

LINGUISTICS



LECTURES IN SOCIOLINGUISTICS AND PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

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MOHAMED KHEIDER UNIVERSITY OF BISKRA

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English

LINGUISTICS: Lectures in Sociolinguistics and Psycholinguistics

- For Third Year Undergraduates -

Lecturer Information

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Lecture Information

Course Title:	Linguistics
Level:	3 rd Year
Time:	60/90 mins for each of the two sections
Location:	Amphitheatre B

Course Description

This course is an introduction to two major macro-linguistic branches of theoretical linguistics, which are Sociolinguistics and Psycholinguistics. The intent of this course is to provide undergraduate (third-year License) students fundamental concepts and basic assumptions about the two fields. It follows the same presentation methodology. Firstly, it defines the disciplines. Secondly, it brushes the backgrounds and contexts wherein each one of these domains operate. Thirdly, it depicts the historical development of the two fields from birth to the present time. Fourthly, it identifies the scope and foci of the two topics. Fifthly, it displays the related areas and the methodologies adopted while investigating relevant phenomena. Finally, this course offers third-year license students an advanced introduction to central parts of Sociolinguistics and Psycholinguistics. Its important purpose is to develop good theoretical background that could make the picture clear enough for the students at this level.

Course Objectives

The purpose of this course is to:

- Highlight major sub-fields of macro-linguistics (Sociolinguistics and Psycholinguistics).
- Identify and define these sub-fields of linguistics.
- Examine the scope and focus of each one of these sub-fields.
- Trace back the emergence of these sub-fields in the science of linguistics.
- Introduce the major concerns of these sub-fields.
- Discuss fundamental theories in the area of these sub-fields.
- Explore specific issues in these sub-fields that might have practical implications and consequences.

Course Structure

In regards to the organisation of the course, it comprises eight themes. Four themes for Sociolinguistics and the same number of themes for Psycholinguistics. The eight themes are to be covered in the complete academic year. It is worth mentioning that Sociolinguistics is taught in semester one; whereas, Psycholinguistics is taught in semester two. Each theme is delivered in two lectures. This simply means that the overall number of lectures to teach the course is 16 lectures. As for the teaching approach, the thematic approach is used. The latter rests on teaching different themes that are related to one another. This approach also consists in moving from general assumptions to specific ones. By the end of each theme, students will be able to get the required information that will stand as necessary, elementary background knowledge.

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About the Lecturer

Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI holds a PHD in Applied Linguistics. His research interests are: ELT, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics and Language Evaluation and Assessment.

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Course Continuity

In case of absence, and/or travel of the instructor, it will be announced to students the day(s) and lecture (s) in question. In such an event, we are prepared to assign students a "Plan B", where lectures will be compensated, and their dates will be announced.

Ground Rules and Policies

- 1. Attendance:** This course deals with some difficult issues, so attendance is essential for good performance. Students will be allowed a *maximum of 10 minutes* to present, any longer delay will result a ban from the lecture. Besides, no more than *three absences* are allowed. After the third absence, we will deduct grades for each additional absence. You need to contact the instructor in advance if you are going to miss a class. All tests must be taken during their scheduled time unless you have made prior arrangements.
- 2. Discipline Policy:** All students are expected to follow the general academic and moral behaviour that reflects the higher level of respect and cooperation between students and the lecturer. In the event these expectations are not followed; the consequences will keep to the department's discipline procedures.
- 3. Students with Disabilities:** Please notify the instructor of any modification/adaptation you may require to accommodate a disability-related need. You will be requested to provide documentation to the Head of Foreign Languages Department in order that the most appropriate accommodations can be determined.

- 4. Policy on Academic Dishonesty:** We define academic dishonesty as cheating, plagiarism, unauthorized collaboration, falsifying academic records, and any act designed to avoid participating honestly in the learning process. Academic dishonesty also includes, but is not limited to, providing false or misleading information to receive a postponement or an extension on a test, a writing, or other assignment. By accepting this syllabus, you have agreed to these guidelines and must adhere to them. Academic dishonesty damages both the student's learning experience and readiness for the future demands of a work career. Students who violate these rules are subject to disciplinary penalties, including the possibility of failure in the course and/or dismissal from the University.
- 5. Electronic Devices Usage Policy:** All electronic devices, including but not limited to iPads, computers, cell phones, tablets, netbooks, laptops and other texting devices, must be completely turned off during the lectures. Upon request, you must comply and hand over your device, turned off, to the instructor, or put it inside your backpack.
- 6. In-test Rules:** Any use of external assistance during an examination shall be considered cheating. The following are considered unacceptable examination behaviors: communication with fellow students during an examination, copying materials from another student's exam, allowing another student to copy from an exam, the use of electronic devices to communicate to others during the exam, possession or use of unauthorized notes, electronic or other dictionaries during exams. Students cannot achieve grades that they have not legitimately earned. Part of our mission is to remind students of the value systems that will regulate their academic lives, and breaching ethical standards cannot be condoned.
- 7. Plagiarism Policy:** We seek to maintain an optimal learning environment. While students are encouraged to ask others to help them with their assignments, general principles of academic honesty must be respected. This includes the concept of respect for the

intellectual property of others, the expectation that individual work will be submitted unless otherwise allowed by the instructor, and the obligations both to protect one's own academic work from misuse by others as well as to avoid using another's work as one's own. All students are expected to understand and abide by these principles, and any work turned in that is not their own, this includes, but is not limited to: a peer's work, work copied from the internet without reference, aiding someone else in plagiarism and using any materials not authorized by the instructor, will result in a zero, with no option for revision, and a referral to disciplinary actions by the instructor.

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Semester One

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

University of Biskra

Course: Linguistics

Section of English

Level: 3rd Year

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed C. Hoadjli

Groups: All

THEME ONE: Linguistics in the 20th Century

Description and Rationale

The present theme is an introduction to sociolinguistics. Its aim is to allow students to understand how sociolinguistics came to emerge in the scene of linguistics. Key content of the present unit, apart from the section devoted to practice, includes four main sections: the birth of modern linguistics, traditional grammar versus modern linguistics, chronological development of linguistic theories, and the birth of sociolinguistics.

Learning Objectives

After completing this theme, students should be able to:

- Distinguish between the two phases of the study of language: the phase before the 20th century and the phase that came after the publication of the De Saussure's seminal work "Course in General Linguistics".
- Identify key principles of modern linguistics.
- Explore the main concerns of the major linguistic theories in the 20th century.
- Show the limitations of structural linguistics and the Transformational Generative Grammar theory.
- Get a clear picture on the birth of sociolinguistics.

Guiding Questions

1. What is meant by traditional grammar?
2. What are the main characteristics of traditional grammar?
3. Why did modern linguistics reject the language study approach of traditional grammar?
4. What are the main differences between traditional grammar and modern linguistics?
5. Why is Ferdinand De Saussure said to be the father of modern linguistics?

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1. The Birth of Modern Linguistics

Although it is widely known that modern linguistics started with the publication of the seminal work of Ferdinand De Saussure “Course in General Linguistics”, the available literature indicates that the real date of the emergence of modern linguistics goes back to the late 19th century. That is, the nineteenth century linguists developed perspectives and assumptions that laid the groundwork for the 20th century linguistics. It is in the 19th century that the shift of focus from purely historical concerns of changes in languages overtime to the idea that a language is a system of systems stimulated at a particular point in time could be reviewed.

Modern linguistics is often viewed to have to rise with those grammarian philologists who, for some time, thought that to study a language in a scientific way, they had to create the procedures of objectivity. This means they sought to abandon both prescriptive grammar and the old tradition of philological investigation.

Next, at the beginning of the 20th century, the Swiss linguist Ferdinand De Saussure (1857-1913) put the real foundations of modern linguistics. For this, he is acknowledged as the Founding Father of modern linguistics. His work has proved a rich field for subsequent investigations, and has inspired numerous linguists.

2. Traditional Grammar Versus Modern Linguistics

To understand the principles of modern linguistics better, it is appropriate to see the similarities and differences between traditional grammar and modern linguistics:

- Modern linguistics regards the spoken, and not the written, language as primary. In the past, traditional grammarians had overstressed the importance of the written form of language. However, modern linguistics considers the spoken language more important since speech is the natural and first medium of communication.
- Modern linguistics is descriptive, not prescriptive. Modern linguistics is concerned with

what people actually say, not what people should say. This markedly contrasts with traditional grammar since traditional grammarians were more interested in what was wrong, and what was not wrong in a language.

- Modern linguistics is synchronic. As opposed to traditional grammar, modern linguistics claimed the crucial need to describe language in a particular point in time, not the search for laws in language change overtime, that is the diachronic description of language as De Saussure described it.
- Modern linguistics sees language as a system of systems. For traditional grammar, a sentence is a collection of words that express an idea. Modern linguistics refutes this assumption and considers such an interpretation to be very naïve and superficial. Contrarily, modern linguistics persist that language is a complex system. It is a system of systems and those systems are governed by a set of rules.
- Modern linguistics, mainly De Saussure, considers that language is a social phenomenon. By this assumption, modern linguistics postulates that the sum of rules that a given language are present and by the members of the same community. Traditional grammar, on the other side, focused only on what it is produced by a person in a language.

3. Chronological Development of Linguistic Theories

It is more useful to shed light on the major linguistic theories that prevailed since the birth of modern linguistics at the beginning of the 20th century. This elucidation could be necessary to understand how the issues of the study and descriptions have evolved overtime and from one linguistic school to another. More importantly, account of the major principles and limitations of these linguistic theories could facilitate the understanding of how a field as sociolinguistics arrived later on to the umbrella of linguistics.

3.1 Structural Linguistics

The available literature argues that structural linguistics came as a reaction to the comparative study of language in its historical development, especially its actual use. This new linguistic theory was initiated by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand De Saussure. At 15, De Saussure wrote an “An Essay on Languages” trying to derive some linguistic universals from the phonetic structures of the languages he knew. His structuralist tendency was more apparent in the “Dissertation on the Primitive Vowel-System in Indo-European Ages” concerning a system of vowels published at 21. De Saussure never published anything substantial thereafter. In 1916, three years after his death, two of his followers published, in his name, the “Course in General Linguistics” based on his notes taken during his lectures at the university of Geneva, which remains to be the finest introduction there is to the principles on which structuralism rests.

However, though it is De Saussure who put the foundations of structural linguistics, but the latter was not the first to label this new trend as such. It is also noted that structuralism, as a general concept, has two senses: a broad sense that refers to a mode of thinking, or rather a philosophical view, and another narrower sense that relates the definition of this term to a method of inquiry, deriving chiefly from linguistics.

3.1.1 Key Concepts.

- **Structure:** A particular pattern that is available in a language for constructing a linguistic unit, or an instance of it. Structures can be recognised at many levels: Phonemes combine to build words; words combine to build phrases, phrases combine to build clauses and sentences, and so on. At all of these levels, the smaller units must be combined into larger ones in particular ways determined by the rules of the languages.

- **Structuralism:** An approach to the study of language. It sees language as a structured system. Each element in this system is defined by means of the relationship it contracts with the other elements. In this view, it is the system that is the primary object of study, and not the individual elements present within it.

3.1.2 Basic Principles. The basic principles of De Saussure's structural linguistics are defined in his common dichotomies.

- De Saussure emphasised the synchronic study of language structure and how linguistic elements are organised into the system of each language.
- De Saussure viewed this system of language as a system of signs. The linguistic sign, in this context, is considered a union of the signifier (the form and sound) and the signified (the meaning and function).
- The particularity of this sign is that the signifier and signified are arbitrarily related. Their connection is purely conventional.
- De Saussure also viewed that the linguistic entities are considered members of a system and are defined by their relations to one another. Each linguistic entity is in horizontal (syntagmatic) and vertical (paradigmatic) relationships.
- De Saussure, influenced by the social thinking of Emil Durkheim (1858-1917), held that there is a "collective consciousness", which is both the possession of society and language. In this sense, De Saussure used the famous dichotomy "Langue" Vs. "Parole". "Langue" is the set of rules shared by the members of a given community. Whereas, "Parole" is the individual, actual use of "Langue".

3.1.3 Criticisms (of Structural Linguistics). In the available literature, post-structuralist linguistics presented a set of limitations of structural linguistic theory. This mainly concerned the approach adopted by structural linguistics to describe language.

Overall, these criticisms are about:

- **Corpus Analysis:** A method used by structural linguistics to describe language. It consisted in the provision of forms and constructions that appear in a limited corpus. For the critics, these forms do not provide the rules related to construct an infinite range of grammatical rules. A corpus can never illustrate the whole language, and will only reflect a partial and selective picture of language.
- **Surface Analysis:** Structural linguistics described only the surface of sentences. In doing so, structural linguistics ignored the underlying (deep) structure of a sentence, which is also referred to as the meaning of the sentence.
- **Language Diversity:** Structural linguistics emphasised the structural diversity of languages. In describing these languages, structuralists exaggerated the differences between languages and gave undue focus to the principle that every language is a law unto itself.

3.2 Transformational Generative Grammar

The criticisms of structuralism led to the emergence of a new linguistic theory in the second half of the 20th century. This new linguistic school started with the publication of a revolutionary book “Syntactic Structures” (1957) by the American linguist Avram Noam Chomsky (1928-). This theory is labelled Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG). Undeniably, the foundations of TGG caused modern linguistics to make a giant leap in its development. It adopted a mentalist approach to the study of language that is based on the principle of innateness. For Chomsky, the system of rules that govern our language are innate to the human mind. All humans are born with an possess these rules. The latter enable us (we

humans) to produce an infinite number of grammatical (correct) sentences. This mental interpretation, as opposed to structural linguistics that totally ignored any role of the human mind on language, is the bedrock of Chomsky's theory.

3.2.1 Key Concepts.

- **Linguistic Competence:** It refers to a person's internalised knowledge (grammar) of his language. It is the native speaker's ability to produce and understand sentences, including sentences they have never heard before. It also includes a person's knowledge of what are and what are not sentences of a particular language. In short, the code underlies all the utterances in a given language.
- **Performance:** It is the realisation of competence (the code as stated in the previous definition) in actual situations where language is used. It is the person's real use of language in producing and understanding sentences. Performance, therefore, represents a small sample of the utterance of the language. That is, competence underlies performance.
- **Grammar (according to Chomsky's theory):** It is a device that helps generate all and only the grammatical sentences of language. It implies that:
 - A sentence is a basic unit to be described. For Chomsky, the largest unit is a sentence.
 - A "grammar" generates sentences.
 - A "grammar" generates all only the grammatical sentences.
- **Surface Level:** It is the syntactic structure that a person speaks or hears. It is the observable aspect of a sentence.
- **Deep Level:** It is abstract. It is in the native speaker's mind. It refers to generalisations about the structure of a sentence, which are different from its surface. A deep structure contains all the syntactic information needed for the interpretation of a given sentence.

3.2.2 Key Concepts. The basic principles of Chomsky's theory, TGG, are grounded in these assumptions:

- Chomsky's objection to corpus analysis is based on his elicitation of the two concepts: competence and performance. For him, there may not always be exact correspondence between the speaker's competence and their performance since the latter could usually be influenced by external non-linguistic factors, such as memory lapses, attention lapses, stress, noisy surroundings, and so on. Consequently, a speaker may produce false starts, changes of plan, restricting of what to say, etc. In this view, linguistics is concerned with the ideal, not the real. This is to say that TGG describes the competence of an ideal speaker-learner, in a completely homogeneous speech community, and who perfectly knows his language.
- Chomsky, rejecting the formal analysis of sentences, distinguished between two levels of syntactic structures in a sentence: the surface and deep structures. For him, grammar is not confined to formal description, but it should incorporate the internal processes that take place in the speaker's mind. Thus, this grammar is a grammar of the external, as well as a grammar of the internal aspects of sentences.
- According to Chomsky, language is creative and behaviourism is totally incapable of explaining that creativity. For him, humans possess an innate, mental ability to enable them to produce an infinite number of sentences. By this, Chomsky refers to the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). He adds that language acquisition takes place not because of imitation (stimulus/response), but because of the LAD.
- For Chomsky, the linguistic theory should be concerned with linguistic universals. These are the common characteristics between human languages. According to him, the deep structure is common for all the languages. Whereas, these languages differ only at the surface level.

3.2.3 Criticisms (of TGG). Regardless of the merits of this linguistic theory in giving contributory insights in describing language, TGG has also presented flaws and weaknesses. These criticisms are mainly:

- Chomsky's refusal to acknowledge the influence of the child's language acquisition is a flaw in itself. The question, therefore, is: If all basic rules of grammar of the child's language is innate and the environment is not useful, what accounts for the frequent errors in the child's communication. The simple answer is that the environment cannot be eschewed.
- For some critics of TGG, Chomsky over-emphasised the role of competence over the recognition of the performance aspect of language use. Regardless, performance has proved that it is the way and manner people need to make use of language skills. This performance skill allows for an endless number of possibilities for the use of language to suit different situations.

4. The Birth of Sociolinguistics

The fact that structural linguistics accounted for the study of language structure and form, ignoring meaning, and Chomsky's theory over-emphasised the description of idealised competence in an idealised speech community, these linguistic doctrines led linguists to consider that asocial linguistics is essentially incomplete (Hudson, 1980; Spolsky, 1988). Consequently, a new linguistic perspective, endowed by post-Chomskyan linguists, came up to the scene of linguistics. The latter consisted in moving from conceiving language as a closed system to studying it with consideration to the context where it operates.

This new linguistic orientation was fastened by the development of Hyme's (1971) new concept, "Communicative Competence". Communicative competence sees that describing language and the rules of its use resulting from the interplay of external factors should be taken into account. For Hymes, Chomsky's theory presents shortcomings when it comes to questions

about real world language problems (Djennane, 2018). On this point, Schmenk (2017) demonstrated that Chomsky's neglect of the socio-cultural factors in his theory rendered the latter useless. For Schmenk, Hymes sought to shift the focus study of language from a purely linguistic theory that is concerned with ideal speaker-learners in a completely homogeneous community, towards understanding more about the members of speech communities with an emphasis on their language use.

Interest in the social dimension of language paved the way to the emergence of the new field, Sociolinguistics. This branch of linguistics aimed to describe language as an open system by accounting for the rules of use. Djennane (2018) citing Fishman (1972) indicates that the purpose of sociolinguistics is the formula "Who speaks what language to whom and where" (p.5). In short, this suggests that the fundamental principles of sociolinguistics are about language use, variation, and change.

5. Let us Practice!

5.1 Questions

Read and answer these questions:

1. What is meant by synchronic and diachronic studies of language?
2. How does Ferdinand De Saussure make a distinction between Langue and Parole?
3. What does Noam Chomsky mean by competence?
4. Why does Noam Chomsky posit that competence is more important than performance?
5. What is meant by communicative competence?
6. How does Dell Hymes argue about communicative competence?
7. Why was sociolinguistics dissatisfied with structural linguistics and Chomsky's theory?

5.2 Activity

“Ferdinand De Saussure is said to be the father of modern linguistics. His main ideas led to a shift from the historical-oriented study of language to conceive language as a system of system”- **Explain**

University of Biskra

Level: 3rd Year

Section of English

Course: Linguistics

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI

Groups: All

In-Take Home Test (1)

PART ONE: Just Remember it!

Activity 1: Choose the best answer _____

1. Structuralism is _____ in its nature.

a. prescriptive

b. synchronic

c. historical

2. Structuralism is based on the assumption that grammatical categories should not be defined in terms of _____.

a. association

b. meaning

c. distribution

3. Traditional Grammar is best known for its focus on the study of _____.

a. spoken discourse

b. written texts

c. phonemics

4. The structural school has a tradition of laying stress on the _____ of language.

a. relations

b. meaning

c. contextualisation

Activity 2: Decide whether these statements are **True** or **False** _____

- a. Saussure made a clear distinction between language and Parole. He insisted on the importance of describing language in use.
- b. Saussure's important ideas about linguistics were collected in the "Courses of General Linguistics", which he published a year before his death.
- c. Structural linguistics was more interested in the way the linguistic units are arranged and their relationships.
- d. According to structuralism, the analysis of language refers to the linguistic approach that supposes that any linguistic unit should be associated with other elements.

Activity 3: Match the concepts with their respective definitions

1. Langue

a. It is the actual manifestation of individual users of language.

2. Structuralism

b. A theory of linguistics that provided the mental description of language.

3. T.G.G.

c. It is an approach about a system of rules that, in some explicitly way, assigns structural descriptions to sentences.

4. Parole

d. It is the set of rules that are shared by members of the same community.

PART TWO: In-Between

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps

The first of the basic principles to which Saussure refers is that the relationship between the — **1** — and — **2** — arbitrary. The term “arbitrary”, he points out “should not imply that the choice is left entirely to the speaker. Rather, it means that the — **3** — and — **4** — relationship is “unmotivated”; that is, there is no “natural connection” or intrinsic reason why a particular linguistic unit should be linked with a particular concept.

1

2

3

4

Activity 1: Briefly, answer the following questions

1. Why does Modern Linguistics consider the written form of language not fundamental?

2. Why did De Saussure regard langue as more important than parole?

PART THREE: In-Depth

Activity: Read and discuss the following statement _____

- “Enumerate the major principles on which modern linguistics rests.”

University of Biskra

Course: Linguistics

Section of English

Level: 3rd Year

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed C. Hoadjli

Groups: All

THEME TWO: Introduction to Sociolinguistics

Description and Rationale

This theme introduces the branch of **SOCIOLINGUISTICS**. The aim of the theme is to allow students to define, as clearly as possible, sociolinguistics, be able to differentiate between sociolinguistics and the sociology of language, know more about the focus and foci of this macro-linguistic field, sketch the goals and identify the different research methods used in sociolinguistic studies.

Learning Objectives

After completing this theme, students should be able to:

- State the meaning of sociolinguistics,
- Identify the scope and foci of sociolinguistics,
- Define the goals of sociolinguistics, and
- Examine the methods used in sociolinguistic investigations.

Guiding Questions

1. What is sociolinguistics?
2. Does sociolinguistics advocate or deny the asocial view to language study?
3. What is meant by an external study of language?
4. What is the difference between sociolinguistics and the sociology of language?
5. What are the foci of macro- and micro-sociolinguistics?
6. What is the goal of sociolinguistics?
7. What methods sociolinguists use in their investigations?

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1. Definition(s) of Sociolinguistics

The term “sociolinguistics” is a derivational word. It is composed of two words, “socio”, pertaining to society, and “linguistics”, pertaining to language. In a broad explanation, sociolinguistics is defined as a branch of linguistics that involves the study of language from the perspective of society. More specifically, sociolinguistics combines two disciplines, sociology and linguistics. In the literature, some experts call it sociolinguistics; whereas, others label it the sociology of language. These two labellings do not mean that sociolinguistics and the sociology of language could be used interchangeably. Rather, it has been made clear by many sociolinguists that the choice of one name of these two labelling depends primarily on what sociolinguists focus on in their investigations. An elucidation of this point will be given in Section 3 that concerns the scope and foci of sociolinguistics.

Regarding the definition(s) of sociolinguistics, we have found it more appropriate to display some definitions that were provided by the major contributors to the field of sociolinguistics, and the pioneering sociolinguists that some of them are among the founding fathers of this discipline. What is remarkable with these definitions is that each of these scholars focused on a specific aspect to show how language could be described in relation to its actual use in real-life situations. Precisely, these definitions present the relationship between language, linguistics, sociology, or its aspects, and sociolinguistics as well as the relationship between language and society.

1. Sociolinguistics is concerned with the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. It studies the relationship between language and society. It explains how we people speak differently in different social contexts. It discusses the social factors and functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning (Holmes, 2001).
2. Sociolinguistics is concerned with the relation of language and setting (Eastman, 1975).

3. Sociolinguistics is any study of language in relation to society (Mathew, 1997).
4. Sociolinguistics is that part of linguistics which is concerned with language as a social and cultural phenomenon (Trudgill, 1983).
5. Sociolinguistics is the field that studies the relation between language and society, between the uses of language and the social structures in which the users of language live (Spolsky, 1988).

From these definitions, it is clear that sociolinguistics is a branch of linguistics dealing with the relationship between language and society. It is concerned with both the effect of language on society and the effect of society on language. In these perspectives, language is the communication tool, and society is about the communities if people; the place is very important because the language style of people reflects the place to which they belong.

What is more, sociolinguistics investigates how language use is a determinant of a given society's linguistics requirement. This simply means that every society has its particular linguistic codes that are acceptable for communication and interaction. Thus, sociolinguistics strives to display how groups in a given society are separated by certain social norms, and how the adherence to these norms could be used to categorise individuals in very-defined social and social-economic classes.

2. History of Sociolinguistics

Interest in the social aspects of language, the intersection of language with society, has been the concern of many people as long as humankind has had language. Nevertheless, formal and systematic studies of language in relation to society can be dated only to quite recently. In other words, sociolinguistics, as a branch of linguistics or as an independent discipline, has grown since the second half of the twentieth century.

It is conspicuous that the available literature on the history of sociolinguistics indicates that there are many stories and views on the emergence of this discipline in the scene of

academia. Thus, a brief synthesis of this literature can give us two main explanations. Firstly, some scholars claim that sociolinguistics came as a reaction to the failure of some linguistic theories in giving a thorough description of language. This refers to the various schools of linguistics that have arisen right after the birth of modern linguistics at the beginning of the twentieth century, following the publication of De Saussure's seminal, posthumous book, "Cours de Linguistique Générale", that pioneered structural linguistics. It also was a starting point for Noam Chomsky's transformational generative grammar theory that focused on an abstract, formal-oriented outlook. What is worth noting with these linguistic theories is that all of them ignored or did not give great attention to studying language in use. In doing so, they eliminated the relationship between language and society. Thereafter the shift of focus to consider language use in social life, with the arrival of Dell Hyme's communicative competence, permitted to turn to a new perspective in which the study of language could not be deprived of the context where it operates, i.e., more importance was given to the social context. This new linguistic orientation allowed for the emergence of the study of language in relation to society; and therefore, this has led to the appearance of sociolinguistics as a branch of linguistics.

Secondly, another historical account viewed that the word "sociolinguistics" was apparently coined already in 1939 in the title of an article by Thomas c. Hudson, "Sociolinguistics in India". From other sources, Eugene Nida in the second edition of his book entitled, "Morphology" first used the term in linguistics in 1949. Some other linguists attributed the term to Harver Currie (1952), who himself claimed to have created it. Spolsky's story about the origin of the term sociolinguistics is also worth to be considered. According to him, six names are thought to be the founding fathers of the term. These people are William Labov, who pioneered a school devoted to showing the relevance of social determinants of variation for the linguistic theory; basil Berstein, the British sociologist whose work on class-related

“codes” led to a brief introduction of American sociolinguistics; Dell Hymes, whose adaptation of Roman Jakobson’s theory of communication shaped the ethnography of communication and educational linguistics that together moulded sociolinguistics. John Gumperz, the founder of interactional sociolinguistics, Charles Ferguson, and Joshua Fishman attended the Linguistics Institute of Bloomington in the summer of 1964, an event seen to have been the date of birth of the field. Overall, all these previously-mentioned names could be considered to have participated in the development of sociolinguistics as we know it today.

3. The Scope and Foci of Sociolinguistics

Language is a communication tool used by humans to interact with each other. As a means of communication, language can be studied either internally or externally. Firstly, an internal study of language concerns only the description of language structure at the different linguistic levels: phonological, morphological, syntactic, etc. Secondly, on the other hand, an external study of language deals more with the factors outside of language. Its main concern is to study language use and how everything humans speak will always be influenced by the surrounding circumstances. In this respect, this concern is about the interplay between language and society, or in one word, sociolinguistics.

The scope of sociolinguistics is identified at the level of two concepts: Micro- and macro-sociolinguistics. Fishman (1972) first introduced these two concepts. For other sociolinguists, mainly Hudson (1980) and Wardhaugh (2006), micro-sociolinguistics refers to sociolinguistics in a narrower sense; whereas, macro-sociolinguistics is the sociology of language. What is worth about these two concepts is that they bear different senses and their foci are also at opposite sides.

In what follows, a presentation of the fields would identify what the main concerns and foci of each of them are:

- **Micro-sociolinguistics:** Also referred to as sociolinguistics in a narrow sense, this field of sociolinguistics explores the ways in which society influences a speaker's specific language, and also how people communicate with one another and live with different social factors. It also deals with how language varies with social attitudes, such as sex, class, and age. In short, micro-sociolinguistics studies the context of language to know more about language. Here, the focus is on language.
- **Macro-sociolinguistics:** Also known as, the sociology of language, the second field of sociolinguistics focuses more on society as a whole in relation to language. This means that sociolinguists study language use to know more about the social structure; for example, sociolinguistics looks at issues as to why some immigrants keep their native language in some contexts, or how social identity can affect language.

Overall, there is a difference between micro- and macro-sociolinguistics but the main difference is fundamentally on emphasis. It depends on whether the sociolinguist is more interested in language or society.

4. Methods of Sociolinguistics

The development of sociolinguistics has been on-going since its emergence in the late twentieth century. Since then, the methods used to investigate the sociolinguistic phenomena were numerous and varied in both theoretical and methodological grounds. However, it is worth noting that almost all these methods have been conditioned by the research objectives and guided by the disciplinary directions within the study of language and society, namely sociological, sociolinguistic, or linguistic goals.

In line with this brief introduction, it is ostensible that the adopted research methods were either quantitative (empirical) or qualitative (descriptive). The quantitative method usually strives to provide analytical contributions to sociolinguistic studies with an aim to realise an objective analysis of subject meaning. Whereas, a qualitative approach attempts to

produce varying sets of accounts in order to generate interpretations of what sociolinguists are researching. Regarding these common methods, it is noticeable that the field is in a continuous process of theoretical reformulation and methodological redefinition.

What is also remarkable concerning the methods of sociolinguistics is that new lines of inquiry are being opened up and new techniques are being devised to enable sociolinguists to obtain a greater refinement and precision in analysis. By making use of the scientific methods, investigators seek to enrich their audience with a better understanding of the nature and function of language in accordance with the dire need to solve the real human problems of society.

5. Let us Practice!

5.1 Questions

Answer these questions:

1. What is sociolinguistics?
2. How did sociolinguistics emerge?
3. What is the scope of sociolinguistics?
4. What are the foci of sociolinguistics?
5. What is the difference between Micro- and Macro-sociolinguistics?

5.2 Activity

Read this statement and answer the question.

“Sociolinguistics is the field that studies the relation between language and society, between the uses of language and the social structures in which the users of language live (Spolsky, 1988)”. -**Explain**

University of Biskra

Level: 3rd Year

Section of English

Course: Linguistics

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI

Groups: All

In-Take Home Test (2)

PART ONE: Just Remember it!

Activity 1: Choose the best answer _____

1. _____ is concerned with the relationship between language and the context.
 - a. Sociology
 - b. Psycholinguistics
 - c. Sociolinguistics
2. Sociolinguistics was apparently coined already in _____.
 - a. 1929
 - b. 1939
 - c. 1949
3. The scope of sociolinguistics is identified at _____ levels.
 - a. two
 - b. three
 - c. four
4. The development of sociolinguistics has been on-going since its emergence in the _____ century.
 - a. 19th
 - b. 20th
 - c. 21st

Activity 2: Decide whether these statements are **True** or **False** _____

- a. Micro-sociolinguistics is also known as the Sociology of language.
- b. Interest in the social aspects of language has been the concern of many people since recent years.
- c. Dell Hymes adopted Roman Jakobson's Theory of communication, which shaped the ethnography of language.
- d. Formal and systematic studies of language in relation to society can be dated to quite recently.

a

b

c

d

Activity 3: Match the concepts with their respective definitions

- | | |
|---------------------------|---|
| 1. Micro-sociolinguistics | a. It is concerned with an internal study of language. |
| 2. Quantitative study | b. It explores the ways in which society influences a speaker's specific knowledge. |
| 3. Macro-sociolinguistics | c. It is a method of investigation that is empirical. |
| 4. Formal Linguistics | d. It focuses more on society as a whole in relation to language. |

PART TWO: In-Between

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps

Interest in the social aspects of — **1** —, the intersection with society, has been the concern of many people. Nevertheless, — **2** — and systematic studies of language in relation to society can be dated only to quite — **3** —. In other words, — **4** — as an independent discipline has grown since the second half of the twentieth century.

1

2

3

4

Activity 1: Briefly, answer the following questions

1. In what way did Dell Hymes contribute to the emergence of sociolinguistics?

2. What investigation methods do sociolinguists use?

PART THREE: In-Depth

Activity: Read and discuss the following statement _____

- “Explain the historical development of sociolinguistics.”

University of Biskra

Course: Linguistics

Section of English

Level: 3rd Year

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed C. Hoadjli

Groups: All

THEME THREE: Language Variation

Description and Rationale

This theme presents basic principles and assumptions of language variation in sociolinguistics. Its main aim is to find out about how language and society interact. It also attempts to look for how social factors/variables affect the manner in which people use language differently.

Learning Objectives

After completing this theme, students should be able to:

- Understand the main concern of language variation in sociolinguistics.
- Demonstrate that language use is structured and not random.
- Identify the effects of the social factors on language.
- Display the main outcomes and manifestations of language variation, and
- Get a clear picture on how language variation is a central topic in sociolinguistic investigations.

Guiding Questions

1. What is meant by language variation?
2. What is a social factor? Give examples.
3. What is a dialect?
4. What is the difference between a dialect and a language?
5. What is meant by language standardisation?
6. Define these language variation concepts: Idiolect, sociolect, ecolect, register/style, jargon, slang, taboo, and isogloss.

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1. Sociolinguistics and Language Variation

Sociolinguistics and language variation involve the study of how language varies among different groups of speakers and the relationship of this variation to social factors. The study of the effects of social structure on language and the exploration of the speaker's linguistic diversity could help people know more about one was language to develop his/her personal, cultural, and social identities.

On the available literature, it has always been said that William Labov is the founder of variationist linguistics and his seminal work entitled, "Social Stratification of English in New York City", published in 1966, is seen to be the cornerstone in sociolinguistic research. For Labov (2008), any investigation "begins with the simple act of noticing a variation – that there were two alternative ways of saying the same thing" (as cited in Djennane, 2018, p. 24). Djennane (2018) explicated this strong point that urged Labov to demonstrate that "Language use is highly structured and not random". In Djennane's words, it is stated:

A number of social structures condition language use. To put it in another way, language use is conditioned by a number of social variables like social class, ethnicity, gender, age, religion, status, level of education, since then, a plethora of research about language and society have mushroomed (Djennane, 2018, p. 24).

With regard to the basic assumption that views that language variation is socially determined, it is worth noting that language variation presupposes that languages vary from one place to another, from one situation to another, and from one social group to another. This implies that language variation is the outcome of the effects of social factors on language. These social factors could concern examples such as geographical, ethnic, social class, gender, age, socio-economic status, and educational factors. For sociolinguistics, these social variables are interconnected and are reflected in every language variety's pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and syntax.

2. Main Manifestations of Language Variation

The manifestations of language variation could be identified in many examples. In what follows, the main examples are going to be briefly defined and presented:

2.1 Dialect

A dialect is a particular variety of language. It is the collection of attributes (phonetic, phonological, syntactic, and morphological) that make one group of speakers noticeably different from another group of speakers of the same language.

In general, there are many types of dialects. Examples of these are:

2.1.1 Regional Dialect. A regional dialect is a variety of language spoken in a particular country. A regional dialect is not a distinct language. Some examples of regional dialects could be the “Hillbilly English”, the English language used by the Appalachians in the United States of America, and the “Goodie”, the English language used in Newcastle in the United Kingdom.

2.1.2 Minority Dialect. A minority dialect is a variety of language spoken by a particular minority ethnic group and used as a marker of identity. Examples of minority dialects could concern the American Vernacular English in the USA, London Jamaican in Britain, and Aboriginal English in Australia.

2.1.3 Standard and Non-standard Dialect. A standard dialect is a variety of language, which is supported by institutions. Such institutional support may include:

- government recognition or designation,
- presentation as being the “correct” form of language in schools,
- published grammars, dictionaries, and textbooks that set forth “correct” spoken and written forms, and
- an extensive formal literature that employs dialect in prose, poetry, non-fiction, etc.

Examples of standard dialect comprise: Standard American English, Standard British English, and Standard Philippine English.

Contrarily, a non-standard dialect is not a beneficiary of institutional support although it has a complete vocabulary, grammar, and syntax. The non-standard dialect of the English language in Southern England could be a good example of non-standard dialects.

2.2 *Idiolect*

An idiolect is a variety of a language unique to an individual. That is, every individual has an idiolect. This mainly concerns the individual's grouping of words and phrases. The sum of idiolects can make an *eclect*, a variety of language specific to a household.

2.3 *Sociolect*

A sociolect is a variety of language characteristic of a social background or status. An example of a sociolect is Standard Italian, which is a dialect spoken by and particular to Tuscany. Nonetheless, being the natural language of Italy, it is a sociolect since it carries a certain prestige from being the language that is used in all the country. It is used in all sectors, including the media, education, and also used in the press.

2.4 *Register*

A register is a variety of language that focuses on the use of language in a particular situation. Wardaugh (2006) says, "Registers are sets of language items associated with discrete occupational or social groups" (p. 52). This means that each speaker has a range of varieties and choices of language at different times. A register is mainly characterised by vocabulary differences either by the use of particular words or by the use of words in a particular kind of language produced by the social situation.

A register is commonly identified by certain phonological variants, vocabulary, idioms, and expressions that are associated with different occupational or socio-economic groups. For Ferguson (1984), "people participating in recurrent communication situations tend to develop similar vocabularies, similar features of intonation, and characteristics of bits of syntax and phonology that they use in these situations" (p. 20). Of course, one person may control a variety

of registers. One can be an airline pilot, a journalist, a financier, etc. Each register helps the speaker communicate at a specific time and/or place.

2.5 Style

A style is about the range of variation within the speech of an individual speaker. It concerns a variety of language from formal to informal. It is argued that people's styles of speech could reflect not only aspects of their identity, such as their ethnicity, age, gender, and social background but also indicate the contexts in which language is being used.

According to Joos (1961), there are five speech styles that speakers of a given language tend to use depending on the context where they are and the people they address. These speech styles are:

1. **Intimate:** It is a private style that is often used between or among the members of one family. The language used in this style may not be shared in public.
2. **Casual:** It is a common style among peers and friends. It uses a mixture of different forms of language, such as jargon, slang, or vernacular language.
3. **Consultative:** It is a standard style. Professional or mutually-acceptable language is recommended in this style. Examples of situations of this style include communications between teacher and student, doctor and patient, judge and lawyer, employers, and employees.
4. **Formal:** A style is used in formal settings. Unlike the consultative style, this is one-way. This style is found in speeches of ministers, formal talkers, and pronouncements of judges.
5. **Frozen:** It is a frozen style in time since it remains unchanged. It mostly occurs in ceremonies. Examples are religions and historical ceremonies.

2.6 Defining Some Concepts Common in Language Variation

- **Isogloss:** It is a geographical boundary or delineation of a certain linguistic feature. In other words, it is about a line or a map enclosing an area within which a particular linguistic feature is found.
- **Jargon:** A specific terminology relates to a specific activity, profession, or group. It develops as a kind of shorthand, to quickly express ideas that are frequently discussed between the members of a group. It is more specialised or precisely used among practitioners of a particular field.
- **Slang:** It is the use of informal words and expressions to describe an object or condition. It is the vocabulary that is meant to be interpreted quickly but not necessarily literally. It is particular to a certain subculture, such as musicians and members of the minority of groups.
- **Taboo:** It is concerned with the use of a term to replace a well-known conventional synonym to avoid the discomfort caused by this conventional term.

3. Let us Practice!

3.1 Questions

Answer these questions:

- How do sociolinguists differentiate between a language and a dialect? What is meant by language variation?
- How are the manifestations of language variation?
- What are the types of speech style?
- What are the main characteristics of a slang?

3.2 Activity

Read this statement and answer the question.

“For Fergusson (1984), people participating in recurrent communication situations tend to develop similar vocabularies, similar features of intonation, and characteristics of bits of syntax and phonology that they use in these situations”. -**Explain**

University of Biskra

Level: 3rd Year

Section of English

Course: Linguistics

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI

Groups: All

In-Take Home Test (3)

PART ONE: Just Remember it!

Activity 1: Choose the best answer _____

1. The founder of the variationist linguistics is _____.
 - a. Chomsky
 - b. Hymes
 - c. Labov
2. _____ dialect is a variety of language spoken in a particular country.
 - a. Regional
 - b. Minority
 - c. Non-standard
3. _____ is a variety of language, which focuses on the use of language in a particular situation.
 - a. Sociolect
 - b. Register
 - c. Idiolect
4. _____ is the use of informal words and expressions to describe an object or condition.
 - a. Slang
 - b. Jargon
 - c. Taboo

Activity 2: Decide whether these statements are **True** or **False** _____

- a. Language variation presupposes that languages vary from one place to another.
- b. A style concerns a variety of language from formal to informal.
- c. Isogloss is the geographical boundary of a certain linguistic feature.
- d. Taboo is concerned with the use of a term to replace another one to avoid discomfort.

a

b

c

d

Activity 3: Match the concepts with their respective definitions

- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| 1. Intimate style | a. It is a mixture of different forms of language. |
| 2. Casual style | b. It is a standard and professional form of language. |
| 3. Consultive style | c. It is used in formal settings. |
| 4. Formal style | d. It is private and often used between close people. |

PART TWO: In-Between

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps

Language variation is the **1** of the effects of social factors as **2**. These **3** factors could concern examples, such as geographical, ethnic, social class, gender, and age. In sociolinguistics, the social **4** are interconnected in every language variety.

1	2	3	4

Activity 1: Briefly, answer the following questions

1. In what way does a standard dialect differ from a non-standard dialect?

2. What are the common types of dialects?

PART THREE: In-Depth

Activity: Read and discuss the following statement _____

- "Language use is conditioned by a number of social structures."

University of Biskra

Course: Linguistics

Section of English

Level: 3rd Year

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed C. Hoadjli

Groups: All

THEME FOUR: Language Contact and Change

Description and Rationale

Theme Four provides an overview of the field of language contact in sociolinguistics. The aim is to allow students to understand the different sociolinguistic phenomena that arise when different groups of people with different languages get in touch. In precise terms, this theme sheds light on language contact outcomes, namely borrowing, bilingualism, code-switching, diglossia, language shift, language death, pidgin, and creole.

Learning Objectives

After completing this theme, students should be able to:

- Define language contact and change.
- Explain the major reasons that often lead to language contact and change.
- Identify the outcomes of language contact.
- Review the pertinent literature on these outcomes.
- Get a clear picture of the manifestations of the outcomes of language contact on individuals and society.

Guiding Questions

1. What is language contact?
2. When does language contact occur?
3. In terms of what levels can the manifestations of language occur?
4. What are the main outcomes of language contact?
5. What is meant by Diglossia and Borrowing?
6. What is Language Shift and what are the factors that usually lead to it?

7. What is meant by Code-switching and what are the main reasons behind its occurrence?
8. What is Pidginisation? When does it occur? What are the characteristics of pidgins?
9. What is Creolisation? What is the difference between a pidgin and a creole?

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1. Language Contact and Change

Language contact is a sociolinguistics phenomenon by which speakers of different languages or varieties of language (i.e., dialects) come to interact with one another. It is commonly known that this contact usually occurs when two groups of people get in touch, two groups meet because of neighbourhood, a given language of a dominant group is imposed on speakers from different groups through education, or a group of people gets in touch with another because of trade. Ostensibly, in all these cases, a transfer of linguistic features and aspects from one language to another could occur. In the meantime, this transfer always leads to language change.

It has been claimed that many manifestations of language contact are to be found in a great and various number of levels. Specifically, examples of these manifestations concern change through borrowing, grammatical replacement, multilingualism, extinction, and attrition, etc.

- **Language Borrowing:**

- It often begins with non-basic words, then it expands to concern all the remaining words.
- It also concerns phonology. In the beginning, it borrows some sounds to go through the phonological sound system aftermath.
- It includes even typologically-compatible morphology and syntax.

- **Grammatical Replacement:**

- Grammatical structures in one language can replace other ones in another language.
- Grammar could also be developed in either a unilateral or a multilateral transfer.
- The beginning of grammatical replacement often begins with borrowing new structures from the juxtaposed language or languages.

- **Multilingualism:**
 - It occurs when more than one language might be used within the community because its members come from different areas.
- **Extinction:**
 - This phenomenon often happens with a monolingual community that is absorbed in an original language.
 - It occurs when the second generation of that same community is bilingual with a dominant language.
 - The third generation will then be monolingual with a new different language.
- **Attrition:**
 - As a speech community shrinks, its maternal language is lost.
 - Such a phenomenon often leads to extinction or language loss.

2. Outcomes of Language Contact

The outcomes of language could be noticed through the emergence of various, often sociolinguistic phenomena among the speakers of languages that are in constant interaction. In the literature, examples of the major language contact outcomes that are often cited include borrowing, bilingualism, language shift, code-switching, language death, diglossia, pidgin, and creole. In what is next, a brief elucidation of these sociolinguistic phenomena is presented:

2.1 Borrowing

In sociolinguistics, the term borrowing stands for borrowing different linguistic features from a given language to be adopted by a speaker or speakers in their first language. According to Djennane (2018), borrowing is the by-product of language contact situations. This author refers to Hugen (1989) to make this sociolinguistic concept more explicit. Hugen sees borrowing as, “the general traditional word used to describe the adoption into a language of a linguistic feature previously used by another” (p. 187). Likewise, the same author cites

Kemmer (2003) who observes that borrowing is also called loanword. The abstract noun borrowing means the process adopted by the speakers to use words from a source language into a native language. This simply means that the senses of “borrowing” and “loanword” are mere metaphors since they do not bear literal meanings.

Hoffer (2005) considers, on the other side, that the speakers of a language have various options when confronted with new items and ideas in another language. In this respect, he organises these options in terms of the following:

1. **Loanwords:** It concerns the speakers who adopt an item or an idea from a source language. The borrowed form is a loanword. These forms function in the usual grammatical processes, with nouns taking plural and/or possessive forms of the new language and with verbs and adjectives receiving native morphemes as well.
2. **Loan-shift:** Another process occurs when adopting native words to the new meanings.
3. **Loan-translation:** It is also called calque. It occurs when the native language uses an item-for-item native version of the original.
4. **Loan-blend:** It is a form in which an element is a loan word and the other is a native element (Hoffer, 2005, p. 53).

2.2 Bilingualism

Bilingualism is the existence of two different languages side by side within the speech repertoire of either an individual or a society. A bilingual is, thus, usually described as someone who uses two languages to communicate. Regarding the degree of proficiency in mastering these two languages is still problematic. For some sociolinguists, being bilingual means that the speaker is able to use two different languages at an advanced level. Nevertheless, for others, a person may describe himself/herself as bilingual although s/he does not possess the ability to communicate fully in the same way in the two languages. Franson (2009) sees that “a person may describe themselves as bilingual but may mean only the ability to converse and

communicate orally, others may be proficient in reading in two or more languages (bi-literate)” (p. 1).

As to this point, it has been argued that there exist two types of bilingualism: individual and societal bilingualism.

2.2.1 Individual Bilingualism. It is when an individual has two languages in his/her repertoire. Djennane (2018) considers four dimensions in the classification of individual bilingualism. These are:

- A. Classification according to the cognitive organisations of the two languages. This mainly concerns:
 - **Compound Bilinguals:** The people who have learnt both languages from the same environment.
 - **Coordinate Bilinguals:** The people who have learnt both languages in different environments.
 - **Subordinate Bilinguals:** The people who have learnt a second language and cannot understand it without the help of their first language.
- B. Classification according to language proficiency. Distinctions about the examples of this classification are stated as follows:
 - **Balanced Bilinguals:** The people who are equally competent in the two languages.
 - **Unbalanced Bilinguals:** The people who do not use the two languages with equal ease.
 - **Active Bilinguals:** The individuals who can use the two languages.
 - **Passive Bilinguals:** The people who can understand the two languages.
- C. Classification according to the sequence of acquisition. It mainly concerns two examples:
 - **Simultaneous Bilingualism:** In this type, the two languages are concurrently

acquired since babyhood.

- **Consecutive/Successive/Sequential Bilingualism:** The L2 is acquired after the L1.

2.2.2 Societal Bilingualism. It is when a society has two different languages existing side by side and the two languages are assigned similar or different functions within it. For Djenane (2018, p. 42), sociolinguists identify two types of societal bilingualism: De Jure (by law) bilingualism versus De Facto (in reality) bilingualism. More elucidation of these two types of societal bilingualism is given in what follows:

A. De Jure Bilingualism: About two languages are recognised within the speech community. Different institutions, such as the media, administrations, schools, political institutions, often support the two languages.

B. De Facto Bilingualism: It is when the actual linguistic situation in a nation acknowledges the existence of more than one language, but these languages do not have any official status.

2.3 Code-switching

Code-switching is a well-known sociolinguistic phenomenon in bilingual communities. It refers to the usage of two languages in a mixed manner, generally, in oral interactions. Nordquist (2019) defines code-switching as, “the practice of moving back and forth between two languages or between two dialects or registers of the same language at one time” (p. 1). In the literature, code-switching is also referred to as code-mixing or style-shifting.

As for the types of code-switching, many accounts have been provided. Bloom and Gumperz (1972) and Eldin (2014) (as cited in AlHeeti and AlAbdely, 2016) suggest two types of code-switching: situational and metaphorical. For Palpack (1980, as cited in AlHeeti and Albdely, 2016, p. 117), other types of code-switching are proposed. These include tag switching, inter-sentential, and intra-sentential switching.

2.3.1 Tag Switching. Involves inserting a tag or a short phrase in one language into an utterance that is otherwise entirely in another language.

2.3.2 Inter-sentential Switching. Concerns switching at sentential boundaries where one clause or sentence is in one language and the next clause or sentence is in a different language.

2.3.3 Intra-sentential Switching. This occurs at clausal, sentential, or even word level.

2.4 Diglossia

Charles A. Ferguson has first introduced the term “diglossia” in linguistics in 1959. He is credited to be the first linguist who use the specific term, diglossia, in his article entitled “Diglossia”. Later on, it was the turn of Joshua Fishman who gave a modification to Ferguson’s original concept and generalised the concept of diglossia to bilingual communities. For Fishman, a diglossic community is not characterised by the use of two language varieties only, but it is also concerned with the use of separate languages (as cited in Rafha, 2018).

Rafha (2018, p.2) provides other definitions of the concept of diglossia suggested by other linguistic sources. These are:

1. “When two languages or language varieties exist side by side in a community, this is called diglossia (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, 1985)”.
2. “Diglossia refers to the societies with two distinctive codes of speech which are employed in different situations (Wardhaugh, 2006)”.
3. “Diglossia is the characteristic of a speech community, group of people with common rules of speaking rather than individuality (Holmes, 2008)”.

For Holmes (2008), diglossia is a situation where, in a given society, there are two closely-related languages, one of high prestige, and another one of low value. The high variety, usually referred to as H-variety, is used to represent literacy and is used for formal, public, and official use. Whereas, the low variety, referred to as L-variety, is non-standard and usually is

the spoken vernacular tongue. Vernacular refers to the native language of a country or locality. It is used in informal situations, such as between family members, neighbours, local markets, and friends/close friends. That is, the low variety, contrarily to the high, is used for informal conversation and daily use.

Rafha (2018, p. 5) refers to Ferguson (1996) who lists six specific characteristics of a diglossia language situation. These are mentioned in the following:

1. **Prestige:** Prestigious speakers consider H-variety as the more powerful. People's attitude towards the H-variety is more positive.
2. **Acquisition:** The H-variety is often learnt, whereas, the L-variety is acquired.
3. **Literacy Heritage:** The H-variety is usually used in literature, except the folklore literature that uses the L-variety.
4. **Standardisation:** The grammar system is the main point in H-variety. Ferguson calls H-variety "grammatically more complex".
5. **Phonology:** In the H-variety, phonology is important. However, in the L-variety, it is not.
6. **Lexicon:** High and low varieties have differences in the case of their lexicon. On the other side, the L-variety does not consider these rules.

2.5 Language Shift

Language shift is the process whereby a community eventually shifts to use one language over another one. Very often, it is the language of the majority that displaces the language of the minority mother tongue. Ostler (2019) defines language shift as,

The process, or the event, in which a population changes from one language to another... It is a social phenomenon whereby one language replaces another in a given society. It is due to underlying changes in the composition and aspirations of the society, which goes from speaking to the old, to the new language (p. 1).

In the literature, many factors can lead to language shift. These factors could be economic, political, social, or demographic. A brief elucidation of these factors is presented in what follows:

1. Economic, Social, and Political Factors:

- The language of the majority is associated with a special status and prestige.
- Being hired for a job requires the mastery of the language of the host country.
- The pressure of powerful institutions, such as education and the media foster the adoption of a specific language.

2. Demographic Factors:

- It is noticed that urban areas favour language shift than rural areas.
- The size of the community speaking a language could determine which language exerts its power on another language whose speakers are a minority.
- Social relationships among the members of different groups speaking different languages help in making one language displace another.

In some cases, it has been argued that language shift could lead to the extinction of the minority group's mother language. In worse cases, when the members of the same community no longer use this language, it will vanish. This sociolinguistic phenomenon has been well-expressed by Fishman (1991). For Ravindranath (2003), who cites Fishman (1991),

Language shift is a process whereby intergenerational continuity of the heritage language is proceeding negatively, with 'fewer speakers, readers, writers, and even understanders' every generation... In many cases, the shift may be abrupt... and the number of speakers may drop off considerably from one generation to another (p. 7).

2.6 Language Death

Language death is also called language extinction. It is commonly known that a language dies when the people who speak that language die. In other cases, a language dies

because a dominant language, the language of the majority group, spreads and leads the minority group language to retreat and be only used in narrower circles, such as at home or during activities as counting, praying, and dreaming. Very often, this language dies because the members of the same community no longer use it.

Why languages die is a question that has always been raised. Crystal (2014) responds, Before we can decide what can or should be done [about endangered languages], we need to understand the reasons for the endangerment. Why, then, are language dying? ... We can get some sense following the appearance of written language, for we now have records ... But the extinct languages of which we have some historical record in this part of the world must be only a fraction of those for which we have nothing. (p. 68).

For Janse (2003), the factors determining language death are typically “non-linguistic”. The most commonly cited factors are socio-economic and socio-political. In his words, these factors are clearly expressed:

The socio-economic factors include the lack of economic opportunities, rapid economic transformations, on-going industrializations, work patterns, migrant labor, resettlement, migration. Among the socio-political factors are official language policies, discrimination, stigmatization, repression, war, etc (p. 10).

2.6 Pidgin and Creole

A pidgin is a simplified language that evolves from contacts between groups that share no common language but need to communicate verbally. These people create a common language based on the more socially dominant language, often referred to as lexifier, with an influence from the other contact language, also referred to as substrate (Siegel, 2008). For the most part, the lexifier provides the lexicon (vocabulary) while the substrate language influences the grammar.

It is commonly known that the situations in which pidgins arose from included trade (Vellupillai, 2014) or in slave societies in which slaves were purposefully picked from diverse linguistic backgrounds (Wardhaugh, 2010). The main characteristic of pidgins is that they were not used at home, or in social situations, but at labour, markets, ships, or plantations (Villupillai, 2004). As an auxiliary contact language, a pidgin is limited in function to specific, specialised usages (Decamp, 1971). The phonology is not standardised. Rather, it usually depended on the native language speaker (Wardhaugh, 2010).

It is argued that there exists a big number of examples of pidgins. Some examples of the most known pidgins include the following:

- Patois (Jamaican and English).
- Basque-Icelandic (Basque, Germanic, and Romance).
- Béarlchas (Gaelic Irish and English).
- Hawaiian (Portuguese, Hawaiian, Cantonese, English, and Spanish).
- Nigerian (English and Nigeria Krio).
- Portuñol (Spanish and Portuguese).
- Denglish (Dutch and English).
- Siculish (Sicilian and English).

A creole is a nativised pidgin, expanded in form and function to meet the communicative needs of a community of native speakers. This means that when the pidgin takes the place of a community's primary language and their children grow up and acquire it as their mother tongue, it is called a creole (Sigal, 2008). For Romain (2017), the development from pidgin to creole involves expressive faces in response to communicative needs.

Historically speaking, the term "creole" was first used in the American colonies founded by Spain and Portugal in the 16th century. This term was used to describe people of Spanish, Portuguese, and African descendants who were born in the new colonies. In 1865, the

French explorer, Michel Jagolet, was the first to use the word “creole” to refer to language. He used it to describe a Portuguese-based language he heard in Senegal. It was not until the 1700’s that other people began using the term “creole” to describe mixed languages (Creole Definition, Examples, and Origins, n.d.).

It is important to note that there are a number of creole languages, with different creole words that have been used by different cultures all over the world. For instance, the Indian Ocean Creole languages are based on a combination of European and Asian languages. Moreover, the Atlantic Creole languages are largely based on a combination of European and African languages. Other examples of creole languages are:

- **The Belize Creole Language:** It is an English-based language. Most Belizeans speak Kriol in addition to English and Spanish.
- **The Guyanese Creole Language:** It is also called the Creolise. It is a mix of African languages with Dutch and English.
- **The Haitian Creole Language:** It is largely based on French and African languages.
- **Jamaican Creole Languages:** It is also referred to as “Jamaican” or “Patois”. It is based on English, French, and African languages.

3. Let us Practice!

3.1 Questions

Answer these questions:

1. What is language contact?
2. How are the manifestations of language contact?
3. What are the outcomes of language contact?
4. Why do people code-switch?
5. What are the characteristics of a diglossic situation?

3.2 Activity

Read this statement and answer the question.

“Language shift is due to the underlying changes in the composition and aspirations of the society, which goes from speaking to the old, to the new language (Ostler, 2019)”. - **Explain**

University of Biskra

Level: 3rd Year

Section of English

Course: Linguistics

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI

Groups: All

In-Take Home Test (4)

PART ONE: Just Remember it!

Activity 1: Choose the best answer _____

1. Language _____ is a sociolinguistic phenomenon by which speakers of different language interact
 - a. exchange
 - b. contact
 - c. attrition
2. _____ occurs when more than one language might be used within the country.
 - a. Monolingualism
 - b. Bilingualism
 - c. Multilingualism
3. _____ switching occurs at a clause, sentence, or even word level.
 - a. Tag
 - b. Inter-sentential
 - c. Intra-sentential
4. The term diglossia has been termed by _____.
 - a. Labov
 - b. Hymes
 - c. Ferguson

Activity 2: Decide whether these statements are **True** or **False** _____

- a. Diglossia is when two languages or language varieties exist side by side.
- b. In a diglossic situation, the L- variety is the most prominent.
- c. A pidgin is a simplified language that evolves from contacts between groups.
- d. A pidgin is a nativised creole.

a

b

c

d

Activity 3: Match the concepts with their respective definitions

- | | |
|---------------------|---|
| 1. Loanwords | a. It occurs when adopting native words to the new meanings. |
| 2. Loan-shift | b. It is a form in which an element is a loan word. |
| 3. Loan-translation | c. It occurs when the native language uses an item-for item native version of the original. |
| 4. Loan-blend | d. It concerns the speakers who adopt an idea or item from a source language. |

PART TWO: In-Between

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps

— **1** — Is the existence of two different languages side by side within the speech repertoire of either an individual or a society. A — **2** — is, thus, usually described as someone who uses two — **3** — to — **4** —.

1	2	3	4

Activity 1: Briefly, answer the following questions

1. What factors usually lead to language shift?

2. What are the common types of code-switching?

PART THREE: In-Depth

Activity: Read and discuss the following statement _____

- “For Romaine (2017), the developments from pidgin to creole involves expressive faces in response to communicative needs.”

Semester Two

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

University of Biskra

Course: Linguistics

Section of English

Level: 3rd Year

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed C. Hoadjli

Groups: All

THEME FIVE: Introduction to Psycholinguistics

Description and Rationale

This theme is an introduction to psycholinguistics. The aim of this theme is to allow students to understand what is meant by psycholinguistics. In this respect, a great deal of definitions of this concept will be reviewed. Moreover, this theme also aims to shed light on how the term psycholinguistics came to appear in the scene of linguistics. Other important issues related to psycholinguistics, such as the aims and scopes of the discipline will be presented and discussed.

Learning Objectives

After completing this theme, students should be able to:

- See a selected review of the literature on the definitions of psycholinguistics.
- Understand why it is said that psycholinguistics is interdisciplinary.
- Identify through the definitions of psycholinguistics the relationship between the mind and language.
- Shed light on the major mental processes involved in the different processes of language acquisition, processing, and production.
- Review the different periods in which psycholinguistics evolved across time.
- Define the major aims and scopes of psycholinguistics.

Guiding Questions

1. What is psycholinguistics?
2. Why is psycholinguistics said to be interdisciplinary?
3. How did psycholinguistics come to appear in the scene of linguistics?
4. What does psycholinguistics study?
5. What are the different processes involved in the relationship between mind and language?
6. What is the role of memory in language processing?
7. How is the meaning of a word/sentence represented in our memory?
8. What are the major aims and scopes of psycholinguistics?

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1. Definitions

Psycholinguistics is a branch of study that combines the disciplines of psychology and linguistics. It is concerned with the relationship between the human mind and the language as it examines the processes that occur in the brain while producing and perceiving both written and spoken discourse.

In the literature, a great deal of definitions provided by many scholars is available. Below, some of these definitions are presented:

- “Psycholinguistics is an interdisciplinary field of study in which the goals are to understand how people acquire language, how people use language and understand one another, and how language is processed in the brain” (Fernández & Cairns, 2011, p.1).
- “Psycholinguistics explores the relationship between the human mind and language. It treats the language user as an individual rather than a representative of a society - but an individual whose linguistic performance is determined by the strengths and limitations of the mental apparatus” (Field, 2003, p.2).
- “Psycholinguistics study how word meaning, sentence meaning, and discourse meaning are computed and represented in the mind. They study how complex words and sentences are composed in speech and how they are broken down into their constituents in the acts of listening and reading. Psycholinguistics seeks to understand how language is done” (O’Grady, 2001, n.p.).
- “Psycholinguistics can be defined as the mental processes involves in language use, including the production, comprehension, and storage of spoken and written language (Warren, 2013, p.4).

Based on these definitions, fundamental assumptions on psycholinguistics could be summarised in the following sentences:

- Psycholinguistics is an interdisciplinary discipline. It is interdisciplinary because, firstly, it combines two major branches, psychology, and linguistics. Secondly, psycholinguistics is also related to other fields, such as developmental psychology, cognitive psychology, neurolinguistics, and speech science.
- Psycholinguistics deals with language and mind.
- Psycholinguistics is directly linked with the processes of encoding and decoding the code (language).
- Psycholinguistics studies how word meaning, sentence meaning, and discourse meaning are computed and represented in the mind.
- Psycholinguistics discusses the processes which are going in the speaker and hearer's minds.
- Psycholinguistics explains how words and sentences are stored in the mind and it describes how humans retrieve these words and sentences.
- Psycholinguistics explores language acquisition, processing, and production.

Warren (2013) reports a number of issues that arise from these definitions of psycholinguistics. Some are to do with representations, such as:

- How are words stored in the mental lexicon, i.e., the dictionary that is in our heads?
- Do we have phoneme-sized chunks of language in our heads?
- Do literate people have letter-sized chunks filling equivalent roles for the processing of written language?
- How is the meaning of a sentence represented in our memory?

Other questions concern the processes that might operate based on these representations:

- How do we memorise words so effortlessly?
- When we speak, how do we convert an idea into an utterance?

- As listeners, how do we get from hearing an utterance to developing our representations of the idea(s) being expressed by that utterance?
- What stages do we have to go through during the construction of language?
- Do the processes involved in language production and comprehension influence one another, and if so, in what ways? (Warren, 2013, p.4).

2. The Emergence of Psycholinguistics

As a term, the American psychologist Jacob Robert Kantor in his book, “An Objective Psychology of Grammar” in 1936, introduced the word “psycholinguistics”. However, it has been recognised that the term was rarely used until 1946, when Kantor’s student, Nicholas Promko, popularised the term by using it in his article entitled “Language and Psycholinguistics: A Review”, which was published in 1946. In this article, Promko used the term “Psycholinguistics” to denote an interdisciplinary field of study that could be theoretically coherent. The term since then gained significant interest and opened the door to a new, unified approach to human linguistic approach (Nordquist, 2017; Levelt, 2013).

As an academic discipline, in the literature, there exist two main phases that account for the evolution of this discipline. The two phrases are marked as the period that came before the Chomskyan revolution. It usually starts with the works in ancient civilisations, and covers the earliest empirical studies until the nineteenth-century emergence of the cognitive neuropsychology of language. This phase ends with the early twentieth century of behaviourism. On the other side, the second significant period, referred to as the post-Chomskyan era, concerns Chomsky’s influence on psycholinguistics as this discipline is defined and shaped today. It starts during the second half of the twentieth century in the 1950s and continues to the early 21st century.

In what follows, a brief description of these two phases over history is going to be displayed.

2.1 The Pre-Chomskyan Era

In this sub-section, the historical review's purpose is to shed light on how the present-day state of the art evolved. In doing so, it will briefly touch on Ancient Greek philosophy, 19th-century neuroscience, 20th-century psycholinguistics, and beyond. It is necessary to note that this brief account is going to be selective to make sense of the historical developments that contributed to psycholinguistic science. To do so, major information on this period is based on Altmann's (2006) article that is entitled "History of Psycholinguistics".

From the Ancient Egyptians to the Greek Philosophers. It is claimed that the earliest to write about language and the brain were the Ancient Egyptians. A catalogue of the effects of head injury exists in what is now referred to as the Edwin Smith Surgical Papyrus, written in about 1700 B.C. The writer referred there to what is presumed to be the first recorded case of aphasia. However, the Egyptians did not accord much significance to the brain, which unlike the other organs of the body, was discarded during mummification. They believed that the heart was the seat of the soul and the repository for the memory, a view largely shared by the Greek Philosophers, such as Aristotle (384-322 B.C.).

The Earliest Empirical Studies. It is commonly recognised that the pre-history of psycholinguistics (up until the 19th century) was dominated by philosophical conjecture. The term dominated is used loosely here, as there was no systematic and ongoing questioning of the relationship between mind and language, or indeed, brain and language. By modern-day, psycholinguistics is dominated not by philosophy, but by experimental investigations that measure reaction times, monitor eye movements, record babies' babbles, and so on. Indeed, one of the most widely replicated studies is a study that was carried out on at least three and possibly four independent occasions between the 7th B.C. and the 16th century A.D.

The 19th Century emergence of the cognitive Neuropsychology of Language. The first systematic studies of the relationship between language and the brain were conducted in the 19th century. This is probably the earliest point in the history of psycholinguistics from when a progression of studies can be traced, with one author building a case based on earlier studies coupled with newer data.

The protagonists at this time were Gall, Boulliard, Aubertin, Broca, Wernicke, and Lichtheim, to name a few. None of them would be described as “a psycholinguist”, but to the extent their work informed accounts of the relationship between brain and language. They are no less a part of the history of psycholinguistics than are the other linguists, philosophers, psychologists, and cognitive scientists who have influenced the field through their own, sometimes radically different, perspectives.

The Early 20th Century Influence of Behaviourism. By the end of the 19th century, the study of language began to change, as did the study of psychology more generally. Interest in the psychology of language shifted from being primarily concerned with its breakdown to being concerned also with its normal use. Wilhelm Wundt stressed the importance of mental states. William James similarly saw the advantages of introducing mental states into theories of language use.

However, the early 20th century was a turbulent time for psycholinguistics; J. B. Watson argued that psychology should be concerned with behaviour and behavioural observation, rather than with consciousness and introspection. Meanwhile, Wundt had argued that a psychology of language was more about the mind than it was about language. Behaviourists such as J. R. Kantor argued against the idea that language use implicated distinct mental states. For Kantor, the mentalist tradition started by Wundt was simply wrong.

In the twentieth century, more precisely in the 1930s, the linguistic school of Bloomfield was born, with the publication in 1933 of Bloomfield’s “Language”. Bloomfield

reduced the study of language structures to a laborious set of taxonomic procedures, starting with the smallest elements of language. In doing so, Bloomfield firmly aligned the linguistics of the day with behaviourism. It is important to highlight that behaviourism eschewed mental states in its study of psychology.

The behaviourist tradition culminated with B. F. Skinner's publication in 1957 of "Verbal Behaviour". Here, Skinner sought to apply behaviourist principles to verbal acquisition and verbal behaviour, attempting to explain them in terms of conditioning theory. Verbal behaviour proved to be the background on which the classical behaviourists and mentalists would clash.

2.2 The Post-Chomskyan Era.

Psycholinguistics, as a discipline, came into vogue during the second half of the twentieth century, starting from the year 1951. This period denotes the beginning of what is always referred to as the "Post-Chomskyan Era". Initially, the inspiring works of a linguistic milestone, Zellig Harris, and his student, Noam Chomsky, contributed to a major paradigm shift in understanding psycholinguistics. Harris through his book, "Methods in Structural Linguistics", rejected the statement of distributional analysis, a mechanical, corpus-based discovery procedure for the units of language, phonemes, morphemes, and syntactic components. In doing so, he claimed that these procedures would allow for a generative grammar. This fundamental idea was later on developed by Noam Chomsky who proclaimed that a generative grammar is "psycholinguistically real". By this, he referred to the mental capacity that allows any human being to produce language. This fundamental idea permitted psycholinguistics to turn back to its roots (Levelt, 2013).

The Mid-20th Century and Chomskyan Influence. In 1959, Chomsky published a review of Skinner's "Verbal Behaviour". He argued that no amount of conditioned stimulus-response associations could explain the infinite productivity of language. Chomsky

reintroduced the mind, and specifically mental representations, into theories of language. Whereas, Skinner eschewed mental representations. Chomsky proved that language was founded on precisely such mental representations. Chomsky's view opened the door for psycholinguistics. According to historians and scholars, with Chomsky's influence, psycholinguistics, as it is defined today, took its form and shape.

On the Influence of the Digital Computer. The 1970s saw enormous growth in psycholinguistics. Advances were made across a wide range of phenomena, including the identification of both printed and spoken words, the reading process, sentence comprehension, and the mental representations of texts. The influences of the digital computing revolution were felt in different ways. Some were direct, and others were indirect influences. These advances contributed to the development of psycholinguistics.

The Early 21st Century and the Grounding of Language in Action and the Brain. In the period of the early 21st century, increased attention was focusing on neuroimaging. This mainly concerned new techniques to study language and its effects on action. In its essence, the neuroimaging of language studies treated aspects of language that are represented in the same representational substrates that control our sensory-motoric interactions with the external world. It is worth noting that these techniques are considered as new advancements that widened the scope of studies involved in the field of psycholinguistics. They promise a greater understanding of the connection between language and the brain.

3. The Goals and Scope of Psycholinguistics

As has been mentioned earlier, psycholinguistics explores the relationship between the human mind and language. It treats the language user as an individual rather than as a representative of a society. For Field (2003), psycholinguistics seeks to establish an understanding of the processes that underlie the system that is called language. Additionally, it aims to examine language as a product of the human mind and thus evidence of the way in

which human beings organise their thoughts and impose patterns upon their experiences.

Regarding these major goals of psycholinguistics, it is argued that the overall scopes of psycholinguistics concern answering questions such as:

- What knowledge of language is needed for individuals to use language? In precise terms, this knowledge could be tacit or explicit? Tacit knowledge answers the question “How to perform?” while explicit knowledge is about the process or mechanism that comes to interplay in the processes of language acquisition and production.
- What cognitive processes are involved in the ordinary stage of language processing?

In more elucidation of the scope of psycholinguistics, Field (2003) claims that psycholinguistics falls into three major areas: These are as follows:

3.1 Language Processing

It is precisely about what goes on when we are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It also concerns what stages we go through when engaging in these skills and how we manage to turn a grammatical structure into a piece of information.

3.2 Language Storage and Access

These aspects concern how vocabulary is stored in our minds. It is also about how we manage to find vocabulary when we need it and forms of grammar rules to take.

3.3 Comprehension

This process looks for the ways we use to bring world knowledge to bear upon new information that is presented to us. It also attempts to comprehend how we come to construct a global meaning representation from words that we hear or read.

4. Let us Practice!

4.1 Questions

Answer these questions:

1. How does linguistics differ from psycholinguistics?
2. What is the relationship between Language and Thought?
3. What are the basic principles mentioned in Skinner's "Verbal Behaviour"?
4. Why did Chomsky reject Skinner's "Verbal Behaviour" principles?
5. Why is Chomsky said to have shaped psycholinguistics as we know it today?

4.2 Activity

Read the quotation and answer the question.

"Psycholinguistics, as an academic discipline, came into vogue during the second half of the 20th century, starting from 1951. Initially, the inspiring works of a linguistic milestone, Zellig Harris, and his student, Noam Chomsky, later on, led to a major paradigm shift in understanding psycholinguistics".

State in what way Zellig Harris and Noam Chomsky contributed to the development of psycholinguistics.

University of Biskra

Level: 3rd Year

Section of English

Course: Linguistics

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI

Groups: All

In-Take Home Test (5)

PART ONE: Just Remember it!

Activity 1: Choose the best answer _____

- Psycholinguistics explores the _____ between mind and language.
 - difference
 - similarities
 - relationship
- Psycholinguistics is based on the assumption that that it is possible to make use of the _____ mechanisms to use language.
 - motivational
 - affective
 - cognitive
- Psycholinguistics explains how words and sentences are _____ in the mind.
 - interpreted
 - analysed
 - stored
- Psycholinguistics is _____ because it combines two disciplines that are linguistics and psychology.
 - overlapping
 - reductionist
 - cross-disciplinary

Activity 2: Decide whether these statements are **True** or **False** _____

- Psycholinguistics was first introduced by Nicholas Promko in 1936.
- Zellig Harris's book entitled "Methods in Structural Linguistics" contributed to psycholinguistics as we know it today.
- "Verbal Behaviour" implies that humans have the capacity to produce language.
- According to Chomsky, Generative Grammar is psychologically real.

a

b

c

d

Activity 3: Match the concepts with their respective definitions

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| 1. Ancient Traditions | a. claimed that introspection and consciousness should be overlooked. |
| 2. Empirical Studies | b. recognised that studies should measure reaction times, monitor eye movements, record babies' babblings, and focus on experimentations. |
| 3. The Behaviourist Era | c. argued that no amount of conditioned stimulus-response associations could explain the infinite productivity of language. |
| 4. The Chomskyan Influence | d. believed that the heart was the seat of the soul and the repository of memory. |

PART TWO: In-Between

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps

Psycholinguistics treats the language — **1** — as an individual rather than as a — **2** — of a society. It seeks to establish an — **3** — of the processes which — **4** — the system that is called language. It aims to explore the human mind | relation to language.

1	2	3	4

Activity 1: Briefly, answer the following questions

1. What are the scopes of psycholinguistics?

2. What areas in psycholinguistics are psycholinguists interested in?

PART THREE: In-Depth

Activity: Read and discuss the following statement _____

- “Language use is conditioned by a number of social structures.”

University of Biskra

Course: Linguistics

Section of English

Level: 3rd Year

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed C. Hoadjli

Groups: All

THEME SIX: Language Acquisition

Description and Rationale

This theme presents the process of language acquisition. Its aim is to explain how humans come to acquire their native (L1) language. In doing so, the theme discusses the implications of two major theories, which are behaviourism and cognitivism, in acquiring the L1 language.

Learning Objectives

After completing this theme, students should be able to:

- Understand the process of language acquisition.
- Identify the mechanisms involved in language acquisition.
- Demonstrate the tenets of the major approaches to language acquisition that are behaviourism and cognitivism.
- Get informed on how each one of these approaches explains the process of L1 acquisition.
- Distinguish between language acquisition and language learning.

Guiding Questions

1. What is meant by first language?
2. In what way is L1 different from L2?

3. What is the difference between acquisition and learning?
4. What are the basic assumptions of behaviourism?
5. What are the basic assumptions of cognitivism?
6. How do behaviourism and cognitivism explain the process of language acquisition?

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1. Demystifying the Terminology

In this section, relevant terminology to language acquisition is going to be elucidated. Such an elucidation is necessary to make clear enough the meaning of some fundamental concepts in order to avoid any sort of confusion or ambiguity.

1.1 First Language

According to the available literature on first language, it is claimed by many scholars, including Eric Lenneberg (1968) that a first language is the language any person acquires at an early age of his/her life within the critical period. According to this definition, infants who grow up in a bilingual environment could be able to have more than one first language. The term first language is also referred to as the mother tongue, native language, arterial language, or simply L1.

The term mother language/tongue should not be interpreted to mean that it is the language for one's mother. Mother, in this context, is originated from the use of "mother" to mean "origin". According to some literature, defining a mother language/tongue requires some criteria. Some of these are:

- **Based on origin:** The language(s) one acquires first in which one has established the first long-lasting verbal contact.
- **Based on internal identification:** The language(s) one identifies with/as a speaker of.
- **Based on external identification:** The language(s) one identifies with/as a speaker by others.
- **Based on competence:** The language(s) one knows best.
- **Based on function:** The language(s) one uses the most.

What is worth noting concerning the first language is that this language is part of a person's personal, social, and cultural identity. In many ways, this language is responsible for differentiating one's linguistic competence when acting.

1.2 Second Language

Unlike the native language/L1, a second language/L2 is any language a person learns after the first language/L1. Here, one should pay attention that two processes, on one hand, language acquisition, and on the other hand, learning bear different senses and therefore could not be used interchangeably. A classification of the difference between the two concepts will be presented in 1.4 further.

According to some scholars, the defining difference between a first language/L1 and a second language/L2 is the age the person has acquired or learnt the language. For instance, Lenneberg (1968) viewed that a second language is used to mean a language consciously learnt or used by its speakers after the critical age. It is clear that these speakers never achieve the same level of fluency or comprehension in this second language as in their first language.

A second language may also be referred to as a target language. A target language is a language that is the focus or end result of certain processes:

- In pedagogy, a target language refers to any language that learners are trying to learn in addition to their native language.
- In translation, a target language is applied to the language that a source text is being translated into.
- In hard sciences, a target language is the language that a compiler, for instance a computer, translates source code into.

1.3 Foreign Language

In the available literature, it is claimed that a distinction between a second language and a foreign language should be made. The distinction is said to be of a pedagogical interpretation. Generally, a foreign language is learnt for use in the area where that language is spoken. For example, English in countries such as India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, the Scandinavian countries can be considered for many of its speakers a second language. They speak it frequently and use

it regularly. Whereas, in Algeria, this language is regarded to be a foreign language. This is seen to be so due to the lack of a number of characteristics, such as historical heritage, media, and opportunities for use, similar vocabulary, and common script.

1.4 Acquisition Vs. Learning

Stephen Krashen (1982) in his Monitor Hypothesis Theory first made the distinction between acquisition and learning. According to him, the acquisition of a language is a natural process. On the other side, learning is conscious. In the former, the person needs to partake in a natural communicative situation. In the latter, error correction is present, as in an instructional environment. However, it is worth mentioning that not all scholars agree on this distinction.

1.5 Similarities and Differences between a First Language/L1 and a Second Language/L2

The similarities and differences between a first language/L1 and a second language/L2 could be summarised in the following:

- **Speed:** Learning a second language could be a lifelong process for many L2 learners. Despite their continuous efforts, most learners of a second language will never become fully native-like in it.
- **Stages:** Learning a second language occurs in a systematic way and through systematic stages. In acquiring an L1, these stages are also present but never appear because they overlap and a person never feels that these stages are present.
- **Success:** Success is usually evaluated in two ways, likelihood and quality. For first language acquirers, these two ways are usually present and successful. However, for second language learners, success is not obviously guaranteed.

2. The Behavioural Approach

2.1 Background

Behaviourism began its rise to become the leading approach in psychology during the first half of the twentieth century. The essence of the theories that explained the tenets of this

trend turned around the role of environmental events in shaping human behaviours. Mental processes are not necessary to explain the acquisition, maintenance, and generalisation of behaviour.

The works of three psychologists, Ivan Pavlov, John B. Watson, and Burrhus F. Skinner came to shape the fundamental assumptions that explain the **conditioning** theories.

- **Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936):** a Russian physiologist known primarily for his work in classical conditioning. He developed an experiment testing the concept of the conditioned reflex. This was known as Pavlov's dog theory.
- **John B. Watson (1878-1958):** an American psychologist who codified and publicised behaviourism. He founded classical behaviourism in which he treated both animal and human behaviour as the conditioned response of an organism to environmental stimuli.
- **Burrhus F. Skinner (1904-1990):** an American psychologist and an influential exponent of behaviourism. He saw human action as dependant on consequences of previous actions. His view articulated the principle of reinforcement. By this, he introduced the concept of **Operant Conditioning**.

The works of these psychologists helped to establish a legitimate area of study. In more explicit terms, their contributions are presented in the following summary.

- Pavlov demonstrated experimentally how stimuli would be conditioned to elicit responses by being paired with other stimuli. By this, Pavlov developed the concept of **Classical Conditioning**. This concept consisted of the idea that an unconditioned stimulus (e.g., Food) produces an unconditioned response (salivation). When presented together with a conditioned stimulus (e.g., Bell), such that salivation is eventually produced on the presentation of the conditioned stimulus, they become a conditioned response.

- Watson extended classical conditioning to concern even humans. This main contribution is that he saw behaviour in what we can see and therefore behaviour is what should be studied. According to Watson, psychology, as the behaviourist views, is a purely objective experimental branch of natural sciences. Its goal is to predict and control behaviour. Introspection forms no essential parts of its methods.
- Skinner introduced the concept of **Operant Conditioning**. In operant conditioning, the emphasis on behaviour and its consequences must respond to such a way to produce the reinforcing stimulus. The principle of operant conditioning applies to a variety of situations. To modify behaviour, one needs only to find something that is reinforcing for the organism whose behaviour one wishes to modify, wait until the desired behaviour occurs, and then immediately reinforces the mechanism.

2.2 Key concepts

a. Classical Conditioning. Watson believed that all individuals have differences in behaviour. These are due to different experiences. He thought that behaviour's conditioning model was appropriate for building the science of human behaviour. He also believed that behaviour's model could be extended to account for the diverse focus of developing behaviour and personality characteristics. He gave an example on this assumption: "Give me a dozen healthy infants, well-formed, and my own specified world to bring them up in and I'll guarantee to take any one at random and train him to become any type of specialist I might select — doctor, lawyer, artist, merchant-chief and, yes, even beggar-man and thief, regardless of his talents, penchants, tendencies, abilities, vocations, and race of his ancestors".

b. Operant Conditioning. Skinner believed that the behaviour which is reinforced tends to be repeated and hence strengthened; whereas, a behaviour that is not reinforced tends to die out or to extinguish. Skinner defined three types of responses or operant that can follow behaviour:

- **Neutral Operant:** Responses from the environment that neither increase nor decrease the probability of behaviour being repeated.
- **Reinforces:** Responses from the environment that increase or decrease behaviour being repeated. Reinforces can be either positive or negative.
- **Punishers:** Responses from the environment that decrease the behaviour being repeated. Punishment weakens behaviour.

c. Objective Measurement. It refers to procedures when doing experiments. It concerns how to collect the required data. Some characteristics of objective measurement are:

- **Objectivity:** It means all sources of bias should be minimised or even eliminated. The same is for personal appreciations, impressions, and subjectivity.
- **Control:** In an experiment, all variables need to be controlled in order to establish cause and effect.
- **Predictability:** An experimenter is expected to predict future behaviour from the findings of research.
- **Hypothesis Testing:** An experiment often formulates hypothesis —tentative answers to the raised questions— and seeks to confirm or disconfirm these hypotheses through testing.
- **Replication:** This refers to whether a particular method and finding can be repeated with different/same people on different occasions to see whether the results are similar.

2.3 Basic Assumptions of Behaviourism

- Behaviourism is primarily concerned with observable behaviour: This implies that all mental processes should be overlooked from any investigation because this approach/theory claims that internal mechanisms like thinking and intelligence cannot be objectively measured and quantified.
- People have no free will: Behaviourists believed that free will is an illusion. According to their view, humans are shaped entirely by their external environment.
- When born, humans are born with a “Tabula Rasa”. Behaviourists saw the human mind as a white sheet. It is to be filled in with language via the process of exposure to the surrounding world. Accordingly, infants acquire their native language from the exposure to the people with whom they are in contact.
- Behaviour is the result of stimulus-response: All behaviour, including language, is reduced to a simple stimulus-response association.

2.4 Methodology

Regarding the methodology adopted by investigators/experimenters, behaviourisms tended to rely on experimentation. This methodology allowed for detailed study and analysis of behaviour and usually sought to end with new behavioural laws. Examples of famous experiments that were held by behaviourists are:

- **The “Little Albert” Experiment:** It was held by Watson and Rayner (1920). This experiment consisted of conditioning a young child to fear cats.
- **The “Skinner Box” Experiment:** It was carried out by Skinner. The latter trained pigeons to press a lever to get food.
- **The “Dog” Experiment:** It was realised by Pavlov. He came to the conclusion that there is an association between an unconditioned stimulus and an unconditioned response (i.e., food → salivation).

2.5 An Evaluation of the Behavioural Approach

- **Strengths:**
 - Very scientific;
 - Highly applicable;
 - Emphasised objective measurement; and
 - Supported by experiment and relied on theories.
- **Weaknesses:**
 - Ignored the biological make-up of humans;
 - Too deterministic;
 - Over-emphasised experimentation;
 - Relied on artificial environments; and
 - Neglected the influence of the mind on behaviour.

2.6 Implications of the Behavioural Approach to our First Language Acquisition

The behavioural approach considers the first language acquisition a matter of the establishment of habits because of the two processes that are reinforcement and reward. According to behaviourists, the baby obtains native language habits via varied babblings that resemble the appropriate words repeated by a person or object near it. Since these babblings and mutterings are repeated, they are rewarded. Obviously, this reward reinforces further articulations of the same sort into groupings of syllables and words in a similar way.

Further, the baby goes on emitting sounds, and as it groups up and combines the sentences through generalisations and analogy (for example a baby, at an early stage of its life, often says “goed” for “went”; “doed” for “did”, and so on), which are some complicated cases, condition it to commit errors by articulating in permissible sentences in speech.

By the age of five or six, babblings and mutterings grow into socialised speech. Little by little, they are internalised as implicit speech, and thus many of their utterances become

indistinguishable from the adults.

In brief, according to behaviourism, the process of acquiring our first language is a theory of **Stimulus-Response** psychology. Through which, a **Trial-Error** process, in which acceptable utterances are reinforced by comprehension and approval and unacceptable utterances are inhibited by the lack of reward.

2.7 Limitations of the Behavioural Approach to Language Acquisitions

While there must be some truth in the behavioural approach to our first language acquisition, there are many objections to it. Elucidation of some weaknesses of the behavioural approach are presented in what follows:

- Language is based on a set of structures and ruled, which could not be worked out simply by imitating individual utterances. The mistakes made by children reveal that they are not simply imitating but actively working out and applying rules.
- Children are often unable to repeat what an adult says, especially if the adult utterances contain a structure that the child has not yet started to use. An example could be the one elicited by the American psychologist David McNeill. The example concerns the structure that uses negating verbs:

Child: Nobody don't like me.

Mother: no, say, "Nobody likes me".

Child: Nobody don't like me.

(This answer was repeated eight times).

Mother: No. Now, listen carefully! Say, "Nobody likes me".

Child: Oh! Nobody don't likes me.

(McNeill, 1966).

- Few children receive much explicit grammatical correction. Parents are more interested in politeness and truthfulness. According to Brown, Gazden, and Bellugi (1969),

It seems to be truth value rather than well-formed syntax that chiefly governs explicit verbal reinforcement by parents - which renders mildly paradoxical the fact that the usual product of such a training schedule is an adult whose speech is highly grammatical but not notably truthful (As cited in Lowe & Graham, 1988, n.p.).

- There is evidence for a Critical Age Period (CAP) for language acquisition. This simply means that the children who have not acquired language by the age of about seven will never entirely catch up. The most famous example is that of Genie, discovered in 1970 at the age of 13. She had been severely neglected, brought up in isolation, and deprived of normal human contact. Certainly, she was disturbed and underdeveloped in many ways. During subsequent attempts to recover her, despite some success, mainly in learning vocabulary, she never became a fluent speaker. She failed to acquire the language of a child of five years old.

3. The Cognitive Approach

3.1 Background

The cognitive approach came as a reaction to behaviourism in the second half of the 20th century. In reaction to behaviourism, cognitivists regarded people not as “programmed animals” that simply respond to environmental stimuli. Rather, they viewed people as “rational” beings that acquire active participation in order to acquire language. The actions of these people are a consequence of “thinking”. Changes in behaviour are observed but as an indication of what is occurring in one’s “head”.

Therefore, cognitivism focuses on the “inner mental processes/capacities”. For cognitivists, what occurs in a person’s mind —The black Box— is necessary to understand people’s behaviours. This approach to psychology emphasises that cognition is a “faculty” for the processing of “information”, “applying knowledge”, and “changing preferences”.

3.2 Basic Concepts

Cognitivism focuses on the “mental processes/activities” of the central nervous system. Mental processes, mental activities, mental functions, or mental mechanisms are terms often used interchangeably for all things individuals do with their minds. Examples of mental processes concern:

- **Perception:** It is the organisation, identification, and interpretation of sensory information in order to understand the environment.
- **Introspection:** It is the process by which one examines his/her own conscious thoughts and feelings. This process relies on the observation of one’s mental state.
- **Memory:** Information is encoded, stored, and retrieved by the process.
 - **Encoding (also registration):** Receiving, processing, and combining the received information.
 - **Storage:** The creation of a permanent record of encoded information.
 - **Retrieval (also referred to as a recall or recollection):** Calling back the stored information in response to some use, for some use in a process or activity.
- **Creativity:** It is a phenomenon whereby something new is created.
- **Imagination:** It is the faculty and ability to form new images and sensations that are not perceived by sight, hearing, or other senses.
- **Idea:** It is construed as a mental representational image.
- **Belief:** It is the psychological state in which an individual holds a promise to be true.
- **Reason:** It is the capacity for consciously making sense of things, applying logic, establishing and verifying facts, and changing, or justifying practices and beliefs based on new or existing information.
- **Will/Volition:** An individual decides on and commits to a particular action or cause by the cognitive process. It is defined as purposive striving and is one of the primary

human psychological functions.

- **Emotion:** It is a subjective, conscious experience characterised primarily by psychological expressions, biological reactions, and mental states. Emotion is often associated and considered reciprocally influential with mood, temperament, personality, disposition, and motivation.

3.3 Basic Assumptions of the Cognitive Approach

- Cognitivists assume that behaviour is the result of “information processing”. By describing thinking as information processing, cognitivists make a comparison between minds and computers. In other words, they are adopting a computer metaphor for the mind. Both of them have inputs, outputs, memory stores, and a limited capacity for how much information they can process at any one time.
- Central to the cognitive approach, the idea is that people actively try to make sense of their environment by imposing order and meaning on the things they encounter. In precise terms, the cognitive explanations of behaviour turn around the ways in which people organise and process information relevant to particular ways of acting.

Cognitivists explain this process in terms of “schemes” driven processing. Schemes are ways of organising knowledge and experiences of the world into generic “templates” that are used to make sense of objects, situations, and the people we encounter. In doing so, cognitivists try to build models of the information processing that goes inside people’s minds. One of the aims of cognitivists is to clearly specify all the different information processing modules in the human mind in terms of their features and in their relationships with each other.

3.4 Methodology

- Cognitivism follows behaviourism in using objective, controlled, and scientific methods to investigate human behaviour. That is they rely on the results of their investigations to make inferences about mental processes.

- One example of this is that cognitivists involve conducting case studies of people with brain damage. They compare their performance on mental tasks with that of uninjured people to understand which parts of the brain are used to process which sort of information.
- In other cases, cognitivists involve manipulating either the information to people (inputs) at the ways it (processes) and seeing what effects this has on some aspects of behaviour (outputs).

3.5 An Evaluation of the Cognitive Approach

- Cognitivism emphasises on scientific methods.
- Cognitivism addresses the shortcomings of behaviourism. It offers a much better-developed account of the internal processes that shape behaviour.
- However, it is argued that, as a criticism of cognitivism, this approach to psychology over-emphasises on the computer metaphor and neglects the influence of emotions, which computers lack, on thinking and behaviour.
- An additional criticism is that the reliance on the idealised description of information processing usually ignores the variation between people in how they think and act.

3.6 Implications of the Cognitive Approach to Language Acquisition

- Chomsky, the founder of the mentalist theory, made an attack on the idea and concepts established by B. F. Skinner's behaviourist approach.
- Chomsky's principal criticism of behaviouristic language acquisition is based on the argument that language acquisition explanation of how humans come to acquire their first language cannot account for the development and acquisition of language. This argumentation owns to the following reasons:
 - Language acquisition is not a habit structure. It is of inborn nature. It is innately developed through the language acquisition device (LAD).

- The linguistic behaviour is not composed of responses to stimuli. The stimulus-response is nonsense because a child often uses his/her mental capacities to acquire language.
- According to Chomsky, LAD is unique to humans. This capacity cannot have been acquired socially. It must be innate. In this respect, social factors have no function in acquiring one's first language.
- Children often repeat the words and structures of their parents but in many cases, children's language indicates systematic departures from the language used by their parents. This implies that children produce their own language.

3.7 Limitations of the cognitive Approach to Language Acquisition

Like the behavioural approach, the cognitive approach presents some limitations.

Examples of these are as follows:

- Language acquisition is of totally inborn nature nor is it just a matter of biological make-up.
- The use of imitation cannot be totally denied or eliminated. Imitation and repetition do exist in language acquisition. Of course, they are not the main factors that lead to language acquisition.

4. Let us Practice!

4.1 Questions

Briefly, answer these questions.

- How does behaviourism impact language acquisition?
- What basic principles of the behavioural approach explain the language acquisition process?
- How does cognitivism impact language acquisition?
- What basic principles of the cognitive approach explain the language acquisition process?

process?

- Based on behaviourism and cognitivism, which factors influence language acquisition?

4.2 Activity

Read this statement and then answer the question:

“Cognitivism rejects an exclusive focus on what is observable. It considers the extent to which we understand, how the mind processes information, and how that information is represented”. -**Explain**

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Level: 3rd Year

Section of English

Course: Linguistics

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed Chaouki HOADJLI

Groups: All

In-Take Home Test (6)

PART ONE: Just Remember it!

Activity 1: Choose the best answer _____

1. Behaviourism began its rise in the _____ of the twentieth century.
 - a. 1950s
 - b. 1930s
 - c. first half
2. Watson believed that all individuals have _____ in behaviour.
 - a. similarities
 - b. differences
 - c. mechanisms
3. Behaviourists believed that free will is a/an _____.
 - a. reality
 - b. fact
 - c. illusion
4. The behavioural approach considers first language acquisition a matter of the establishment of _____.
 - a. reinforcement
 - b. habits
 - c. response

Activity 2: Decide whether these statements are **True** or **False** _____

- a. The cognitive approach to language acquisition ignored the biological make-up of humans.
- b. Introspection is the process by which one examines his/her own thoughts and feelings.
- c. Cognitivism emphasises scientific methods.
- d. According to Chomsky, humans are predisposed to acquire their mother tongue.

a

b

c

d

Activity 3: Match the concepts with their respective definitions

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1. Replication | a. Responses from the environment that neither increase nor decrease the probability of behaviour being repeated. |
| 2. Reinforcers | b. It refers to whether a particular method and finding can be repeated with different/the same people on different occasions. |
| 3. Classical Conditioning | c. Responses from the environment that increase or decrease behaviour being repeated. They can be either positive or negative. |
| 4. Neutral Operant | d. It consisted in the idea that an unconditioned stimulus produces an unconditioned response. |

PART TWO: In-Between

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps

According to behaviourism, the process of acquiring our first language is a theory of **1** psychology. It is based on the **2** process in which **3** language is reinforced through reward. Whereas, **4** language is eliminated through punishment.

1	2	3	4

Activity 1: Briefly, answer the following questions

1. What are the similarities between a first language and a second language?

2. In what way was the behavioural approach to language acquisition criticised?

PART THREE: In-Depth

Activity: Read and discuss the following statement _____

- “What are the similarities between a first language and a second language?”

University of Biskra

Course: Linguistics

Section of English

Level: 3rd Year

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed C. Hoadjli

Groups: All

THEME SEVEN: Language Comprehension

Description and Rationale

This theme presents fundamental assumptions about language comprehension. Its main aim is to examine language comprehension as a psycholinguistic process. In more explicit terms, it attempts to elucidate how language (both spoken and written) is perceived and what cognitive mechanisms interplay to make it understood.

Learning Objectives

After completing this theme, students should be able to:

- Understand the process of language comprehension.
- Decipher the cognitive mechanisms underlying language comprehension.
- Explain how information is integrated into the already existing one.
- Identify what factors affect the comprehension ability.
- Display the cognitive architecture supporting language comprehension.

Guiding Questions

1. What is meant by language comprehension?
2. Regarding language comprehension, are all words, or word meanings, equally likely to be retrieved?
3. Which type of information (phonological, grammatical, semantic) is used first?
4. What are the cognitive processes people use to correct themselves?
5. How is the brain managing mental tasks related to language comprehension?

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1. Language Comprehension: A Brief Introduction

Language comprehension is one of the most important tasks humans perform. Yet, it is also one of the most complex, requiring the simultaneous integration of many different types of information, such as knowledge about letters and their sounds, spelling, grammar, and general knowledge. It is argued that language comprehension uses general cognitive abilities, such as attention monitoring, inferencing and memory retrieval. The latter are usually used to organise information into a single meaningful representation (Understanding the mechanisms of language comprehension, 2016).

For the most part, we take the ability to accomplish this task for granted. People do not even consider and are not aware of the complexity of this process. If this process is to be realised, it is thanks to a certain organ in our bodies, the BRAIN. In addition to many important functions, the brain is at the heart of language realisation in general and language comprehension in particular. Without the role of the brain, humans cannot be able to use language and therefore communicate.

In this respect, it is dire to shed some light on this organ and attempt to explain how it processes language; and more importantly, it is very crucial to understand how the brain enables us to comprehend language, both spoken and written.

2. Language Comprehension: A Short Historical Account on the Study of the Brain

Lise Menn (2017), in her seminal book, entitled “Psycholinguistics: Introduction and Application”, provides a thorough historical account and description of how humans throughout history have realised the great importance and role of the brain for thinking. In this book, the author advocates that western medicine took many centuries to figure out that the brain is used for thinking and several more centuries to have anything to do with ideas, dreams, and feelings.

According to this author, the first people and civilisation who gave humanity a written document that told us that the brain had something to do with language were the ancient Egyptians. This document was called the Edwin Smith Papyrus. It describes a head-injured man who became speechless when pressure was applied to the area of injury. Despite this evidence, the Egyptians still thought that it was the heart and not the brain that controlled our ability to think and move our bodies. About two centuries later, Hippocrates and his colleagues got it right. In another book called “Corpus Hippocraticum”, there are accounts of speech loss after brain injury, even associating these injuries with a paralysis of the right side of the body, something we still see in people with language disorders after a brain injury.

After about two millennia later, Franz Joseph Gall in the late 1800s started a theory he called Organology. He recalled that as a child, he was impressed by a friend’s ability to articulate and memorise verbal material. For Gall, his observation of many phenomena led him to conclude that in the brain, there are areas responsible for many functions. In other words, he gave us the idea that different areas of the brain might specialise in different functions. This idea, called for localisation of function, is still valid for some of our abilities (Lise, 2017, pp. 72-74).

3. A Brief Review of the Brain’s Anatomy

In this section, we shall present and describe the brain’s anatomy. It is worth mentioning that most of the information included in this section is common knowledge. This means that these pieces of information are available in the same way in different sources. Because our aim, as stated before, is to inform our students about the brain’s anatomy, almost all of the information was retrieved from a webpage titled “Brain Anatomy and How the Brain Works” (<https://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/health/conditions-and-diseases/anatomy-of-the-brain>).

The brain is a complex organ that controls thought, memory, emotion, touch, motor skills, vision, breathing, temperature, hunger, and every process that regulates our body.

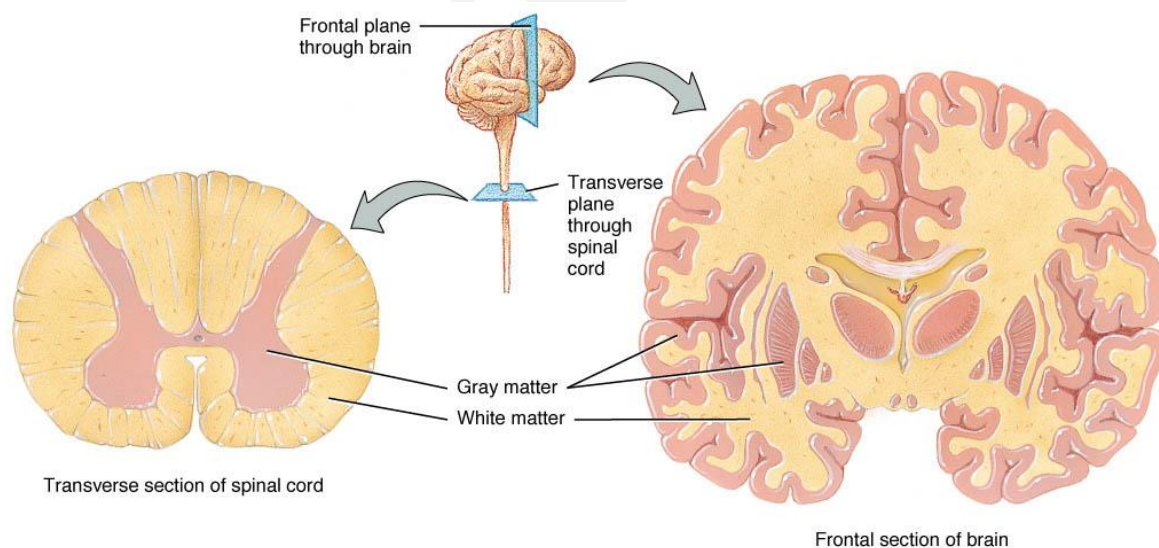
Together and with the spinal cord that extends from it, they make up the central nervous system, or as it is often referred to as CNS.

Weighing about 1400 grams in the average adult, the brain is about 60% fat. The remaining 40% is a combination of water, protein, carbohydrates, and salts. The brain itself is not a muscle. In the brain, grey matter refers to the darker, outer portion of the brain, while white matter describes the lighter, inner section underneath. The distinction between the grey and white matters is shown in Figure 1 below.

In the spinal cord, this order is reversed: the white matter is on the outside, and the grey matter sits within. Grey matter is primarily composed of neuro somas (the round central cell bodies), and the white matter is mostly made of axons (the long stems that connect nerves together) wrapped in myelin (a protective coating). The distinction of the location of the grey matter and white matter between the brain and the spinal cord is shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1.

A diagram of the human brain and the spinal cord, by Mandira (2017)



According to the anatomy of the brain, the brain can be divided into three parts. These are the cerebrum, brainstem, and cerebellum (see Figure 2). In what follows, we shall describe these parts with some details so that we could realise how complex and important is the human brain.

A. The Cerebrum (Front of the Brain)

It comprises grey matter (the cerebral cortex) and white matter at its centre. The largest part of the brain, the cerebrum initiates and coordinates movement and regulates temperature.

- **The Cerebral Cortex:** The cerebral cortex describes the outer grey matter covering the cerebrum. The central cortex is divided into two halves, or hemispheres. The two halves join at a large, deep sulcus (the inter-hemispheric fissure, also known as the medial longitudinal fissure) that runs from the front of the head to the back.

The right hemisphere controls the left side of the body. The two halves communicate with one another through a large C-shaped structure of white matter and nerve pathways called the corpus callosum. The corpus callosum is in the centre of the cerebrum.

B. The Brainstem (Middle of the Brain)

The brainstem includes the midbrain, the pons, and the medulla.

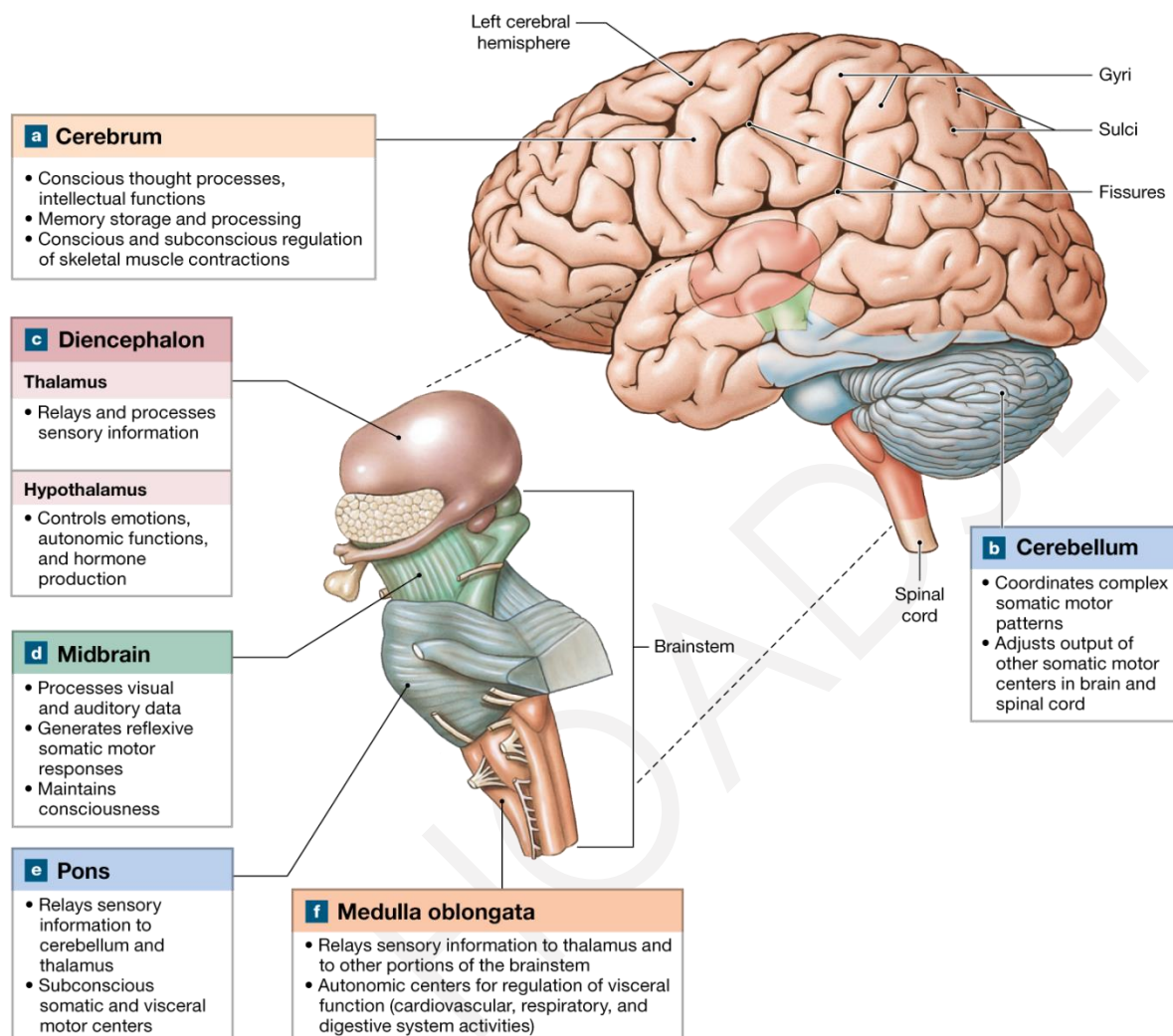
- **Midbrain:** It is a very complex structure with a range of different neurons.
- **Pons:** The pons is the connection between the midbrain and the medulla.
- **Medulla:** It is located at the bottom of the brainstem. It is where the brain meets the spinal cord.

C. The Cerebellum (Little Brain)

It is a fist-sized portion of the brain located at the back of the head, below the temporal and occipital lobes and above the brainstem.

Figure 2.

The major parts of the brain, by Pearson (n.a.)

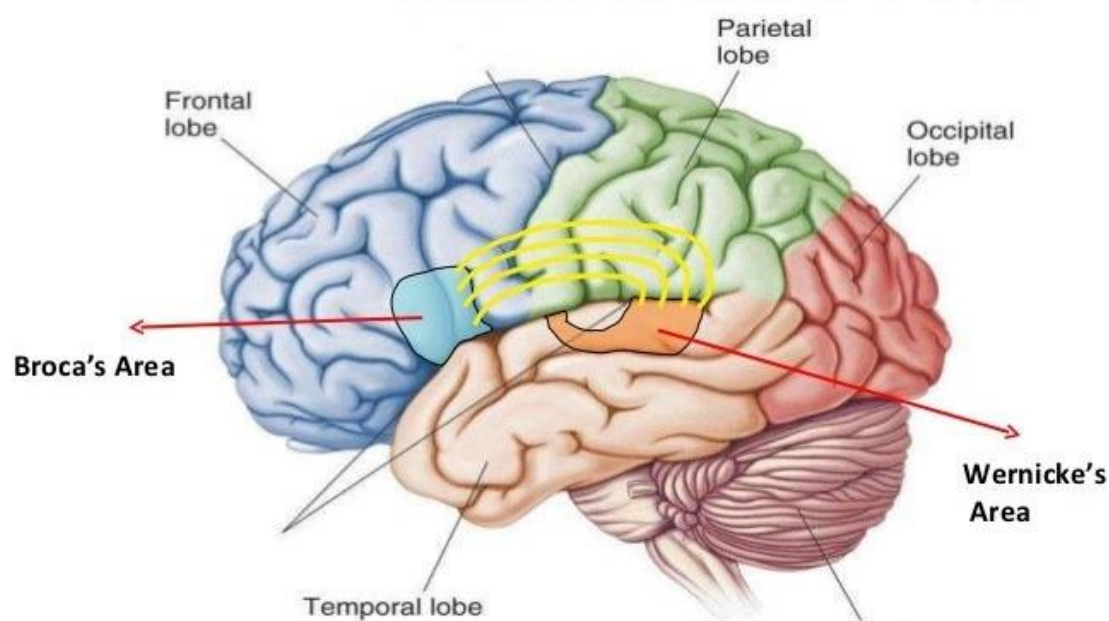


▪ **Lobes:** Each brain hemisphere has four sections, called lobes: frontal, parietal, temporal and occipital lobes. Each lobe controls specific functions:

- **Frontal lobe:** It is the largest lobe of the brain.
- **Occipital lobe:** The occipital lobe is the back part of the brain.
- **Temporal lobe:** The sides of the brain, temporal lobes are involved in short-term memory, speech, and some degree of smell recognition (Brain Anatomy and How the Brain Works <https://www.hopkinsmedicine.org/health/conditions-and-diseases/anatomy-of-the-brain>). Check Figure 3 below for a clear depiction of these three lobes.

Figure 3.

A diagram of the brain lobes, by Borba (2011)

**4. Language and the Brain**

Without the brain, there would be no language. There is strong evidence that there is a correlation between a person's brain and language. The main language centres are located in the hemispheres. These are the Broca's area, in the front part of the brain, Wernicke's area, towards the back, and the angular gyrus, which is even further back. Broca's area and Wernicke's area are connected by tissue, referred to as the arcuate fasciculus. These are not found in the right hemisphere. It is claimed that it is only the left hemisphere that is used for speaking and writing.

In what is coming, a brief description of language areas and their functions are going to be presented:

- The front part of the parietal lobe, along the fissure of Rolando, is primarily involved in the processing of sensation.
- The area in front of the fissure of Rolando is mainly involved in monitor functioning and is thus relevant to the study of speaking and writing.
- An area in the upper part of the temporal lobe, extending upwards into the parietal lobe,

plays a major part in the comprehension of speech. This is “Wernicke’s area”.

- In the upper part of the temporal lobe is the main area involved in auditory reception, known as “Heschl’s gyrus”, after the Austrian pathologist R. H. Heschl (1824-1881).
- The lower back part of the frontal lobe is primarily involved in the encoding of speech. This is “Broca’s area”.
- Another area towards the back of the frontal lobe may be involved in the motor control of writing. It is known as “Exner’s centre”, after the German neurologist Sigmund Exner (1846-1926).
- Part of the left parietal region, close to Wernicke’s area, is involved with the control of manual signing.
- The area at the back of the occipital lobe is used mainly for the processing of visual input.

Research has shown that the Broca’s area is connected with Wernicke’s area by the arcuate fasciculus. Moreover, some of the neural pathways that are considered to be involved in the processing of spoken language are:

- **Speech production:** The brain structure of the utterances is thought to be generated in Wernicke’s area and is sent to the Broca’s area for encoding.
- **Reading aloud:** The written form is first received by the visual cortex, then transmitted via angular gyrus to Wernicke’s area, where it is thought to be associated with the auditory representation. The utterance structure is then sent on to Broca’s area.
- **Speech comprehension:** The signals arrive in the auditory cortex from the ear, and are transferred to the adjacent Wernicke’s area, where they are interpreted.

Overall, although most language processes occur in Broca’s area, Wernicke’s area and the angular gyrus, some language functioning does occur in the right, “non-language”, hemisphere (Psycholinguistics: Language and the Brain, 2010).

5. Language Comprehension: Understanding the Mechanisms

Language comprehension is a complex process. It involves a number of abilities, skills, processes, knowledge and dispositions from which meaning can be derived. It concerned more with recognising and producing words and understanding and creating sentences. Although language comprehension is accomplished easily and effortlessly, it is a complex process, requiring the interplay of a variety of cognitive mechanisms. As such, language comprehension is interwoven with core cognitive abilities, which show multidirectional patterns of change as a function of both primary aging processes and experience (Steen & Stine-Morrow, 2016).

Given that, the main focus in language comprehension concerns how people represent and make use of the meaning of words and sentences, and how they decode the communicative purpose of linguistic elements, and how memory is involved in this decoding (Hatzidaki, 2007). For Hatzidaki, prior to presenting the main issues that are relevant to the comprehension of meaning, it is worth distinguishing between two concepts: a word's denotation and a word's connotation. The former refers to the actual meaning of a word (what is usually provided as a first meaning in a dictionary), and the latter refers to associations people make in reference to the cultural and contextual background where this word operates.

In the literature, for other scholars, language comprehension concerns how we understand the meaning of words, phrases, clauses, sentences, or discourse we listen to or read. For a great deal of these scholars, language comprehension cannot be separated from its specific components. On this point, Indah and Abdurrahman (2008) summarise these components in the following:

- **Speech processing:** It is about the segmentation and classification of the incoming sensory input. Speech processing covers the construction of these sensory inputs. The latter are represented in the form of speech signals and are perceived as being made up of distinct units in the mind of the speaker.

- **Lexical processing:** It concerns the recognition of individual words and the access of individual words and the access to the different types of information associated with them.
- **Sentential processing:** It deals with the extraction and combination of syntactic information of individual words and their order to construct a syntactic representation and knowledge to arrive at a sentence interpretation. In the sentential processing, three components of sentence comprehension will be parsed. These are: (1) extracting the syntactic structure and semantic representation of a sentence; (2) interpreting the representation of the preceding linguistic context; and (3) retaining the relevant information in the long-term memory.
- **Discourse processing:** It is about the integration of the interpretation and successive sentences to create a discourse representation. In discourse processing, the listener attempts to understand discourse and draw inferences to get the meaning of what the speaker intends to convey (Indah & Abdurrahman, 2008).

In the same vein, Hatzidraki (2007) provides another description and classification of the process of language comprehension. This author focuses more on how people represent and make use of the literal and figurative meaning of words and sentences, how these are decoded, and finally how they are memorised. In precise terms, Hatzidaki (2007) suggests this classification:

1. **Representation of the meaning of words:** It mainly deals with how words are represented in our minds. Hatzidaki (2007) refers to Putman (1975) who provided the Reference Theory of Meaning. According to Putman, the essence of this theory is that a word's meaning is usually equated to the meaning of this word in the world.
2. **Comprehension of word combinations:** It is about how comprehension is achieved when two words are put together and how people could understand word combinations.

To answer these questions, Hatzidaki (2007), based on the available literature, advocates that people's interpretations of word combinations may rely on a number of linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. Examples of these include (1) thematic relation, (2) property link, (3) hybridisation, and (4) past experience.

3. **Sentence comprehension:** It concerns the psycholinguistic perspective on how people represent meaning at a larger unit of language representation. For Hatzidaki (2007), in order to be able to understand the structure of a sentence, people have to combine different sources of information in relation to language constituents. In his words, these people have to be able to retrieve:

- the semantic representation of each lexical item in a sentence;
- the grammatical items they can combine with;
- the syntactic information about items they can combine with; and
- the kind of dependencies they can form. The author concludes that the precise meaning that is assigned to a sentence is highly correlated with the discourse environment with which a sentence is presented.

4. **Sentence comprehension during figurative meaning processing:** It concerns language processing when the meaning of an utterance goes beyond that of common use. To have a better understanding of sentence comprehension, Hatzidaki (2007) refers to Hawley (2005) who proposed three types of figurative speech. In Hawley's words, they are expressed in the following:

- Metaphors;
- Idioms; and
- Indirect requests. In Hawley's terms, a metaphorical expression comprises smiles (whereby one thing is linked to another of a different category); strict metaphor (namely, a single use of metaphor); and synecdoche (whereby a part is substituted for

a whole or a whole for a part).

For idioms, Hawley adds that they are combinations of words that, when considered as a whole, are different in meaning regarding the meaning suggested by the individual words. For the same author, it is assumed that these words are represented and stored in memory as a single word. Furthermore, as for requests, whereby the speaker does not know his/her interlocutor whether s/he is physically able to perform a particular task and whether he is willing to do so, people appear to rely heavily on inferences. By drawing inferences, people attempt to construct a coherent meaning of discourse, either by being guided by the actual meaning of words, or by combining the words together.

5. **Text comprehension:** In text comprehension, we are concerned with the way sentences are combined to construct a representation in order to decode the text's communicative purpose. In this respect, like in sentence comprehension, text comprehension involves an inferential activity. This simply means that the information from both the text and the reader is used to build up meaningful representations.

Hatzidaki (2007) refers to the Processing Cycle Theory to yield an explanation about how people process when they are confronted with texts. According to this theory, a text representation is constructed by integrating each sentence representation into the context that has been formulated by the preceding sentences. In doing so, whenever a sentence occurs and ideas are recognized, new relationships have to be established to include new information (Hatzidaki, 2007, pp. 15-18).

6. Let us Practice!

6.1 Questions

Read the below questions and answer them.

- How would you describe the main parts of the brain?

- What parts of the brain are responsible for language?
- What are the primary structures of neurons and what are their functions?
- How meaning is represented and processed in the mind in reference to a word, a sentence, and a text?

6.2 Activity

Read this statement and answer the question.

“Language comprehension is a complex process. It involves a number of abilities, skills, knowledge, and dispositions from which meaning can be derived” -**Explain**

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In-Take Home Test (7)

PART ONE: Just Remember it!

Activity 1: Choose the best answer _____

1. The first people who gave humanity a written document about the study of the brain were the ancient _____.

a. Chinese

b. Greeks

c. Egyptians

2. In the late 1800s, Gall started a _____ he called Organology.

a. book

b. theory

c. paper

3. Weighing about 1400 grams in the average adult, the brain is about _____ fat.

a. 70%

b. 60%

c. 50%

4. it is claimed that it is only the _____ hemisphere that is used for speaking and writing.

a. right

b. centre

c. left

Activity 2: Decide whether these statements are **True** or **False** _____

a. Without the role of the brain, humans cannot be able to use language.

b. Broca's area and Wernicke's area are connected by tissue.

c. It is assumed that words are represented and stored in memory collectively.

d. Language comprehension requires efforts and energy.

a

b

c

d

Activity 3: Match the concepts with their respective definitions

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 1. Speech processing | a. It concerns the recognition of individual words. |
| 2. Lexical processing | b. It is about the integration of interpretation to create a discourse representation. |
| 3. Sentential processing | c. It deals with the extraction and combination of syntactic information. |
| 4. Discourse processing | d. It is about the segmentation and classification of the incoming sensory input. |

PART TWO: In-Between

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps

Language — **1** — is a complex process. It — **2** — a number of abilities, processes, skills, and dispositions from which — **3** — can be — **4** —. It is concerned more with the recognition and production of words.

1

2

3

4

Activity 1: Briefly, answer the following questions

1. What is the focus of language comprehension?

2. How do people process when they are confronted with texts?

PART THREE: In-Depth**Activity:** Read and discuss the following statement _____

- “For most part, we take the ability to accomplish language comprehension for granted. If this process is to be realized, it is thanks to the brain.”

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Section of English

Level: 3rd Year

Lecturer: Dr. Ahmed C. Hoadjli

Groups: All

THEME EIGHT: Language Production

Description and Rationale

This theme covers basic assumptions related to language production. Its aim is to elucidate the cognitive mechanisms by which the process of language production occurs. Simply put, it explores how the stages involved in language production from the initial mental aspect to the spoken or written linguistic forms take place. In brief, it attempts to explain the process of communicating through language.

Learning Objectives

After completing this theme, students should be able to:

- Understand the cognitive mechanisms involved in language production.
- Figure out the main functions of memory.
- Identify the four stages involved in language production.
- Discuss the factors that can affect language production.
- Find out the connection between language comprehension and language production.

Guiding Questions

1. What is meant by language production?
2. What are the stages involved in language production?
3. What are the specific characteristics of each stage?
4. Explain the mechanisms of the components of language production (i.e., speech production, and written production).

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1. Language Production: A Brief Introduction

Now that we have arrived at the third component in language processing, language production, it is important to raise the attention that this third component is considered the most important since it concerns the production of language. In the literature, psycholinguists agree on saying that language production is a highly complex motor behaviour. It requires the translation of conceptual information into intricate sequences of motor commands to allow many production forms, such as speaking, writing and even signing (McDonald, 2013).

Additionally, it has been argued that language production is concerned with the stage of speech from the initial stage that is mental to the linguistic tangible manifestations. This is to say that language production is frequently seen as the process of communicating through language (Psychology Wikia & Alley Dog).

In order to understand the importance and complexity of language production better, let us review some of the available definitions:

- Language production involves the retrieval of information from memory, the planning of an articulatory programme, and executive control and self-monitoring. These processes can be related to the domains of long-term memory, motor control, and executive control. Here, we argue that studying neuronal oscillations provides an important opportunity to understand how general neuronal computational principles support language production (Piai & Zheng, 2019).
- Language production is, in one sense, difficult. The speaker has to decide on something worth saying, choose words (out of a vocabulary of 40,000), appropriate syntax, morphology, and prosody, and ultimately has to articulate at the rate of two to three words per second. In another sense, production is easy. We think it takes little effort. Particularly when we are talking about familiar topics, we can at the same time walk, drive, or even play the piano (Dell & Jacobs, 2016).

- Language production begins around the age of 12 months; however, language understanding is earlier and develops faster. Grammar begins developing around 2–3 years. At around 5 to 6 years, the child is expected to have a basic language with the following capabilities: to produce all the phonemes and phoneme combinations existing in his/her language, to have a basic vocabulary including approximately 2000–3000 words, to use the basic grammar, and to adapt the language to the current context. (Ardila & Rosseli, 2020).
- Language production begins with the formulation of a message and includes steps of discourse planning, lexical selection, and syntactic encoding. Language comprehension involves the analysis of discourse, syntactic, and lexical representations. Because of the many levels of analysis and the necessity of integrating information from all levels, both aspects of language use are compromised to some extent in all types of dementia beyond the small but significant effects of normal aging. (Kemper & Altmann, 2009).

2. Stages of Language Production

Language production occurs through different stages. In the literature, it is claimed that the stages of production include four processes. On this point, and as an example, Josias (2019) refers to Sovel to elucidate these four processes or let us say stages. These are presented in what is coming:

- **Stage one (Conceptualisation):** It is the initial stage in language production. At this first stage, there are two concurrent modes of thought that ought to be (1) syntactic thinking, and (2) imaginistic thinking. Josias adds that in regards to this stage, the speaker often decides what to communicate. What is worth mentioning at this stage is the fact that it is the most abstract of language production. That is why it is called the message stage. Additionally, this message stage is also considered different from the other stages simply because it is within this stage, the speaker determines what to say,

the ideas to convey, selection of the relevant utterances, and the finalisation of the pre-verbal product of the message.

- **Stage two (Formulation):** It is the second stage in the language production process. In this stage, it is generally time to frame the message into words, phrases, and clauses. More precisely, it is the stage wherein the speaker translates the conceptual representation into a linguistic form. According to Josias (2019), in this stage, the process of lexicalisation occurs. This means that this speaker has to choose the words to utter. Moreover, at the level of this stage, other processes can take place and occur. This mainly concerns the processes of syntax planning, where words are combined to make a sentence, the process of phonetic planning, where phonological encoding happens, and the processes of morphological and grammatical encoding, where sentences are encoded.
- **Stage three (Articulation):** It is the third and the most important stage. It is often known as the physical stage. This is because, in this stage, the words are translated into actual speech. According to Josias (2019), in this stage, thoughts and linguistic plans are sent from the brain to the speech system in order to produce the appropriate sounds. At this level, speech comprehension starts.
- **Stage four (Self-monitoring):** It is the fourth and final stage. In this stage, the speaker ensures that the produced language is accurate and meaningful. This means that the speaker usually checks syntax, lexis, phonology, and appropriateness in terms of register, loudness, and precision.

3. Models of Language Production

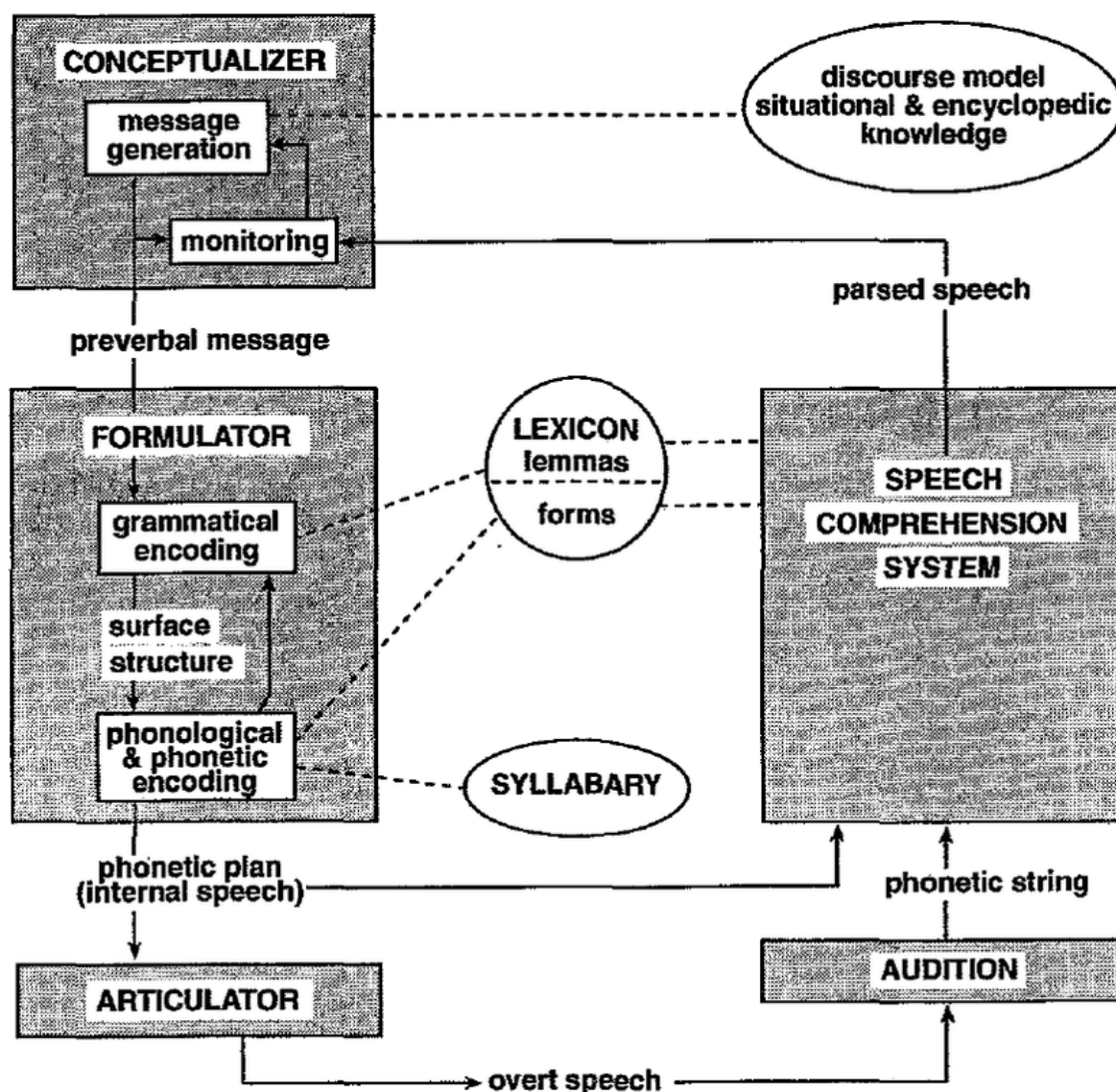
In the literature, there exist a number of language production models. These models have attempted to make the process of language production understood and more comprehensive. In more explicit terms, they have sought to discover how an average language user can produce language at a short rate of word-per-second, and the way language is produced in relation to the very low rate of errors.

Among the available language production models, the Levelt Model is thought to be the most comprehensive and thorough since it synthesises and provides a psycholinguistic rationale for language production through different well-elicited components. These components include elements, such as the conceptualiser, the articulator, and the speech comprehension system. In what is coming, an attempt to elucidate and describe what these components imply is going to be presented.

- **The conceptualiser:** This component is concerned with the production of messages.
- **The formulator:** This component shapes messages by giving them grammatical and phonological stances.
- **The articulator:** It is about the execution of the message. It transforms these messages into phonetic representations.
- **The speech comprehension:** It allows the parsing or processing of both self-regulated, as well as other generated messages.

Figure 4.

Levelt's Modern of Language Production



4. Language Production and Errors

To produce language, a language user is not usually perfect. S/he may commit errors. In regards to such errors, in the literature, a number of scholars have attempted to investigate and study errors in language production. These scholars have all the time tried to identify and define errors, display the reasons and factors that often lead to commit these errors; and more importantly, they have sought to look for strategies that should be followed to avoid making these errors.

Correspondingly, Inda (2017) provided a thorough and comprehensive description of these errors by which he answered many of the raised questions above. A summary of his answers is going to be presented in what is coming:

- **Definition of errors:** Inda refers mainly to speech errors. He defines them as unintentional deviations from the target form one intends to produce. He cited Kin (2017) to give another definition of speech errors. For the latter, a speech error is an unintentional linguistic innovation.

Moreover, he adds that an error is an involuntary deviation in performance from the speakers' current phonological, grammatical, or lexical intention. It is the product of both local opportunity from the particular circumstances and of a struggle between two mental forces: some underlying a need or wish and the other is the desire to keep it hidden. In a few words, an error is a deviation (conscious or unconscious) from the apparently intended form of an utterance.

- **Causes of errors:** Once again, Inda (2017) summarises the causes of errors in the following:
 - **Interference 1:** The interference from intended elements of the utterance (Plan internal errors).
 - **Interference 2:** The interference from an alternative formulation of the intended thought (Alternative plan errors).
 - **Interference 3:** the interference from an unintended thought (Competing plan errors).
- **Factors influencing errors:** For Inda (2017), the factors that influence speech errors could be listed in the following:
 - **Language transfer:** It concerns transferring linguistic elements from a native language to a second language.

- **Language transfer learning:** This transfer is explained by the fact that there is an error because of poor learning.
- **Communication strategy:** In this case, the communication strategy can also lead to committing errors. It is noticeable when a language user hesitates before communicating.

5. Let us Practice!

5.1 Questions

Answer these questions.

- Why is comprehension slower than language production?
- What are the stages involved in language production?
- How do language users self-monitor their speech?
- What are the main sources of speech errors?
- What causes speech errors?
- In what way do speech errors committed by children differ from those of adults?

5.2 Activity

“Although researchers have described how comprehension and production may interact in particular tasks, the two areas of research have not always been closely connected” -**Explain**

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In-Take Home Test (8)

PART ONE: Just Remember it!

Activity 1: Choose the best answer _____

1. Language production begins around the age of _____ months.
 - a. 12
 - b. 18
 - c. 24
2. At around _____ years old, the child is expected to have a basic language.
 - a. 3-4
 - b. 4-5
 - c. 5-6
3. Language production occurs through _____ stages.
 - a. two
 - b. three
 - c. four
4. Verbal language production is always viewed as the process of communicating through _____.
 - a. language
 - b. signs
 - c. gestures

Activity 2: Decide whether these statements are **True** or **False** _____

- a. Language production is an easy process. It takes little effort.
- b. Language production involves only the analysis of discourse.
- c. For a child, grammar begins developing around 2-3 years old.
- d. Conceptualisation is the last stage in language production process.

a

b

c

d

Activity 3: Match the concepts with their respective definitions _____

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 1. The conceptualiser | a. It allows the parsing or processing of both-self regulated and generated messages. |
| 2. The formulator | b. It transforms messages into phonetic representations. |
| 3. The articulator | c. It shapes messages. |
| 4. The speech comprehension system | d. It is concerned with the production of messages. |

PART TWO: In-Between

Activity 1: Fill in the gaps _____

To produce language, a — **1** — user is not always perfect. He may commit — **2** —. Depending on the types of these — **3** —, the — **4** — user may intentionally or unintentionally commit these errors.

1	2	3	4

Activity 1: Briefly, answer the following questions _____

1. What are the sources and causes of speech errors?

2. What factors could influence the occurrence of speech errors?

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