, structurally dependent, and culturally transmissible. Additionally, duality was added as a property of language. Jakobson sees language as a tool of communication. Therefore, he sees speech as a two-level structure: a phonological and morphological level—double articulation or duality patterning. This concept was first introduced by the French linguist Andre Martinet in 1949. Language is composed of meaningless and distinctive sounds that produce meaningful signs – words and morphemes when they are put together. This division of linguistic structure is what makes the language faculty modular. In Jakobson's sense, language is a twofold structure; one is distinct and meaningless, giving rise to another meaningful element – language. The viewpoint of language in Jakobson's view is simple, but it does not explicitly talk about the modularity of language; rather, it says that combining phonemes results in word formation, and these words have an arbitrary meaning they convey; hence, this process can result in an unlimited number of utterances.

However, this attempt to define language in terms of communicational functions is also problematic. When we talk about communication, we mean that there is an interaction between two people, but sometimes, this interaction can be problematic in the sense of intentions; this can be referred to as Multiple Intentions. This multiplicity of underlying messages is problematic when defining a language as a means of communication. Another example of the problematicity of defining language in terms of communication is what is referred to as internal and External stimulus-free Expression. For humans to communicate a message, there is no need for an internal or external stimulus. Therefore, communication here is considered stimulus-free; consequently, defining language in terms of communication fails. The fact that communication enables us to communicate a message is problematic, because when we communicate a message, that message holds meaning. Here, the concept of meaning makes defining language, in terms of communication, challenging and problematic simply because, again, the concept of meaning is taken for granted.

Defining language as a system is itself problematic for the following reasons: The idea is that some aspects of language are not systematic and predictable, e.g., to derive a verb from a noun, sometimes, one has to add a morpheme. However, at other times, no changes occur other than the stress displacement. Rather, many aspects of the human language are asymmetric, irregular, and idiosyncratic.

Because some linguists define language in terms of communicational functions and as a system, which is still problematic, Chomsky (1975) suggests differentiating between a language's structure and function while studying the latter.

2.2 Chomskian Modularity of Language

The concept of human brain structure first started with Chomsky. He notes that the central system of the human brain is structured into different modules, each serving a different function. Hence, the brain can be explained in terms of modularity.

As long as the brain is modular, among all the modules, one is dedicated to language. Chomsky supports his point of view with the example of people's cognitive abilities that remain functional even after they lose the ability to speak. He believes that brain modularity has two significant properties: (1) Modules in the brain are distinctive and self-contained, and (2) the language module is itself modular; it consists of sub-modules comprising structure, meaning, and sound (Chomskian modularity).

Language is structured. It has meaning and is made of sounds. However, how are these elements determined? According to Chomsky, humans are pre-equipped from birth with innate prerequisites for language acquisition – Language Acquisition Device (LAD). That is to say; it is not about the quantity of stimulus they are exposed to. Chomsky supports his point of view with the case where some people gain a substantial amount of knowledge despite limited exposure to a stimulus, compared to others that acquire little knowledge despite ample exposure. In simpler words, poverty of stimulus is not a key element in language acquisition; rather, "the principles

that determine the form of grammar and that select a grammar of the appropriate form on the basis of certain data constitute a subject that might, following a traditional usage, be termed Universal Grammar" (Chomsky, 2006, p. 24). The language acquisition device comprises the Universal Grammar – a basic set of rules that all languages share.

In relation to the modularity concept, in the human brain, language is regarded as a distinctive module. This module is dedicated to grammar rules, or the so-called Universal Grammar. The Chomskian modularity or intentional modularity (developed based on Freud's work) can then be characterized as follows: A language module is distinctive and independent from other modules, and a language module can be developed innately through universal grammar rules.

2.3 Fodorian Modularity of Language

Since the 1980s, the notion of modularity has been eminent in linguistics and cognitive science research. Jerry Fodor is among the advocates of the modularity hypothesis. The following paragraph explicitly provides a review of the modularity hypothesis, its roots, and a critical reading of the relationship between the findings about the language faculty and language learning/acquisition.

The mind is taken to be either modular or unitary. On the one hand, the mind is considered modular in that it consists of modules with distinctive mechanisms that subserve each module. On the other hand, the mind is unitary because it is one single organism with a set of general mechanisms for different purposes. The goal here is to elucidate the notion of modularity and its roots.

Jerry's modularity of the mind hypothesis is the end product of his thorough interpretation of four accounts to explain how the mind is structured: the neo-Cartesian account of mind structure, the non-Cartesian account of mind structure, Gall's account of mind structure, and the associationist account of mind structure.

The first account Fodor improves on is that of Descartes' innateness notion. Accordingly, the mind is intrinsically and genetically structured into psychological faculties. In Fodor's words, this viewpoint of mind structure is, by all means, a blessing and foundational to other theories. However, he clarifies that it is different from the neo-Cartesian doctrine that regards the mind as being structured into "mental organs," which is Chomsky's. In Chomsky's words, as Fodor explains, language is the innately specified propositional contents (truths) that interact with perceptual data. Hence, language is a mental organ. Chomsky here compares the mental organs with the anatomical organs, as they function similarly. Unlike mental organs, Fodor argues that anatomical organs do not require innately propositional contents to develop. Are all the psychological faculties innately mental organs? Fodor notes that not all the faculties are endogenously structured.

The second account Fodor accounts for is non-Cartesian. He, Fodor, regards the mind as "a sort of mechanism, not a mental organ, to be construed as a bundle of faculties that are "individuated by reference to its typical effects" (1981, p. 10); that is to say, a faculty is individuated based on its function. In this sense, a language faculty is the set of functions by which verbal capacities are assimilated and employed. The non-Cartesian perception of mind structure sees a faculty to serve one single solely.

The third account is a refined version of the horizontal faculties suggested by Franz Joseph Gall, the father of phrenology. This account refutes the previous horizontal faculties, and "Vertical faculties" is the term Fodor coined for the counter-version. According to Gall, in a few words, horizontal faculties are fiction. Gall agrees and disagrees with the traditional psychological faculties (horizontal faculties); he agrees that they exist and disagrees with how their division is drawn. In the end, Fodor advocates that there should be a vertically arranged mind structure; in the sense that each faculty is: domain-specific, genetically determined, computationally independent, and neurally distinct.

The fourth account is that of associationism. Fodor clarifies that "associationism offered an account of the ontogeny of mental processes which dispended [...] with the need for faculties" (1981, p. 27). In simpler words, associationists do not account for psychological faculties of both types – horizontal and vertical faculties. The associationism's viewpoint of the mind, as Fodor reads it, states that "if the mind is a primitive psychological mechanism – a fundamental power – [...] [then] only one; only the capacity to form associations" (Fodor, 1981, p. 29 with my emphasis). By this reading, Fodor sees that associationism is an alternative explanation of faculty psychology; more precisely, it is a reduced explanation. Additionally, instead of interpreting the stimulus/response relation as an observable event, they can be interpreted as 'states of mind.'

The Cartesian perspective posits that the mind is comprised of internally organized psychological entities, while the neo-Cartesian viewpoint of Chomsky characterizes the psychological faculty as a mental organ. Chomsky's view contradicts Descartes'. The neo-Cartesian perspective views the mind as a rich and diverse structure (Chomsky, 1980), whereas it has been assumed that the mind develops homogenously. Chomsky depicts the mental structure as anatomical organs. Cognitive structures and organs are not viewed differently. Chomsky thinks that the child is born with mental structures responsible for universal mechanisms for human language acquisition, just as he is born with innate body organs responsible for distinctive mechanisms.

From reading the title of Fodor's first ground-breaking publication and based on what has been stated above,

it can be concluded that the modularity of the mind states that the mind is modular. The mind is composed of an array of systems. These input systems are themselves composed of a family of modules. Fodor views the mind as made of modules, and each module is a *perceptual input system* that is:

1. **Domain-specific:** A module is self-contained as it deals with a restricted set of inputs.
2. **Mandatory:** A module is operated in a system.
3. **Inaccessible:** A module has limited access to representation within a module.
4. **Fast:** A module produces outputs quickly.
5. **Encapsulated:** A module does not need information in other modules to operate.
6. **Shallow:** A module produces uncomplex outputs.
7. **Fix neural architecture:** A module is localized and only operated in a particular location.
8. **Subject to break-down:** A selected module can be impaired.
9. **Ontogenetic:** A module develops and is ontogenetically structured.

Fodor was inspired by the accounts mentioned above to develop his modularity perspective. Chomsky sees language as a module in the mind that is innate, autonomous, and modular in itself. Whereas Fodor sees that since the mind consists of modules, there is a module devoted to language, a language module with the nine criteria mentioned above. However, Fodor (2000) later clarifies that not all nine criteria are essential and can be reduced to domain-specificity and information encapsulation as the essential criteria of modules. He adds that modularity can be associated with low-level peripheral processing systems underlying perception and language, which is later contrasted because modularity is also concerned with central processing—massive modularity (Cosmides & Tooby, 1992; Sperber & Wilson, 2002; Carruthers, 2008).

3. Language is a Subsystem

The concept of language modularity has played a significant role in second language acquisition. Language modularity is subject to different perspectives; the emergentist perspective and the innateness perspective, as noted by Botterill and Carruthers (1999); the emergentist perspective sees that modularity explains how the mind works, unlike the emergentist perspective, which sees that modularity explains how the mind is organized. Therefore, language can be accounted for differently. Fodor (1983) argues that the human mind is modular, and language is one module that is a perceptual input system. On the other hand, Chomsky (1972) argues that language, as a faculty, is modular in that it consists of units that cover different linguistic competencies or submodules, distinct from other nonlinguistic modules such as mathematics or music.

Jordan (2004) reports that Piaget believes that the mind is not modular, nor is language. Piaget believes there is no innate language faculty or another specialized mechanism at work. He further adds that the child creates his own concepts through holistic interaction with the environment.

The account of language modularity below is different from the accounts mentioned above. The motives behind the account below are pragmatic in nature and rooted in and driven by the language teaching/learning process. The modularity of language can be seen from a different angle to serve the teaching-learning process, as I shall describe. Language can be described from a point of view that is not cognitive or anatomical. Language as a whole is a system that can be broken down into subsystems. A subsystem can sometimes be broken down into many subsystems, or, as I shall call them, secondary subsystems. The size of the subsystem, or so-called primary subsystem, as well as its complexity and bifurcation, give rise to secondary subsystems, as the diagram below shows. In this sense, a subsystem is characterized as:

1. **Functionally operational:** A subsystem serves a purpose.
2. **Self-contained:** A subsystem contains several needed linguistic items.
3. **Demarcatable:** A subsystem is identified in terms of the elements of the subsystem that learners need to know.
4. **Indexable:** A subsystem within the language system can be indexed as a primary or non-primary subsystem.
5. **Teachable:** A subsystem can be taught.
6. **Learnable:** A subsystem can be learned.
7. **Instructible:** A subsystem is amenable to instruction.
8. **Computerizable:** A subsystem can be used to construct an algorithm.
9. **Connectable:** A subsystem can interact with other subsystems. The subsystems are not enclosed entities.

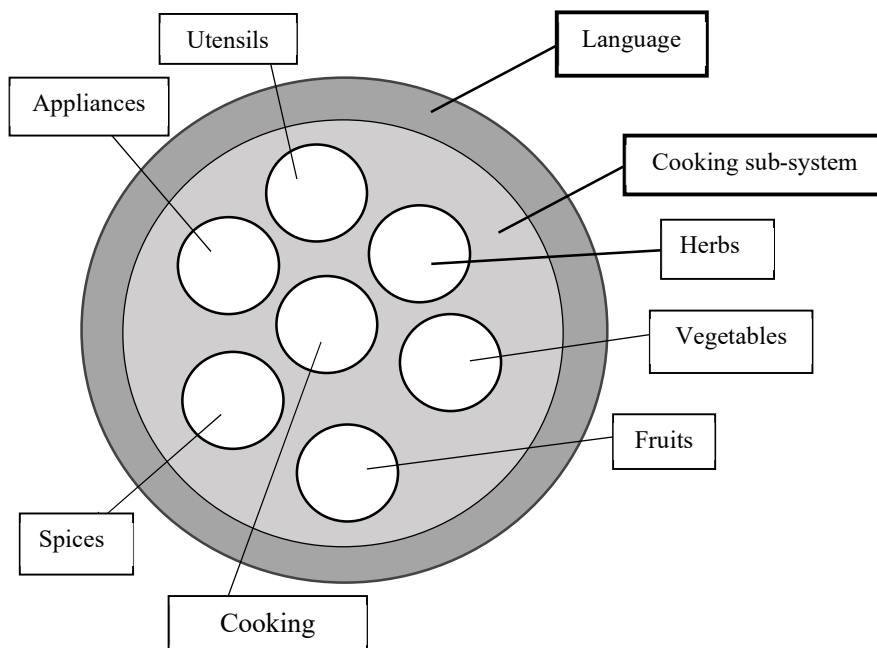


Figure 1. The Conceptualization of Language

These criteria distinguish this view of language from other views, primarily from the Fordorian and Chomskian. Language is modular in the sense that it consists of subsystems – each subsystem, henceforth, can take the label of LK_i , which stands for Linguistic Knowledge (where i stands for the fact that there is not one linguistic subsystem), which per se contains a secondary subsystem or more. This linguistic representation of language can mathematically be written as follows: SB stands for primary subsystem, SSB stands for secondary subsystem, LK stands for linguistic knowledge, and L stands for language.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum SB_A &= SSB_{A1} + SSB_{A2} \dots + SSB_x \\ \sum LK_i &= SB_A + \dots + SB_n \\ \sum LK_i &= L \end{aligned}$$

Figure 2. The Mathematical Representation of Language

This linguistic representation of language serves primarily second language acquisition and teaching because it allows us to look at the subsystem as an onset of the teaching-learning process. The following example, the subsystem of cooking vocabulary, demonstrates how a subsystem contributes to language teaching.

4. Cooking Vocabulary Subsystem

As long as this view of language modularity is highly pragmatic, functional, and learning-teaching-driven, the probing question to raise is: How can a subsystem be applicable in language teaching? Teaching-wise, a subsystem is the outset. It can take the form of an open-word class or a closed-word class. An open class contains many words that can grow, and a closed class contains a limited number of words that work as function words and rarely grow as a class. The open-word class contains nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. In contrast, the closed-word class contains prepositions, conjunctions, determiners, and pronouns. Based on the above classification, cooking vocabulary belongs to the open-word class.

Nevertheless, one can demarcate it based on the learning objectives set. In simpler words, if the cooking vocabulary seems big enough to be contained as a whole, then the learning objectives should limit the number of words. Thus, the subsystem is amenable to being delimited in size.

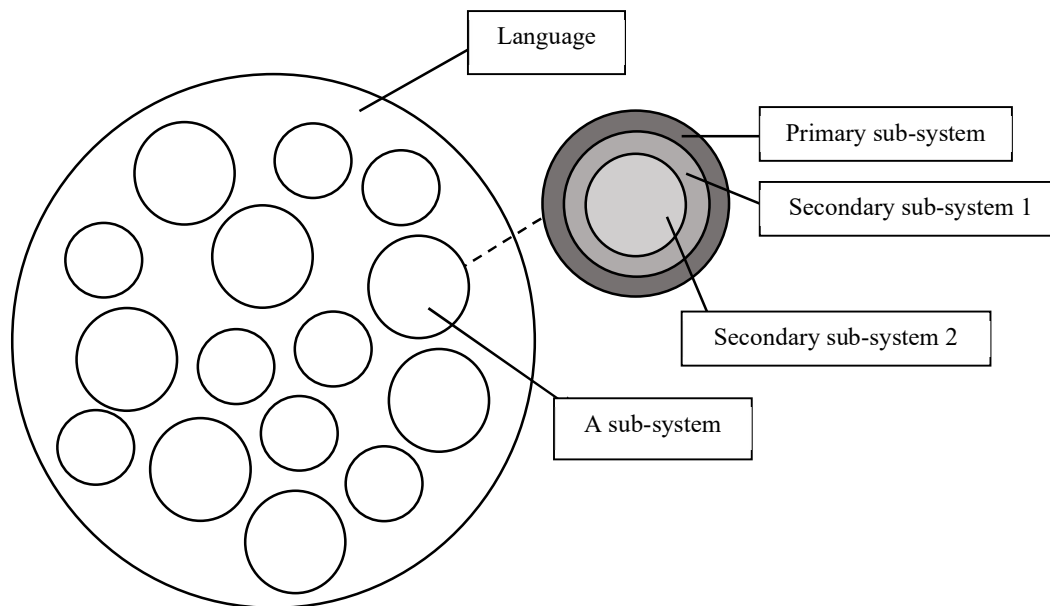


Figure 3. Subsystems of Cooking Vocabulary

The second question is, What does a learner need to know about the subsystem? For a learner to learn cooking vocabulary, which is a subsystem and the focus of this study, knowing some aspects of this latter is compulsory for the teacher and the learner. These elements form the following constructs: form, meaning, structure, use, information, and related concepts.

For learners to learn cooking vocabulary, the following questions need to be answered for each of the constructs mentioned above: What does a learner need to know about the subsystem? And, what is required to teach the subsystem? The answer to the first and second questions is what can be called Subsystem Knowledge (SSK). For the subsystem cooking vocabulary to be taught, a teacher should possess enough knowledge of the different constructs of a subsystem, as summarized in Table 1 below. The teacher must also keep in mind its semantic field, which can be conceptually blended with other semantic fields and truncated or constructed by blending different lexical sets.

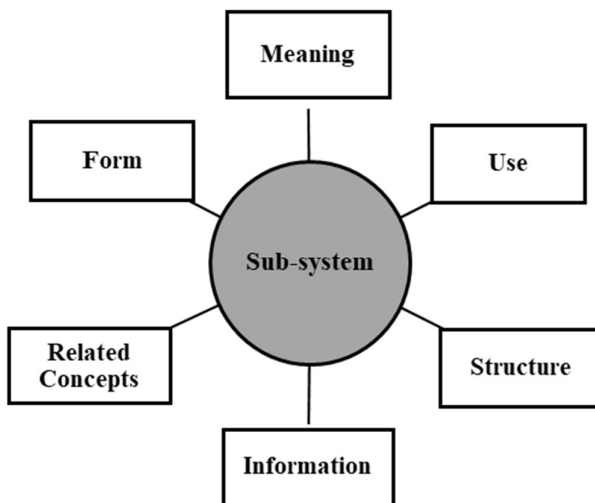


Figure 4. The Constructs of a Subsystem

Cooking vocabulary here is a semantic field consisting of different lexical sets like fruit, vegetables, spices, utensils, and so forth, which can be divided into secondary lexical sets, e.g., the lexical set of green vegetables.

Table 1. Summary of Subsystem Knowledge

Form	Meaning	Structure	Use	Information
Pronunciation Spelling Word parts Derivation and inflection. Pronunciation and spelling differences between UK vs. US Spelling and pronunciation mistakes.	Relate form and meaning. Different meanings. Concepts and referents. Word association. Lexical sets: synonyms, antonyms, hyponymy, meronymy.	Sentence placement. Constraints on placement in a sentence	Syntactic use (where, when, and how it is used) Constraints and frequency of use Collocations. The formality of language use.	Information about subsystems, e.g., <i>we use cooking vocabulary to make a recipe.</i>

Subsystem Knowledge (SSK) refers to the knowledge of the various constructs that make up an individual's understanding of the subsystem; hence, learners learn words when they learn about the different constructs, including the related concepts to the subsystem being learned. It is worth noting that subsystem knowledge differs from vocabulary knowledge (Nation, 2001), including its manifestations: item knowledge and system knowledge. Subsystem knowledge does not mean item knowledge, which involves knowing vocabulary items individually. This refers to the individual's knowledge of individual words, including their meanings, spelling, pronunciation, and usage. Nor does it mean system knowledge, which stands for the systematic knowledge that learners can learn independently to learn words, e.g., the affixation mechanism of word formation is a system that learners can learn about to formulate words and learn the meaning of each affixation subsystem, such as learning that the prefix -un is used to formulate antonyms. In this regard, Nation (2001) highlights that learning words, individually, differs from learning the systematic knowledge to construct each word. When exploring subsystem knowledge, the focus is not on isolated words or a comprehensive understanding of those words. Instead, attention is directed towards language, specifically the subsystem. This subsystem is not treated as individual words but as a cohesive unit.

4.1 Corpus Collection

Since language as a system consists of subsystems, the cooking vocabulary subsystem, which is the focus of this article, is an open-word class. Hence, it has to be selected based on the following factors. The first step is to collect the corpus of cooking vocabulary. To accomplish this, one can consider the following together while considering learners' needs.

1. **Identify the target learners:** Determine the proficiency level, age, cultural background, and learning objectives of the learners for whom you collect the corpus.
2. **Select the sources:** Choose a variety of authentic sources from different genres, such as news articles, academic texts, popular culture, and social media. Ensure the sources reflect the learners' target language and culture, e.g., The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and The Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD) corpus.
3. **Collect the texts:** Collect the texts from the selected sources and compile them into a digital corpus using a corpus software tool, such as AntConc, AntWord Profiler, or Sketch Engine.
4. **Process the corpus:** Clean and preprocess the corpus by removing irrelevant data and processing it in a freeware corpus analysis toolkit to a concordance, and dissecting the text to construct a view of individual words or phrases.
5. **Analyze the corpus:** Use corpus analysis tools, such as frequency lists or concordance lines, to identify the most frequent words and collocations in the corpus. Note that this point is the most crucial because the words and chunks to teach are chosen. Analysis of second language data produced by classroom learners, in particular, seems to show extensive and systematic use of chunks to fulfill early communicative needs (Myles, 2004; Myles, Hooper, & Mitchell, 1998; Myles, Mitchell, & Hooper, 1999; Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2019).
6. **The corpus in teaching:** Integrate the corpus into the EFL classes by using it to teach the vocabulary and related grammar points, pronunciation, and discourse. Provide learners with opportunities to explore the corpus and apply the language patterns in real-life situations.

While considering the target learners as well as their needs, an extensive list of the cooking vocabulary is made. The subsystem of cooking vocabulary comprises the following secondary subsystems: vegetables, fruits, spices, utensils, kitchen appliances, and cooking verbs.

5. Subsystem Demarcation

The second question that needs to be answered is how to determine which words to teach. When deciding on

which cooking vocabulary to teach, the following factors should be considered:

1. **Learners' need:** Identify the cooking-related vocabulary the learners need to know to effectively communicate in real-life situations – in a touristic setting, in this case. Consider their language, age, cultural background, and learning goals.
2. **Frequency of use:** Teach food vocabulary commonly used in everyday situations, such as ordering food at a restaurant or grocery shopping. If the learners have particular occupations, then narrow down the vocabulary scope.
3. **Relevance to learners:** Teach cooking vocabulary relevant to the learners' interests, culture, and dietary preferences. For instance, if the learners are chefs at bakeries, one should focus on baking vocabulary.
4. **Level of difficulty:** Consider the difficulty level of the vocabulary one teaches. Start with basic food vocabulary and gradually introduce more complex vocabulary as learners progress. Consider their language proficiency level.

The goal is not to teach the learners an exhaustive list of cooking-related vocabulary but rather to teach them the most relevant and valuable vocabulary that will enable them to communicate effectively in real-life situations in which they use the learned vocabulary.

6. Cooking Vocabulary Subsystem Description

After demarcating the subsystem “cooking vocabulary” to teach based on the factors mentioned above, the third step is to describe the chosen vocabulary items on the six levels mentioned above. Because cooking vocabulary is an open-word class and it is proportionately more significant than a closed-word class, only a part of the subsystem is used below to demonstrate what kind of knowledge is required to be possessed by the teacher.

The issue may be whether the departure point should identify the target learners and their characterizations or the subsystem itself. If a curriculum and a syllabus exist, they are the starting point. If a syllabus does not exist, the starting point should be to define the subsystem to be taught and describe its constructs as will subsequently be illustrated. To demonstrate how a subsystem is described in terms of form, meaning, use, structure, information, and related concepts, we need to answer the following questions:

- 1) What does one need to know about the form of the subsystem?
- 2) What does one need to know about the meaning of the subsystem?
- 3) What does one need to know about the structure of the subsystem?
- 4) What does one need to know about the use of the subsystem?
- 5) What information does one need to know about the subsystem?
- 6) What related concepts does one need to know about the subsystem?

Table 2. Subsystem Knowledge: Vegetables as a Subsystem

Secondary subsystem of vegetables	
Subsystem constructs	What the teacher and learner need to know
Form	Pronunciation Spelling UK vs. US denomination and pronunciation. Certain vegetables are called differently: eggplant (US) and aubergine (UK) – the word potato is pronounced as /pə'teɪ.təʊ/ (UK) and as /pə'teɪ.təʊ/ (US). Common mistakes learners tend to make regarding spelling and pronunciation. Homophones, e.g., leek vs. leak. Word part group: two-word nouns of vegetables, e.g., beetroot. Countable, i.e., vegetables are countable and take the -s of plural.
Meaning	What each vegetable refers to. Difference between vegetables, legumes, and veggies. French rooted words like: [cauli = chou and flower = fleur, which gives choufleur in French]. Multi-meaning words, e.g., chili pepper, can refer to the spice and the vegetable at once. The shapes of some vegetables explain their denomination, e.g., banana pepper.
Structure	Sentence placement, e.g., adjective + noun or verb + noun How much + vegetable...? is a question to ask about the mass in grams, ounces, cups, or servings. How many + vegetables...? is a question to ask about the number of types of vegetables. Colligation: Certain linguistic items occur in specific syntactic contexts and not in others. Sequencers and conjunctions

Secondary subsystem of vegetables	
Use	What other (types of) words can it be used with, e.g., collocations and associations Grammar points that can be used with vegetables, e.g., frequency adverbs and quantifiers
Information	Vegetables can be grouped according to color, for instance. Color, shape, and form of the vegetable from inside and outside. Differentiate between different vegetables of the same sub-family, e.g., different types of turnip. Regions, e.g., tropical geographical areas. Vegetables are essential to follow how to make a recipe or read or write a cookbook. Basics of planting and gardening. Countries, e.g., Chinese eggplant, Chinese refers to the thin long light purple eggplant.
Related concepts	Colors: red, yellow, white, green, and their shades. Shapes: rounded, rectangular, oval, triangular, heart, star, etc. Size: big, small, medium, and so forth. Ordinal numbers Mass units: kilo, grams vs. pound, ounce, etc. Gardening Seasons Climate Juices

The teacher and learners have to be knowledgeable about the different constructs mentioned above to learn or teach vegetables as a secondary subsystem. Table 2 above describes the to-be-acquired knowledge by the learners and the teacher. However, a difference can be set between the two. For instance, concerning mistakes, the teacher's job is to anticipate pronunciation and spelling mistakes and master the proper pronunciation and spelling so that learners acquire the correct form and are aware of the incorrect form. The teacher's job here is to raise the learners' awareness and reinforce good form.

Additionally, there is a degree of primacy as far as the knowledge to be acquired is concerned. Do learners have to know as much as in Table 4 to learn about vegetables? The answer to this question will be the following. The goal is not to inundate the learners with as much cooking-related vocabulary knowledge as possible but to select what knowledge is most relevant and valuable to enable them to communicate effectively using the learned vocabulary in real-life situations. Moreover, learners should be gradually introduced to a certain amount of knowledge upon mastering what has previously been introduced.

7. Conclusion

Language is a subsystem of the linguistic system. A subsystem has specific functions is (1) functionally operational in teaching, (2) self-contained, (3) demarcatable, (4) indexable, (5) teachable, (6) learnable, (7) instructible, (8) computerizable, and (9) connectable. Subsystems are capable of being taught and learned. Furthermore, they can be used for instruction and can be adapted for use with computers. Lastly, these subsystems can be connected to one another, allowing for the production of an output. A subsystem can be categorized as either primary or secondary. However, both types can be described in terms of their form, meaning, structure, use, information, and related concepts, which represent LK_i – the learner's linguistic competence. Future research should investigate the effectiveness of this with different subsystems. Additionally, it would be valuable to explore the impact of incorporating this pragmatic view of language into the teaching process along with using technology, such as online platforms or interactive applications, to further enhance language learning outcomes. Furthermore, researching the long-term retention of language skills acquired through subsystem-based instruction would provide insights into the durability and effectiveness of this approach in promoting and enhancing language learning. This article suggests that by reconceptualizing the way language is taught, practitioners can better meet the needs of English language learners. Future research could also investigate how this approach aligns with current theories and practices in second language acquisition and provide further insights into its potential benefits and limitations.

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