Selected topics in applied linguistics
for the study of the English language
and Anglophone cultures:

Sociolinguistics
Pragmalinguistics
Psycholinguistics

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2023

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Introduction

Applied linguistics plays a pivotal role in shaping foreign language education by informing teaching methodologies, curriculum design, assessment practices, and language policy development. By integrating linguistic theory with practical applications, applied linguistics enhances the effectiveness and relevance of language learning experiences. As societies continue to globalize and diversify, the contributions of applied linguistics will remain indispensable in fostering linguistic proficiency, cultural competence, and intercultural understanding through foreign language education.

The present textbook is primarily intended for graduate and doctoral students of English philology in departments preparing future teachers and intercultural mediators. It comprehensively treats three superstructural areas of applied linguistics - sociolinguistics, pragmalinguistics, and psycholinguistics. It presents their key themes and names the issues related to the relevant curricula from a developmental perspective. The structure and content of the text, including content questions and suggestions for independent assignments, correspond to the function of a university textbook.

The first chapter discusses **sociolinguistics** which is crucial for fostering effective foreign language learning and communication in diverse social contexts. Sociolinguistics, as a subfield of linguistics, focuses on the study of language in its social and cultural context, examining how language use varies according to factors such as social status, ethnicity, gender, age, and geographical region. It provides insights into the variation present in language use, both within and across different speech communities. By learning about sociolinguistic variation, students become better equipped to navigate diverse linguistic environments and interact appropriately with speakers from different backgrounds. In addition, sociolinguistics emphasizes the interconnectedness of language and culture. Language is studied as a reflection of cultural norms, values, and identities. Thus, sociolinguistics helps students develop cultural competence alongside their linguistic proficiency. Finally, it examines language variation and the processes of language standardization and explores individuals' attitudes and ideologies towards different languages and dialects.

Pragmalinguistics, another subfield of linguistics, is discussed in the second chapter. It focuses on the study of language use in context, particularly how language is used to achieve communicative goals and convey meaning beyond the literal interpretation of words and sentences. Pragmalinguistics plays a crucial role in enhancing our understanding of how language functions in real-life situations and social interactions. Pragmalinguistics examines how language is used to perform speech acts

such as requests, offers, apologies, compliments, and refusals. By analysing the linguistic strategies and conventions associated with different speech acts, researchers gain insights into how speakers convey intentions and interact with one another in English discourse.

Psycholinguistics, the subject of the third chapter, is the study of how language is processed and represented in the mind, providing valuable insights into learning about foreign languages. While it primarily focuses on understanding the cognitive processes involved in language comprehension, production, and acquisition, it intersects with the study of foreign language cultures, too.

The authors of the textbook believe it will become a useful source of information for students of English as a foreign language both in teacher training and philological study programmes. They would like to express their deepest gratitude to prof. PhDr. Milan Ferenčík, PhD., a professor of English philology at the University of Prešov. His valuable suggestions, comments, and careful editing contributed to the accuracy and quality of the textbook. An equally important contribution was made by doc. Mgr. Eva Reid, PhD., an Associate Professor and lecturer at the Comenius University in Bratislava. The authors appreciate her constructive feedback and insightful remarks based on her longtime expertise in sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic aspects of teaching English as a foreign language.

Authors

1 Sociolinguistics

1.1 Emergence and evolution of sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is a multidisciplinary branch of linguistic knowledge that developed partly out of anthropology, partly out of ethnography, partly out of sociology, and partly out of dialectology as a natural epistemological heritage (Hernández-Campoy 2014). Sociolinguistics takes *language samples from sets of random population subjects* and looks at variables such as pronunciation, word choice, and colloquialisms. The data is then measured against socio-economic indices such as education, income/wealth, occupation, ethnic heritage, age, and family dynamics to better understand the relationship between language and society (Nordquist, 2023).

Sociolinguistics significantly expanded after the late 1960s thanks to William Labov in the USA and Peter Trudgill in Britain. Previously, studying dialects, typically in rural areas, was common, but the primary focus was on preserving historical language aspects. This approach, known as *dialectology*, was conservative and was part of broader language studies connected to philology. William Labov shifted focus from rural to urban settings, aiming to analyse the current aspects of American speech. This change marked the development of sociolinguistics as a recognized branch of linguistics.

Sociolinguistics combines aspects of sociology and linguistics. While sometimes labelled as the 'sociology of language,' this term implies a focus more on sociological aspects than linguistic explanations (*Encyclopedia Britannica*, 2023). Sociolinguists are primarily interested in understanding how language is shaped by society and, in turn, influences society. Its rise in popularity is largely a reaction to the theoretical approaches of Chomskyan generative linguists, who analyse *idealised speech samples* without errors.

Sociolinguists, focus on *authentic speech* used within communities, aiming to explore how language changes based on social contexts and the social groups using it. Labov refers to this as *'secular linguistics'*. Labovian sociolinguistics aims to comprehend the reasons behind language changes and how they occur (Mambrol 2020).

Sociolinguistics *primarily* focused on accent and dialect, but over time it started to encompass various other aspects. With the rise of 'political correctness,' researchers have extensively examined the connections between language and social factors such as age, education, nationality, race, gender or ideology. This exploration has led to a better understanding of how language does not just reflect social realities but also potentially shapes them. This aspect of sociolinguistics has contemporary relevance and significance, drawing insights from fields like social anthropology and philosophy. *At its*

edges, sociolinguistics connects with stylistics, especially discourse analysis. Within this field, two sub-branches, *ethnomethodology*, and the *ethnography of communication*, focus on style in the context of communication (Mambrol 2020).

Ethnomethodology delves into the analysis of conversations and the guidelines governing turn-taking. Understanding when to speak and what qualifies as a response instead of an interruption significantly influences language usage in social interactions.

The **ethnography of communication** explores the impact of social and cultural aspects on 'linguistic behaviour'. Decisions such as whether to address someone as 'Mr. Jones', 'Jimmy', or simply 'Jones' depend on situational context, the nature of the relationship, and the cultural assumptions prevalent during the conversation. These 'terms of address' are intricate to study due to variations in customs among different countries and nationalities (Mambrol 2020).

Hymes (1992, 2020) developed further the concept of ethnography of communication and introduced the notion of **communicative competence**, which encompasses the knowledge needed for effective language use. Swain then divided this competence into four parts: grammatical competence, discourse competence, strategic competence, and sociolinguistic competence. Notably, one aspect of communicative competence which is nowadays important in teaching foreign languages is dedicated to sociolinguistics.

Questions:
➢ *How did William Labov contribute to the development of sociolinguistics, and what significant shift did he bring about in the field?*
➢ *In what ways did sociolinguistics differentiate itself from traditional approaches like dialectology, and what marked the recognition of sociolinguistics as a distinct branch of linguistics?*
➢ *How has the focus of sociolinguistics evolved, particularly with the rise of 'political correctness,' and what social factors are currently explored within the field?*

1.2 Key concepts of sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics is the study of the relationship between language and society. It examines how language is used and how it varies among different social groups, considering factors such as regional, social, ethnic, and cultural influences on the language. Sociolinguistics explores how individuals and communities use language, the impact of language on social interactions and identities, language policies, and how language reflects and shapes social structures (Pavlík, 2006). Sociolinguistics, a branch within the field of linguistics, explores the societal dimensions of language. It investigates the fluctuations and transformations of language across diverse social groups, communities, and environments. Within this discipline, scholars analyse the correlation between language and multiple elements including age, gender, ethnicity, social status,

and geographic regions. This exploration helps sociolinguists comprehend how language plays a role in influencing societal identities and mirroring cultural conventions (see Pavlík 2006).

The definition includes several key concepts, which will be explained more closely. First of all, language plays a crucial role in shaping ***personal and societal identity***. For instance, individuals might employ particular dialects or languages to showcase their cultural roots or association with specific social circles. Additionally, language serves as an indicator of one's societal standing and inclusion or exclusion within a community (Sociolinguistics – Definitions and Key Concepts 2023).

Another key concept is ***language variation***, which often intertwines with various social factors. Language variation stands as a central principle in sociolinguistics, depicting distinctions in language usage shaped by social elements among people or groups. Sociolinguists examine diverse aspects of language variation, encompassing pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse styles. Their examination delves into the impact of socioeconomic status, education, and social connections on language diversity.

The significant idea which revolves around variations in speech is known as ***dialects and accents.*** Dialects and accents are different ways people talk within a language, involving how words are said, and used, and how sentences are formed. Sociolinguists examine these differences and how they connect to social aspects. Dialects might be linked to specific regions, social classes, or ethnic groups. Accents, however, focus on how a person pronounces words in a language. Sociolinguistics investigates the attitudes people have towards different languages or dialects. Social, cultural, and historical influences shape these feelings. Some languages or dialects are seen as better, while others might be looked down upon.

Another important idea is **bilingualism/*multilingualism*** which often arises due to language contact between different cultures. Multilingualism focuses on individuals or communities proficient in multiple languages. Scholars in this field explore language interactions, where diverse languages intersect and impact each other. They analyse occurrences like code-switching (shifting between languages within a conversation) and language borrowing (integrating words or structures from one language into another).

The next essential idea in sociolinguistics involves the management and organization of languages within a society, known as ***language policy and planning.*** Language policy involves choices made by governments or organizations about language use and planning. Sociolinguists study these decisions and their effects on groups and people. They examine topics like keeping languages alive, efforts to bring languages back to use, and how policies affect languages spoken by minorities.

The subsequent concept explores the connection between ***gender and language***. Sociolinguistics looks at how being male or female affects how people talk and communicate. It studies how words are chosen, ways of speaking, and how

conversations happen differently between men and women. Sociolinguists also analyse how being male or female combines with other things like age, ethnicity, and social class.

The subsequent critical idea examines *sociolinguistics in education*. It looks at how language is used in schools and how it helps or affects learning. Sociolinguists study policies in schools, language acquisition processes, and how teachers' language affects students. Knowing about sociolinguistics can make schools more welcoming and better for learning.

The next essential notion delves into the relationship between *language and power*. Sociolinguists investigate how language is connected to power structures. They study how using language can either support or question social rankings, unfair treatment, and differences in society. Language can be a way to give power or to make someone less important, and sociolinguistics aims to understand these relationships in power.

Another key concept examines the connection between *sociolinguistics and globalization*, which has greatly changed how languages are used and studied in sociolinguistics. Sociolinguists look at how globalization affects when languages come into contact when languages are at risk of disappearing, and how some languages become more widespread. They study how English, as a main global language, affects the variety of languages spoken around the world.

Another key concept concerns *sociolinguistics in the digital era*. The rise of digital communication tools has added new aspects to studying how people talk. Sociolinguists look at how language is used on the internet, social networks, and when people communicate using computers. They study how these digital tools affect how we talk and connect with others (Sociolinguistics – Definitions and Key Concepts 2023).

Questions
➢ *How does language play a crucial role in shaping personal and societal identity?*
➢ *What is the significance of language variation in sociolinguistics, and how do sociolinguists analyse aspects such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse styles?*
➢ *What is the difference between dialects and accents, and how do sociolinguists explore the attitudes people have towards different languages or dialects?*
➢ *How does the concept of bilingualism/multilingualism manifest in sociolinguistics, and what language interactions are explored by scholars in this field?*
➢ *What does language policy and planning entail in sociolinguistics, and how do sociolinguists study the decisions made by governments or organizations about language use?*
➢ *How does sociolinguistics examine the connection between gender and language, and what aspects of language use are studied concerning differences between men and women?*

➤ *In what ways does sociolinguistics contribute to understanding the relationship between language and power, and how does language function in supporting or questioning social rankings and differences in society?*

1.3 Objectives and methods of research in sociolinguistics
Objectives

In line with Trudgill (1978), three distinct directions emerge in studies concerning sociolinguistics based on their objectives: ***sociological objectives, sociological and linguistic objectives,*** and ***linguistic objectives***.

The first set comprises research within the language and society framework that solely focuses on ***social aspects without specific linguistic aims***. For instance, Ethnomethodology, utilising linguistic data, aims to comprehend the use of language in social interaction, especially conversation, primarily for sociological exploration rather than for linguistic inquiry. This approach does not aim to explore language itself but rather its role in society Cicourel (1974, 2006), Garfinkel (1967).

The second set possesses ***both sociological and linguistic orientations***. The challenge with the term "sociolinguistics" arises here due to the differing boundaries scholars establish between Language and Society and other domains like the Sociology of language, the Social psychology of language, Anthropological linguistics, Discourse analysis, the Ethnography of communication, and Language and gender. Qualitative methodologies characterize these studies, developed and applied by Dell Hymes (1972), Gumperz, Goffman, Sacks, and other researchers (Berenz, 2001; Schuman, 2001).

The third set encompasses studies in the ***field of language and society driven purely by linguistic aims***. This category includes Traditional dialectology, Variationist sociolinguistics, Geolinguistics, Creole sociolinguistics, and Historical sociolinguistics. All research in this category involves empirical studies focusing on language as it is used within its social context, aiming to advance linguistic theory and deepen our understanding of language structure (Hernández-Campoy 2014).

Methods

Studying sociolinguistics involves employing diverse methods to collect and analyse information. There are three main research approaches in sociolinguistics: *quantitative, qualitative,* and *mixed methods*. By using both quantitative and qualitative analyses, researchers uncover similarities and conclude how language is used differently by people.

Quantitative sociolinguistics seeks to understand how an individual's or a social group's identity influences language usage, considering social factors like age, gender, social class, and education level (Bayyurt, 2013). Quantitative methods test hypotheses and establish connections between variables. Researchers in this field rely on statistical procedures, viewing the world as comprising observable and measurable facts. This

method collects data in numerical form and primarily uses statistical techniques, such as surveys conducted through questionnaires analysed with software like SPSS, to test various hypotheses.

Qualitative sociolinguistics aims to answer why people behave in certain ways in diverse contexts (Bayyurt, 2013). Qualitative researchers use methods to comprehend phenomena within specific contexts and milieus without relying on statistical quantification (Golafshani, 2003). Qualitative research involves non-statistical data collection methods like interviews, observations, focus group discussions, case studies, systematic note taking and/or record-keeping. Additional approaches mentioned by Wardhaugh and Fuller (2015) include discourse analysis, which aims to uncover conversational structures and principles, and interactional sociolinguistics (Jamaleddin & Lashkarian 2016).

Dörnyei (2011) distinguishes between the stages of quantitative and qualitative methods. He suggests that while the former involves two distinct stages of data collection and analysis, the latter comprises two phases that often overlap and coincide.

Questions
➢ *What are the three distinct directions in studies concerning sociolinguistics based on their objectives, as outlined by Trudgill (1978)?*
➢ *How does Ethnomethodology, within the first set of sociolinguistic objectives, utilize linguistic data to comprehend the use of language in social interaction, and what distinguishes its focus from linguistic inquiry?*
➢ *What challenges and differing boundaries arise in the second set of sociolinguistic objectives-and how do scholars establish distinctions between "sociolinguistics" and other domains?*
➢ *What categories fall under the third set of sociolinguistic objectives-and how do these categories contribute to advancing linguistic theory and understanding language structure?*
➢ *What are the three main research approaches in sociolinguistics when it comes to methods, and how do quantitative and qualitative sociolinguistics differ in their objectives and methodologies, as discussed in the text?*

1.4 Variety, register, dialect
Variety
A *variety* refers to a specific type of language, such as regional varieties like Manchester or Leeds varieties, as well as globally recognised forms like Standard English, Canadian English, and Indian English. English varieties have numerous features that define them. Discussed will be *dialect* which denotes specific words used in particular regions or groups (e.g. the Cockney dialect, known for rhyming slang) and *register* which

represents language variations in specific situations, influenced by field (topic), manner (formality), or mode (written or spoken).

Register

Halliday & Hasan (1976) proposed that *register* contributes to an additional layer of meaning, defining discourse, whether written or spoken. Recognizing the register in both written and spoken language is crucial for appropriate responses. The significance of studying register in sociolinguistics lies in its capacity to explain how language operates within diverse social contexts and is shaped by social as well as cultural influences. By examining the register, sociolinguists can acquire a deeper understanding of the connection between language and society. This exploration unveils how language serves as a means for expressing power, identity, and the conveyance of meaning.

In the context of the English language, *register* denotes a specific kind of language used in distinct situations. It is primarily linked to the formality of social interactions. The register we choose to use during communication or interaction is determined by several different social factors, such as the context (where), purpose or occasion (why), and audience (who) (Language and Social Groups, Register and Style, 2024). Various types of registers encompass:

- formal register: utilized in formal and professional contexts,
- frozen register: a language that remains unchanged for extended periods,
- consultative register: used in exchanging advice or suggestions in professional settings,
- neutral register: employed in academic and technical settings, maintaining a professional yet accessible tone,
- intimate register: personal language used in private interactions,
- casual register: used in relaxed and friendly social situations that do not require a formal communication.

The *formal register*, on the other hand, is formal language designated for significant, official, or ceremonial events. It is characterized by being impersonal and unemotional, employing standard grammar, complete sentences, complex or longer sentence structures, and extended vocabulary. It avoids informal elements like imperative sentences, contractions, colloquialisms, slang, swearing, idioms and metaphorical language, pet names and terms of endearment. It is typically used in formal or official settings, emphasising a sense of decorum and convention.

The *consultative register* is used in professional environments to exchange information or offer advice. It's characterized by clarity, objectivity, and a formal tone meant to convey expertise while maintaining respect and professionalism. It's employed in scenarios like business meetings, job interviews, or consultations with professionals (English, Language and Social Groups, Consultative Register, 2024)

The ***frozen register*** denotes language that remains consistent over time, often used in formal or serious contexts, such as legal or religious matters. It typically uses standard grammar and vocabulary but can occasionally include informal elements, like songs or poems, preserving archaic language or older phrases that are no longer in common use (English, Language and Social Groups, Frozen Register, 2024).

The ***intimate register*** refers to casual, personal language used in private conversations among close friends, family, or partners. It is informal and does not adhere strictly to grammar rules or complex language. Its main aim is communication and understanding among individuals familiar with one another, often used in private exchanges or casual interactions. These include private conversations, inside jokes, telling secrets, greetings, terms of endearment/pet names, flirting and non-verbal language (English, Language and Social Groups, Intimate Register, 2024).

The ***neutral register***, which maintains a factual and impartial tone, occupies a middle ground between casual and formal language. It's devoid of emotional expressions, slang, or elaborate language. It remains professional, accessible, and purely factual, used when conveying information without conveying opinions or emotions (English, Language and Social Groups, Neutral Register, 2024).

The ***casual register*** involves informal, relaxed language suitable for social situations where formality is not necessary. It is natural, conversational, and used among people in comfortable settings. It's commonly employed when conversing with friends and family in various settings such as social gatherings, at home, or discussing personal interests informally (English, Language and Social Groups, Casual Register, 2024).

Dialect

Dialect stems from language changes, which refer to the variations languages undergo over time. ***Dialect,*** a specific language variety tied to certain regions, evolves through the influence and modifications made by a community of speakers, mainly defined by their geographical proximity. Social factors like class, occupation, and age can also shape and impact dialects. Dialects stand apart from the standardised forms of a language in terms of vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar, and pronunciation. British English, associated with Received Pronunciation (RP), represents a standard form but is essentially a dialect. Despite differences from the standardised form, dialects remain generally understandable among speakers of the same language. For instance, someone from Southern England can usually comprehend someone from the North (English, International English, Dialect, 2024)

The term "dialect" encompasses various language varieties arising from different factors. Types of dialects include ***regional dialects, sociolects, idiolects,*** and ***ethnolects***.

Regional dialects (regiolects), the most recognizable, emerge among closely located individuals due to linguistic changes driven by communication beyond the community, environmental changes, new languages, and cultures introduced over time

Sociolects, shaped by social factors beyond geography, arise from shared commonalities among groups, like socio-economic status, age, occupation, gender, or ethnicity. They often feature distinct vocabularies, like slang (English, Language and Social Groups, Sociolect vs Idiolect, 2024)

Ethnolects, a subset of sociolects, result from influences by a shared ethnic background and other languages spoken within the ethnic group. Examples include African American Vernacular English influenced by West African languages. In contrast, dialects connect people through a range of social factors beyond ethnicity, while ethnolects primarily focus on ethnic groups (English, International English, Ethnolect. 2024).

Idiolects denote an individual's unique language use shaped by various factors, such as age, gender, class, occupation, and exposure to movies, travel, and social circles. These personal language habits often change depending on the person's current life circumstances. Idiolects intertwine with different *registers*, reflecting formality levels in language use. The choice of register shifts depending on the audience, influencing how individuals communicate, thus impacting their idiolects (English, Sociolinguistics, Idiolect. 2024).

Questions
➢ *What is a variety in sociolinguistics, and how does it encompass both regional and globally recognized forms of language?*
➢ *According to Halliday & Hasan (1976), how does register contribute to an additional layer of meaning in language, and why is it crucial to recognize register in both written and spoken language?*
➢ *What are the various types of registers in the English language, and how are they linked to the formality of social interactions?*
➢ *How does the formal register differ from the casual register in terms of language characteristics, and in what situations is the formal register typically used?*
➢ *Describe the characteristics of the consultative register, and provide examples of scenarios in which it is commonly employed.*
➢ *What distinguishes the frozen register in terms of its linguistic features and typical usage contexts?*
➢ *Explain the characteristics of the intimate register and its role in private interactions, providing examples of when it is commonly used.*
➢ *How does the neutral register differ from both the formal and casual registers and in what situations is it typically employed?*

- *Discuss the characteristics of the casual register and provide examples of social situations where it is suitable.*
- *What is dialect in sociolinguistics, and how does it evolve? Additionally, how do social factors such as class, occupation, and age shape and impact dialects?*
- *How do regional dialects (regiolects) differ from sociolects and ethnolects in terms of their emergence and linguistic characteristics?*
- *In what ways do idiolects intertwine with different registers?*

1.5 Examples of research studies in sociolinguistics

Sociolinguists typically study language use through random sampling of the population. Informants from different groups in society are tested to see how frequently they use specific language variants. Researchers then compare these results against social categories like education, income, and occupation. The most relevant studies were conducted by Labov (1966), Trudgill (1972), Bernstein (1971), Eckert (1989), and Ives (2014, In Ives & Rana 2018) and explore how language is influenced by social factors within different contexts.

William Labov's New York Department Store Study (1966)

William Labov is an American linguist known for his linguistic research in sociolinguistics. He is recognised for his studies of dialects and language change, including how certain social factors (social class, gender etc.) affect language.

Labov investigated how people from diverse social classes utilized the linguistic variable (r), mainly focusing on its pronunciation. He aimed to study a broad spectrum of individuals from various social classes, economic backgrounds, and ethnicities. To gather data, Labov observed individuals working at different department stores located in the Lower East Side of Manhattan in New York:

- Saks Fifth Avenue, a middle to upper-class store in a high-fashion shopping area
- Macy's, an average-priced middle-class store among other mid-range stores
- S. Klein, a budget, working-class store situated in the Lower East Side, historically an immigrant, working-class neighbourhood

Labov assumed that the social stratification of employees would mirror the stratification of the department stores where they worked. His findings revealed discrepancies in wages and working conditions among the stores, supporting his assumption of social stratification among employees.

His method involved interacting with employees while posing as a customer, seeking directions to an item located on the fourth floor. Labov pretended not to hear the response to evoke a more carefully pronounced reply. This approach allowed for natural responses from employees, concealing Labov's identity as a researcher.

Ethically, Labov ensured the anonymity of data and participants, noting that ethical standards in research during that period were less stringent. The study's independent

variables included *gender, estimated age, occupation, and race* of the informants, while the dependent variable was the use of (r) in the phrase 'fourth floor.'

Labov collected data from 264 individuals across the three department stores (Saks Fifth Avenue 68, Macy's 125, S. Klein 71). Results confirmed Labov's hypothesis, indicating that the usage of the linguistic variable (r) signified social stratification across all stores. Employees in higher-class stores tended to use the rhotic / r / more frequently compared to those in lower-class stores.

Specifically, 62% of Saks employees, 51% of Macy's employees, and only 20% of Klein's employees employed the rhotic (r) in their speech, demonstrating distinct social stratification in (r) usage. Notably, there was a noticeable increase in rhoticity between the initial casual speech and the subsequent emphasized pronunciation, particularly pronounced in Macy's.

Peter Trudgill's Norwich study of accents and dialects (1972)

Peter Trudgill, a well-known sociolinguist, conducted a study in Norwich, England, during the 1970s. He believed that how people spoke was connected to their social class. He thought that those from higher social classes would talk in a way that was more like what is considered standard, while those from lower social classes would use less standard language. He also thought that how people talked changed based on how aware they were of their speech.

The study in Norwich focused on how different social factors influenced the way people spoke. Trudgill wanted to see if social class, gender, and how aware people were of their speech affected the way they talked. One important discovery from the study was about how the informants pronounced the sound 'r' in words.

Before talking to them, Trudgill needed a way to measure their social class. He looked at what jobs they had, their education, where they lived, and how much money they earned. Then, he randomly chose 60 people from a list in Norwich to talk to. He asked them questions about their jobs, education, and money, and wrote down their answers. Trudgill found that those from lower social classes tended to talk in less standard ways. For example, they might leave out the 'r' sound in words like 'car' or pronounce it in words like 'farmer.' This study showed how language and who we are in society are connected. It also paved the way for more research in this area. Trudgill made links between different social factors like education, jobs, money, and how people spoke -whether it was standard or not.

To make sure his findings were reliable, Trudgill created different situations and paid close attention to how people talked. Some examples of the scenarios he used included: interview-style questioning, getting informants to read passages of text, and asking informants to tell a funny anecdote.

He paid special attention to two variables in the way people talked: how they used verbs (like 'she say' instead of 'she says') and how they said words ending in '-ing' (like 'walkin' instead of 'walking').

Based on the research results, Trudgill put the informants into five groups based on their social class. Then, he looked at how often they used non-standard language forms in different situations to understand patterns related to social class. The study showed that people from lower social classes tended to use more non-standard language forms, while those from higher social classes spoke more like what's considered standard. Trudgill also noticed that people used more standard language when they felt under observation, like in an interview. But when sharing funny stories, they used more non-standard language. Additionally, regardless of social class, men tended to use more non-standard language forms compared to women.

Basil Bernstein's elaborated and restricted code (1971)

Basil Bernstein, a British sociolinguist, examined diverse linguistic codes within sociology. His study of language codes had a profound impact on how children and adults are viewed in sociological studies. Bernstein's focus lay in differentiating "elaborated codes," used formally (e.g., by teachers, in textbooks, and exams), from "restricted codes," used informally (with simpler vocabulary, shorter sentences, and less strict grammar).

In 1971, Bernstein delved into the sociology of education, proposing a theory about the impact of social class on language use and how a person's linguistic skills can influence their academic performance. His investigation began with the observation that students from higher social classes tended to excel in language-based subjects compared to those from lower social classes. However, when it came to math-based topics, students from both backgrounds performed equally well. This intrigued Bernstein and led him to explore why this difference existed in language-based subjects.

To investigate further, Bernstein chose two five-year-old schoolchildren - one from a working-class background and the other from a middle-class background. He presented them with three pictures depicting a story of two boys playing football and breaking a neighbour's window. The child from a working-class background described the scene using a restricted code (less specific and casual, fewer details), while the child from a middle-class background used an elaborated code (more detailed and formal).

From his study, Bernstein concluded that a link existed between a student's social class and their use of elaborated or restricted codes. He believed that the reason why children from working-class backgrounds struggled comparatively in language-based subjects was their familiarity with and use of different language forms. In essence, because working-class students were raised in environments predominantly using restricted code, that became the language they were most proficient in.

Given that elaborated code is commonly used by teachers and educational materials, children from higher social classes had an advantage in understanding educational resources presented in elaborated code. In contrast, children from lower social classes, less exposed to elaborated code, might have faced challenges in comprehending and utilizing it.

Penelope Eckert's Jocks and Burnouts (1989)

Penelope Eckert, a linguistics professor at Stanford University in California, is known for her contributions to variationist sociolinguistics, which examines how individuals using the same dialect exhibit social variations. Her primary research focus centres on the relationship between language and gender, specifically within youth culture. Her study "*Jocks and Burnouts: Social Categories and Identity in the High School*" (1989), offers insights into how language use reflects and reinforces social identities and categories.

The study delves into a suburban Detroit high school, describing the '*Jocks*' associated with school-sponsored activities, higher social status, and observance of school norms, and the '*Burnouts*' linked with resistance to school culture, lower social status, and non-school activities.

Eckert discovered that these social categories significantly influenced language choices. Her ethnographic study of social class in Detroit high schools employed qualitative methods like interviews and observations. She aimed to explore the connection between class and language from the perspective of teenagers.

One key finding was that language differences were more tied to shared interests or activities (communities of practice) rather than specific social differences like class, ethnicity, or gender. Students were more inclined to speak like those they shared interests with rather than those from similar social backgrounds, highlighting a more human aspect to sociolinguistics.

Eckert's study observed variations in vowels among teenagers, correlating with social categories and the communities of practice associated with them. This aligns with numerous sociolinguistic studies indicating that factors such as age, class, ethnicity, occupation, and gender significantly impact a person's language use.

Gary Ives' Bradford Study (2014)

Gary Ives is recognized for his contributions to sociolinguistics, particularly regarding language and power and language code-switching. In 2014, Ives conducted studies in Bradford (West Yorkshire) and London, focusing on the correlation between language and ethnicity among teenagers. These investigations delved into how English and Punjabi, a South Asian language prevalent in India and Pakistan, were used interchangeably, a phenomenon known as code-switching.

The primary goal was to comprehend the conscious decisions behind why the participants chose to code-switch, which was often influenced by the audience they were addressing. Qualitative data was gathered through informal and conversational interviews and discussions with the participants, predominantly eight teenage boys identifying as Pakistani (specifically Mirupi from Mirpur) born in the UK, along with a group of girls, one of whom was from an ethnic minority and could code-switch due to her proficiency in Gujurati.

Ives' analysis of the collected data revealed several key findings. Code-switching was a deliberate choice among the participants, serving to establish a sense of group identity among Punjabi speakers and, concurrently, to exclude individuals who did not speak Punjabi or belonged to different ethnic backgrounds. The boys, for instance, code-switched while using profanity, employing Punjabi terms for offensive words, and occasionally excluding particular listeners.

Interestingly, the girl participant refrained from code-switching, particularly within her circle of friends. Her reluctance stemmed from the fact that if she code-switched, her friends would not understand her, potentially leading to her exclusion from the group.

These studies underscore how social factors like social class, ethnicity, gender, and shared interests significantly impact language use in diverse settings, be it in workplaces, schools, or communities. They shed light on the complex relationship between language, society, and individual identities, revealing how language serves as a powerful marker of social distinction and community affiliation.

Questions
➢ *How did William Labov conduct the New York Department Store Study in 1966, and what were the key findings regarding the usage of the linguistic variable (r) across different social classes?*
➢ *What were the main objectives of Peter Trudgill's Norwich study of accents and dialects in 1972, and what social factors did he investigate to understand how people spoke concerning their social class?*
➢ *How did Basil Bernstein contribute to sociolinguistics in 1971, specifically in the sociology of education, and what were the key findings regarding the impact of social class on language use?*
➢ *What insights did Penelope Eckert's study "Jocks and Burnouts: Social Categories and Identity in the High School" (1989) provide regarding language use among different social categories in a Detroit high school?*
➢ *How did Gary Ives explore the correlation between language and ethnicity among teenagers in Bradford and London in 2014, and what were the key findings regarding code-switching and its role in establishing group identity?*

1.6 Sociolinguistics, culture and cultural competence

Sociolinguists explore how language connects to social and cultural aspects. They focus on cultural competence, which involves the ability to communicate effectively across different cultures. Recognizing the components and obstacles of cultural competence is crucial for improving communication abilities (Ivenz & Reid, 2022).

Cultural competence encompasses an awareness of various cultural aspects such as *worldviews, beliefs,* and *traditional customs*. Within sociolinguistics, scholars specifically investigate how language meaning shifts based on cultural settings and how cultural competence can enrich both oral and written communication (English, Sociolinguistics, Cultural Competence, 2024).

The significance of cultural competence within sociolinguistics traces back to theories originating in the 1960s. Noam Chomsky, a linguist already mentioned, introduced the concept of linguistic competence in 1965, denoting the theoretical understanding of a language's rules necessary for communication.

Expanding on this, sociolinguist Dell Hymes (1972) introduced the term *communicative competence*, emphasising that effective communication involves using language within its appropriate context. Cultural competence aligns closely with the notion of communicative competence since language meaning and structure often rely on cultural context (Chomsky 1965, Hymes 1972).

Principles of cultural competence

Valuing diversity involves showing respect and appreciation for the existence of cultural differences. Different cultures hold distinct worldviews, practices, and ways of expressing their values. Embracing this diversity in communication can enhance relationships and foster the creation of new connections and ideas. For instance, a teacher demonstrates the value of diversity by inviting each student to present about cultural traditions within their households, allowing them to educate peers about cultural distinctions.

Engaging in cultural self-assessment is essential. Reflecting on one's cultural identity fosters an understanding of differences that may affect cross-cultural communication. For example, the term "family," which varies in meaning across cultures, such as when a teacher, aware that English may not be spoken in some students' homes, revises suggestions for parents to support children's literacy skills, shows the importance of reflecting on cultural meanings.

Understanding the dynamics of cultural differences is crucial. People often carry stereotypes from their cultural backgrounds, impacting communication. Being aware of these tensions allows for addressing miscommunication and biases. For instance, a teacher accommodating a student's cultural holiday despite disrupting schedules demonstrates an awareness of these dynamics.

Institutionalizing cultural knowledge is vital at an organizational level. Systems like education should integrate cultural understanding into their frameworks. Training people at all levels in cross-cultural competencies and acknowledging cultural values and practices enhances service delivery. For example, a school providing cross-cultural training for employees and implementing diverse curriculum materials reflects this institutionalization.

Adapting to cultural diversity requires a flexible, inclusive approach to meeting diverse needs. For instance, a school, now with a more diverse student body, adjusts its curriculum to include materials representing various cultural backgrounds and hosts events celebrating cultural diversity. This demonstrates an adaptable response to cultural diversity in the community (English, Sociolinguistics, Cultural Competence. 2024).

Cultural competence is a component of *intercultural competence*. *Cultural competence* focuses on understanding and adapting to the norms and practices within a specific culture, while *intercultural competence* involves broader skills necessary to interact effectively and navigate communication across diverse cultural boundaries.

Intercultural competence requires a deeper level of flexibility, empathy, and adaptability to navigate the complexities of interactions among various cultural contexts. The fundamental concept of intercultural communication involves recognizing and valuing variations in communication approaches. Developing intercultural competence requires acquiring knowledge about cultural distinctions and adjusting to these differences (Byram 1977).

Questions
➢ *How does cultural competence contribute to effective communication across diverse cultures?*
➢ *What key aspects of cultural competence do sociolinguists investigate, particularly concerning the shifts in language meaning based on cultural settings?*
➢ *How does the concept of linguistic competence introduced by Noam Chomsky in 1965 relate to the later concept of cultural competence within sociolinguistics?*
➢ *In what ways does Dell Hymes' notion of communicative competence align with the importance of cultural competence in effective communication?*
➢ *Why is cultural self-assessment considered an essential aspect of cultural competence, and how can it impact cross-cultural communication, as exemplified in the context of the term "family"?*
➢ *How does the understanding of the dynamics of cultural differences, as emphasized in cultural competence, contribute to addressing miscommunication and biases, illustrated through an example involving a teacher and a student's cultural holiday?*

1.7 Sociolinguistics in foreign language education

Bayyurt (2013, pp. 69-70) mentions that Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) researchers consider the contextual significance in developing the *communicative competence* of foreign language learners, but sociolinguistics as such has often been disregarded or overlooked in FLT research.

However, sociolinguistic issues like *language planning, language policy, the selection of foreign language(s) for instruction, curriculum development,* and *teacher education*, which are fundamental in sociolinguistics, also have implications for foreign language education.

Therefore, current methodologies in teaching foreign languages involve incorporating concepts from sociolinguistics. Recent areas of exploration in English Language Teaching (ELT) encompass the interplay between *ELT and English as an International Language (EIL), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), World Englishes (WEs),* and *English in the EU*.

The emergence of English in EU, WEs, EIL, and ELF in schools results from interactions between individuals, such as *non-native speakers to non-native speakers* or *native speakers to non-native speakers*, who opt for a shared language, English, for communication. These trends involve various forms of written and spoken language in contexts where English is spoken as a native language and on a global scale where different English varieties are used.

International English

The term *international English* denotes the version spoken by non-native English speakers, rooted in the British Standard taught in schools. It possesses characteristics such as *neutrality, being untied to a specific culture, flexibility,* and *adapting to diverse language needs*. Often known as 'Global English,' 'World English,' or 'Common English,' it serves as a lingua franca globally, facilitating communication among non-native speakers.

English's status as an international language stem from its influence *on science, technology, the economy,* and *popular culture*. Historically, English's global reach traces back to the British Empire's expansion in the 16th century, incorporating words from various cultures. The 19th-century Industrial Revolution further fuelled the need for new English terms to describe emerging technologies.

In the contemporary context, English remains the language dominant in *global scientific and technological pursuit*s. Recent studies explore the correlation between a population's English proficiency and a country's *economic growth*, forming the field of 'economics of language'. Some scholars consider English essential for global economic participation, socioeconomic development, and mobility. Business English, a variant of International English, is taught worldwide to facilitate communication among non-native

speakers in the business. Focused on clarity, specific vocabulary, and grammar in business interactions, it aids effective communication in this domain.

The 20th century witnessed the rise of American and British cultural influences globally, evident in Hollywood, Broadway, music, and fast food.

Crystal (1999) emphasizes that English is the most spoken language globally, acknowledged as a desirable *lingua franca* by numerous countries. The continued prevalence of International English gives rise to various English varieties worldwide, with approximately 60-70 new 'Englishes' emerging since the 1960s, as predicted by Crystal. These include variations like Indian English and Nigerian English, reflecting the challenge in English Language Teaching (ELT) to strike a balance between establishing a globally understood standard and recognizing international diversity and personal identity (English, International English, 2024).

English as a lingua franca

A *lingua franca* is a mutually chosen language used by individuals with different native languages, often termed as 'common languages' or 'link languages.' Typically, lingua francas are established languages with colonial histories, such as English or French, acquired by non-native speakers as a foreign language for communication with other non-native speakers. In comparison to regional dialects, lingua francas are employed far beyond their country of origin. For instance, English serves as a lingua franca across Europe, Asia, and Africa, a phenomenon known as English as a Lingua Franca (ELF).

ELF is characterized by its use as a shared language among speakers with diverse native languages. Its prevalence has expanded rapidly, generating increasing interest from linguists and educators. ELF is viewed as a communication tool employed at local, national, regional, and international levels, showcasing considerable variation without a standardized version. While some dismiss ELF as *'foreigner speak'* or *'bad simple English,'* many linguists argue for a nuanced understanding. Siedlhofer (2006) suggests avoiding perceiving ELF as a singular variety of English, emphasizing its dynamic and evolving nature.

English has historically served as a lingua franca in ex-British colonies, contributing to the development of diverse English varieties like Indian and African English. Currently, an expanding circle of countries, devoid of colonial ties to English, including China and Vietnam, are increasingly adopting English as a lingua franca. This adaptation leads to the creation of new English varieties like Vinglish (Vietnamese English) and Chinglish (Chinese English), Singlish (Singapour English).

Studies on ELF, a relatively new field, involve analysing documented ELF dialogues in corpora like the *VOICE corpus* and the *Lingua Franca Core (LFC)* created by Jenkins in 2000. According to the University of Southampton, some of ELF features include:
- Dropping the 'S' when using the third person singular, e.g., 'she run'.
- Using the relative pronouns 'who' and 'which' interchangeably.

- Omitting articles, e.g., 'a' and 'the'.
- Using the tag questions 'isn't it?' or 'no?'.
- Using extra prepositions, e.g., 'we have to study about...'
- Using that-clauses instead of infinitive constructions, e.g., 'I want that we go to the cinema'.
- Explicitness, e.g., saying 'red colour' rather than 'red'.

Notable examples of ELF use include the prevalence of English in *science and academia* where English is the primary language of scientific research and publication, *multinational businesses, international aviation, the internet* and in *technology*.

When teaching English as a second language, instructors need to consider the needs of students using English for communication with other non-native speakers. While pronunciation plays a crucial role in intelligibility, there is ongoing debate regarding whether ELF should replace Standard English globally. Some argue that ELF lacks a standardised version, posing challenges in global English proficiency tests like IELTS. Despite criticisms, ELF users take pride in developing their norms and expressions, emphasising the language's connection to culture and identity (English, International English, English as a Lingua Franca, 2024).

English in EU

English serves as both an official language and a widely adopted second language in numerous EU nations. Proficiency levels in English can vary across countries, with some having a significant number of fluent speakers and others displaying lower levels of proficiency. Beyond those with high English proficiency, several EU member states, including the Netherlands, Sweden, Denmark, and Germany, have a substantial population of individuals who speak English as a second language. Often, people acquire English skills through formal education or private language courses. The variation in English proficiency is evident across European countries, with some demonstrating exceptional fluency and others facing challenges with the language. One way to measure English is the *EF English Proficiency Index (EF EPI).* It is a tool used to measure the average English language skills of adults in non-English speaking countries.

According to the EF EPI, the top five European countries with the highest English proficiency levels are the *Netherlands, Sweden, Denmark, Norway*, and *Finland*. Conversely, countries like France, Italy, and Spain rank lower in English proficiency, potentially due to a stronger emphasis on their native languages and less priority given to English learning. Given the increasing importance of English in global communication, trade, and culture, there is growing pressure on Europeans to enhance their English language skills. Education plays a crucial role in this, as many European schools now consider English as part of their curriculum. Some institutions even offer bilingual programs, where students split their day between learning subjects in both their mother

tongue and English. This immersive approach accelerates the improvement of English proficiency compared to traditional language classes (English, Global English, English in EU, 2024).

World Englishes

The term *World Englishes* is employed to characterize the diverse forms of English spoken globally. Currently, English is spoken by approximately *1.35 billion people*, constituting nearly *20% of the global population*. However, variations exist in vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and accent across the different English-speaking regions. English holds official *language status in 67 countries*, but the significance and usage of the language differ, ranging from administrative and educational purposes to being the primary official language (English, International English, World Englishes, 2024).

In 1985, Kachru introduced the *three circles of the English model*, outlining the global usage and status of the language. These circles are the *inner circle, outer circle,* and *expanding circle*.

The inner circle includes countries where English is the first language, such as the UK, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. The citizens of these nations are typically considered native English speakers. Kachru (1985) designates these countries as *norm-providing*, as they establish the norms of the English language.

The outer circle encompasses countries that were once British colonies or had colonial ties. English was introduced during colonial rule and served various purposes, including administration, education, and government. Examples include India, Singapore, Malaysia, Ghana, Nigeria, and Kenya. English is not the primary language in these countries, but it holds importance in different ways—either as an official second language, the medium of instruction in education, or the language used in business. Kachru identifies these countries as *norm-developing*, as they build upon the norms established in the inner-circle countries.

The expanding circle comprises the rest of the world, where there are no immediate colonial or historical ties with English. In these countries, English is used as a foreign language or lingua franca. Kachru views these countries as *norm-dependent*, implying that they refer to the inner and outer circles for English language norms and generally do not develop their distinct forms of English.

Questions

➢ How *does Bayyurt (2013) highlight the contextual significance of sociolinguistics in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) research, and what implications does the neglect of sociolinguistic issues in FLT research have on the development of communicative competence in foreign language learners?*

➢ *What are the key characteristics of International English, and how do these features contribute to its role as a global lingua franca among non-native English speakers?*

- *How does the historical expansion of the British Empire and the influence of the Industrial Revolution contribute to the global reach of English, and in what ways has English's status as an international language impacted fields such as science, technology, and the economy in contemporary times?*
- *In what manner does the prevalence of International English, particularly in domains like business communication and the global economy, influence the perception of English proficiency as an essential skill for economic growth, socioeconomic development, and international mobility?*
- *What is English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), and how does it differ from regional dialects in terms of its use and prevalence?*
- *How does ELF vary from standardized versions of English, and what are some features commonly associated with ELF?*
- *In what contexts and fields is English as a Lingua Franca prominently used, and what are some notable examples of ELF use in science, business, aviation, and technology?*
- *How does English proficiency vary across European Union nations, and what factors contribute to differences in language skills, as mentioned in the text?*
- *What role does formal education play in improving English language skills in European countries, and how are some institutions adopting bilingual programs to enhance proficiency?*
- *According to the EF English Proficiency Index (EF EPI), which European countries demonstrate the highest and lowest levels of English proficiency, and what potential factors might contribute to these variations?*
- *How does Kachru's three-circle model categorize countries based on their relationship with the English language, and what roles do the inner, outer, and expanding circles play in shaping the norms of English?*
- *In the outer circle of Kachru's model, how does English hold importance, and in what ways is it used, considering it is not the primary language in these nations?*

2 Pragmalinguistics

2.1 Emergence and evolution of pragmalinguistics

Pragmatics examines the distinction between the literal meaning of words and their intended meaning within social contexts, taking into account elements such as irony, metaphor, and intention. According to The Oxford Companion to Philosophy (1995), pragmatics is defined as "*the study of language that directs attention to users and the context of language use, as opposed to focusing on reference, truth, or grammar*."

Pragmatics serves as a valuable tool that goes beyond mere adherence to grammar rules. It reflects the norms and unwritten rules of society, aiding in understanding the interconnectedness of language, social situations, and conversations. Pragmatics explores how language use is intricately linked to societies and cultures, delving into the organization of conversations, and highlighting the profound impact of social and cultural factors on communication (English, Pragmatics 2024).

Pragmatics is a relatively recent linguistic discipline in the English language, with its origins dating back to the 1870s through the contributions of philosophers *Charles Sanders Pierce, John Dewey,* and *William James*. Coined by philosopher and psychologist *Charles W. Morris* in the 1930s, the term "Pragmatics" evolved into a subfield of linguistics in the 1970s (English, Pragmatics, 2024).

Rooted in the philosophical tradition of *pragmatism*, which sees words as tools for understanding the world and rejects the idea that thought should directly mirror reality, pragmatists argue that philosophical thought, including *language*, is best *comprehended through practical applications*.

In 1947, *Charles Morris* drew upon pragmatism, philosophy, sociology, and anthropology to present his theory of pragmatics in the book 'Signs, Language and Behaviour.' Morris emphasized that pragmatics focuses on the origins, uses, and effects of signs within the overall behaviour of sign interpreters, encompassing movements, gestures, body language, and tone of voice accompanying speech, rather than physical signs like road signs.

Erving Goffman, a Canadian sociologist, social psychologist, and author, significantly influenced the study of the English language with his *theory of face*, defining it as "the positive public image we aim to establish in social interactions" in 1955.

In 1975, *Herbert Paul Grice* introduced the *Cooperative Principle*, suggesting that participants in a conversation collaborate to be truthful, informative, relevant, and clear. Grice's concept of 'conversational implicature,' where additional meaning is inferred beyond explicit statements, has become a central focus in pragmatics.

John. L. Austin, an Oxford philosopher, introduced the *Speech act theory* in 1975, asserting that speech is a form of 'acting in the world.' This theory, further developed by John.R. Searle (1969), considers the extent to which utterances perform locutionary, illocutionary, and/or perlocutionary acts.

During the 1970s, the *Politeness theory* emerged as a significant branch of pragmatics, developed by Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson. This theory relies on *Erving Goffman's face theory*, expanding and refining the concept while examining the reasons behind expressing politeness towards others (English, Pragmatics, 2024; Ferenčík, 2011, 2018, 2020).

Questions
➢ *How does pragmatics distinguish between the literal meaning of words and their intended meaning in social contexts, and what elements does it take into account?*
➢ *According to The Oxford Companion to Philosophy (1995), how is pragmatics defined, and what distinguishes it from other language studies like reference, truth, or grammar?*
➢ *In what ways does pragmatics serve as a valuable tool that goes beyond grammar rules, and how does it contribute to understanding the interconnectedness of language, social situations, and conversations?*
➢ *What are the roots of pragmatics in the English language, and how did the term "Pragmatics" evolve into a subfield of linguistics in the 1970s?*
➢ *How did Charles Morris contribute to the development of pragmatics in 1947, and what aspects of language and behaviour did he emphasize in his theory presented in the book 'Signs, Language and Behaviour'?*
➢ *In Erving Goffman's theory of face, how is "face" defined, and what role does it play in social interactions according to his 1955 work?*
➢ *What is the Cooperative Principle introduced by H. Paul Grice in 1975, and how does it shape participants' behaviour in a conversation? Additionally, what is the significance of Grice's concept of 'conversational implicature'?*
➢ *How does J.L. Austin's Speech Act Theory, introduced in 1975, view speech as a form of 'acting in the world,' and how does J.R. Searle further develop this theory by considering locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts?*
➢ *What role does the Politeness theory, developed by Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson during the 1970s, play within the field of pragmatics? How does it draw on Erving Goffman's face theory, and what aspects of politeness does it specifically examine?*

2.2 Key concepts of pragmatics
In pragmatics, we investigate people's intended meanings, assumptions, purposes, goals, and actions they convey when speaking. Pragmatics aids in *understanding each*

other linguistically, demanding an interpretation of individuals and their underlying thoughts. It operates on the premise that people generally adhere to consistent language use patterns, stemming from their membership in social groups with shared behavioral expectations. Additionally, most individuals within a linguistic community possess *similar fundamental life experiences* and *share substantial non-linguistic knowledge*.

Pragmatics encompasses various aspects, including the exploration of the *speaker's meaning and contextual meaning*, the study of how *communication extends beyond explicit words* and the examination of *expressions of relative distance*. It focuses on everyday language use that does not fit into formal analytical systems (Yule 1998).

Furthermore, according to Peccei (1999), pragmatics examines disparities between semantic and pragmatic meanings, investigating how words convey meaning and exploring the nuanced ways words mean more than their literal definitions. It analyses implied meanings, assumed ideas, logical deductions, and how shared knowledge influences our understanding of sentences beyond their surface meanings (entailment, presupposition, implicature).

The concept of *deixis (pointing via language)* is a vital component of pragmatics, aiding in the interpretation of speech in context. (English, Pragmatics, Deixis, (2024). Deixis refers to words or phrases that indicate the time, place, or situation a speaker is referring to during communication (Hirschová 2022).

Reference, another dimension of pragmatics, involves a speaker or writer using linguistic forms to help the listener or reader identify something. Referring expressions, such as proper nouns, definite and indefinite noun phrases, and pronouns, are chosen based on the speaker's assumptions about the listener's existing knowledge. The idea behind a reference is that shared understanding between speakers reduces the need for extensive language use to identify familiar elements. *Inference* plays a crucial role in successful reference, as listeners must deduce correctly which entity the speaker intends to identify due to the absence of a direct relationship between entities and words (Yule 1998).

Speech acts, a fundamental aspect of pragmatics, gain particular significance in formal environments like organizations or professional settings. Within the realm of speech acts, the exploration of politeness and an understanding of how language shapes social interactions are discussed. Language, in this context, goes beyond mere communication; it becomes a tool for individuals to navigate their societal roles, adhering to social rules that dictate whether people express themselves politely or impolitely (Peccei 1999).

Pragmatics also delves into the *concept of 'face,'* representing how individuals wish to present themselves publicly. It investigates how people manage this 'face' during communication.

Moreover, pragmatics addresses *language and power*, examining how language serves as a means to express one's identity, authority, and sense of empowerment.

Questions

➢ *How does pragmatics contribute to understanding people's intended meanings, assumptions, purposes, goals, and actions when they speak?*

➢ *In what ways does pragmatics explore the speaker's meaning and contextual meaning, and why is the study of how communication extends beyond explicit words a crucial aspect of this field?*

➢ *How does the concept of deixis, particularly pointing via language, contribute to the interpretation of speech in context, and how do words or phrases associated with deixis indicate the time, place, or situation a speaker is referring to during communication?*

➢ *In reference, how do referring expressions, such as proper nouns, definite and indefinite noun phrases, and pronouns, contribute to successful communication, and how does shared understanding between speakers reduce the need for extensive language use to identify familiar elements?*

➢ *Within speech acts, especially in formal environments, how is politeness explored in pragmatics?*

2.3 Semantic and pragmatic meaning

Understanding language in context through pragmatics is crucial and provides a valuable foundation for comprehending language interactions. If every utterance required a thorough explanation, informal expressions like slang would be impossible, jokes might lose their humour, and conversations would become excessively lengthy.

An illustration of pragmatics in action can be found in the example: 'What time do you call this?!' While the *literal meaning* refers to asking the time, the *intended meaning* is a criticism for being late. Thanks to pragmatic insights, we recognize that the speaker is not interested in the time, but is emphasizing the unpunctuality of the other person. In such cases, an apology is more appropriate than providing the actual time.

Pragmatics constitutes one of the seven linguistic frameworks forming the core of language study, alongside phonetics, phonology, morphology, grammar, syntax, and semantics. Semantics and pragmatics stand out as primary branches of linguistics, with semantics focusing on the meaning derived from grammar and vocabulary without considering context or inferred meanings. On the other hand, pragmatics delves into the same words within their social context, exploring the relationship between social context and language.

Semantics examines the *literal meanings of words*, restricting its examination to the connections between words. In contrast, *pragmatics* studies *words and their meanings in context*, encompassing the intended meaning of words and examining the associations between words, conversational participants, and the surrounding context. For instance, in the statement "It's cold in here, isn't it?" semantics interprets it as a query about the

room's temperature, while pragmatics acknowledges that there may be an additional meaning, such as a hint to adjust the heating or close the window, with the context providing clarity (English, Pragmatics, Semantics vs. Pragmatics, 2024).

Questions
➢ *How does the understanding of language in context through pragmatics contribute to the preservation of informal expressions like slang, the humour in jokes, and the efficiency of conversations?*
➢ *Can you provide another example illustrating how pragmatics influences the interpretation of language beyond its literal meaning, similar to the case of 'What time do you call this?!'?*
➢ *In what ways do semantics and pragmatics differ in their approach to language study?*

2.4 The theories in pragmatics

The conversational implicature
The theory of 'conversational implicature,' sometimes referred to as 'implicature,' was introduced by Paul Grice. This concept focuses on indirect speech acts, aiming to understand the intended meaning behind a speaker's words, even when not explicitly stated. It involves a form of communication that relies on implied messages.

Conversational implicature is closely connected to Grice's Cooperative Principle, which assumes that both the speaker and listener are cooperating in the communication process. This theory suggests that speakers can imply information with the confidence that the listener will grasp the intended meaning (English, Pragmatics, Conversational Implicature, 2024).

The cooperative principle
The 'cooperative principle,' formulated by Paul Grice, explains the reasons conversations typically succeed rather than fail. This theory, grounded in the concept of cooperation, posits that speakers naturally aim to collaborate during communication, eliminating potential hindrances to comprehension. Grice emphasizes the importance of effective communication, asserting that when engaging in conversation, it is crucial to express enough information to convey one's point, be truthful, remain relevant, and strive for clarity. This leads to Grice's 4 Maxims, representing the four assumptions guiding interactions with others (English, Pragmatics, Grice`s Conversational Maxims, 2024):

Maxim of Quality: Speakers will convey the truth or their sincere beliefs.
Maxim of Quantity: Speakers will provide an adequate amount of information.
Maxim of Relevance: Speakers will contribute information relevant to the ongoing conversation.
Maxim of Manner: Speakers will communicate clearly and helpfully.

The politeness theory: facework

In the 1970s, Politeness Theory, conceived by Penelope Brown and Steven Levinson, provided insights into the mechanisms of politeness in communication. This theory is built around the fundamental concept of 'saving face,' emphasizing the preservation of one's public image and the avoidance of potential humiliation. Within the framework of Politeness Theory, Brown and Levinson introduce two essential aspects of face.

Positive face, which relates to self-esteem, encapsulates the desire to be liked, loved, and considered reliable. A *negative face*, tied to the desire for unhindered action, involves being free from impediments.

When individuals exhibit politeness, they are effectively appealing to either positive or negative face. *Appealing to a positive face* entails making the person feel positive and valued, as exemplified by a statement like "You always wear such lovely clothes! I'd love to borrow something one day."

On the other hand, *appealing to a negative face* involves ensuring that the person does not feel taken advantage of. An illustration of this is seen in a request such as "I know it's a real pain, and I hope you don't mind, but could you please print these off for me?" Politeness, according to this theory, operates as a nuanced tool, considering the intricate balance between positive and negative face in interpersonal interactions (English, Pragmatics, Politeness Theory, 2024).

The speech act theory

The philosopher Austin (1962) first introduced Speech Act theory which was developed by American philosopher J. R Searle.

According to Speech Act theory, our *verbal expressions* involve not only *conveying descriptive meanings* but also *engaging in actions* within the world. Our words possess the capacity to not just describe a situation but also influence those around us, prompting them to act, think, or respond in specific ways based on what we say.

When someone utters a statement like 'It's cold in here, isn't it?' it raises the question of whether they are merely describing a current state of affairs or attempting to enact a change by encouraging someone to take action, such as closing the window. The theory emphasises the *dual nature of language*, where words serve both a descriptive purpose and an influential role in shaping the actions of others.

The theory of speech acts acknowledges *language as a tool for actions*, asserting that verbal expressions go beyond mere reflection of meaning. Language is seen as a means to achieve goals and accomplish specific tasks within particular contexts.

In contemporary times, speech act theory finds application in various disciplines, including linguistics, philosophy, psychology, legal theory, and even artificial intelligence.

2.5 Speech acts and speech events

Philosopher Austin initially introduced Speech Act theory and it was later developed by American philosopher J.R. Searle (1969). This theory explores how words are not only a means of conveying information but also a tool for performing actions or influencing others to perform them. Both philosophers aimed to comprehend the extent to which language engages in *locutionary acts* (utterance), *illocutionary acts* (expressing something with a purpose), and *perlocutionary acts* (saying something that prompts others to act).

A *locutionary act* involves the basic production of an utterance, encompassing all verbal, social, and rhetorical meanings. For instance, Charly sees a spider and exclaims, 'Eurgh, I hate spiders.'

An illocutionary act is the active result of the implied meaning from the locutionary act. In the same example, the listener infers that Charly hates spiders and probably wants the spider away.

A perlocutionary act is the effect of locutionary and illocutionary acts on the listener, potentially influencing their behaviour or thoughts. It can be considered as the impact or force of a speech act. Continuing with the example, based on the implied understanding, the listener might get up and remove the spider.

Speech acts are related to the speaker's *communicative intention* when producing an utterance. The speaker expects that his/her communicative intention will be *recognized by the hearer*. Both are helped in this process by circumstances surrounding the utterance *(speech events)*.

John Searle categorized the *purposes of different speech acts* into five categories (in Peccei 1999):

Assertives/Representatives: The speaker asserts an idea, opinion, or suggestion, presenting facts about the world, like 'Paris is the capital of France' or 'I watched a great documentary last night.'

Commissives: The speaker commits to doing something in the future, like making a promise, plan, vow, or bet.

Directives: The speaker intends to get the listener to do something, whether it's giving an order, offering advice, or making a request.

Expressives: The speaker communicates something about their psychological attitudes or attitudes toward a situation, such as an apology or expression of gratitude.

Declarations: The speaker declares something that has the potential to bring about a change in the world, such as 'I now declare you husband and wife' or 'You're fired!'

Rogatives were an extra category proposed by Leech (1983) to ask for information (asking, querying, questioning).

In summary, Speech act theory explores how language goes beyond conveying information and shaping actions and intentions. Categorizing speech acts helps understand their roles - locutionary (utterance), illocutionary (expressing purpose), and perlocutionary (prompting action) (English, Pragmatics, Speech Acts, 2024).

Questions
- *How did Speech Act theory originate, and who were the key philosophers involved in its development?*
- *Can you distinguish between locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts, providing examples to illustrate each?*
- *What are John Searle's five categories of speech acts, and can you provide examples for each category?*
- *Could you elaborate on the additional category of "Rogatives" proposed by Leech and how it relates to speech acts, especially in the context of requesting information?*

2.6 Specific types of social interaction

Social interaction refers to how individuals behave in each other's company, involving both verbal and non-verbal communication. There are five primary types of social interaction: *exchange, cooperation, competition, conflict,* and *accommodation*.

Exchange: The fundamental form of social interaction, exchange, occurs when individuals interact to receive some form of reward. This implies that most social behaviours are performed with the expectation of benefiting in some manner, whether emotionally, financially, or physically. People typically associate with others from whom they can derive some advantage.

Cooperation: Cooperation involves individuals working together to achieve a common goal. When people share similar desires, they are inclined to cooperate. Cooperation is essential for various aspects of human life, as seen in collaborative efforts for creating events, projects, or festivals. Effective communication is a prerequisite for cooperation.

Competition: Competition arises when individuals or groups vie against each other to attain a reward, such as control over resources or peer respect. Biologically ingrained, competition traces back to our ancestors' struggles for physical and non-physical resources. In modern times, competition manifests in various forms, reflecting a natural human characteristic.

Conflict: Conflict occurs when there is a clash between the personal interests of individuals or groups. This arises when parties fail to cooperate, and their desires do not align. Conflict is a common aspect of human existence, often stemming from the inherent misalignment of individual wants and needs. Additionally, conflict may arise from offences in social interactions.

Accommodation: Accommodation serves as a middle ground between conflict and cooperation, akin to a compromise. When parties in a disagreement or conflict cannot reach an agreement, accommodation involves finding a middle path. In this process, each party relinquishes some of its demands to move forward, resulting in a situation where everyone gains something, even if not everything (ibid.).

Accommodation may take the form of a truce or mediation, where involved parties actively work towards a solution, emphasizing the importance of finding common ground in social interactions (English, International English, Social Interaction, 2024).

Politeness and interaction

To comprehend communication in an interaction, attention must be paid to factors related to social distance and closeness. *External factors*, determined before an interaction, hinge on participants' relative status based on social values like age or power, primarily influencing interactions with strangers. *Internal factors* are often negotiated during the interaction, involving considerations such as the level of imposition and degree of friendliness, potentially altering the initial social distance. These factors are particularly relevant to participants whose relationship is evolving within the ongoing interaction (Peccei 1999).

Geoffrey Leech (1983) introduced the *Tact maxim* to capture this tendency, emphasizing the *need to minimize the cost to others while maximizing the benefit*. This maxim is applicable when the speaker is requesting some form of action from the hearer, with greater politeness perceived when the action imposes a smaller 'cost' on the hearer.

Leech also proposed the *Approbation maxim*, advocating for *the minimization of dispraise and the maximization of praise towards other*s. Speaking positively about someone is considered more polite than expressing negativity, and if criticism is necessary, an indirect approach is deemed more courteous.

Addressing potential conflicts between truthfulness and politeness, Leech introduced the *Agreement maxim*, urging speakers *to minimize disagreement with others while maximizing agreement*.

The *Modesty maxim* by Leech encourages the speaker to downplay self-praise while accentuating self-dispraise.

Leech's *Generosity maxim* recommends minimizing the expression of self-benefiting beliefs while maximizing those that incur personal cost, focusing on putting others before oneself.

The *Sympathy maxim* highlights the importance of *minimizing antipathy and maximizing sympathy in interactions*, encompassing speech acts like congratulations and condolences. This aligns with Brown and Levinson's positive politeness strategy, which involves attending to the hearer's interests, wants, and needs.

Questions
➢ *What is the fundamental nature of exchange in social interaction, and how does it influence individuals' behaviours?*
➢ *In what ways does cooperation contribute to achieving common goals, and why is effective communication crucial for cooperation?*
➢ *How does competition manifest in modern society, and what are the biological roots of the human tendency to compete?*
➢ *What are the common causes of conflict in social interactions?*
➢ *Explain the concept of accommodation in social interaction providing examples of its implementation.*
➢ *How do external factors, such as relative status based on age or power, influence interactions, especially with strangers, before an interaction takes place?*
➢ *In what ways do internal factors, like the level of imposition and degree of friendliness, play a role in negotiating social distance during an interaction, particularly for participants whose relationship is evolving?*
➢ *How does Geoffrey Leech's Tact maxim contribute to understanding politeness in communication?*
➢ *Can you provide examples of how Leech's Approbation maxim suggests minimizing dispraise and maximizing praise in communication, emphasizing positivity over negativity?*
➢ *How does Leech's Agreement maxim help address conflicts between truthfulness and politeness, guiding speakers to minimize disagreement while maximizing agreement in their interactions?*
➢ *In what ways does Leech's Modesty maxim shape communication by encouraging speakers to downplay self-praise and emphasize self-dispraise?*
➢ *How does Leech's Generosity maxim impact communication, minimizing self-benefiting beliefs and maximizing personal cost, with a focus on putting others before oneself?*

➢ *Can you provide examples illustrating how the Sympathy maxim, influenced by Brown and Levinson's positive politeness strategy, minimizes antipathy and maximizes sympathy in congratulations and condolences?*

2.7 Discourse

Discourse extends beyond individual sentences in the English language. It enables the effective expression of ideas and thoughts and facilitates comprehension and interpretation of others' perspectives or opinions. It fosters relationship-building through proficient communication. Language teachers and researchers find discourse analysis crucial for gaining insights into language utilization and development.

Discourse involves *the exchange of ideas through spoken or written communication*. It encompasses connected speech or writing that extends beyond a single sentence, possessing a coherent meaning and a distinct purpose. For instance, engaging in a conversation with friends in person or through a chat platform establishes a form of discourse. Additionally, when an individual systematically and formally expresses their ideas on a specific subject, whether verbally or in writing, it also qualifies as discourse.

Discourse encompasses various forms of communication such as *spoken discourse, written discourse* or *civil discourse.*

Spoken discourse, a fundamental aspect of human interaction, involves expressing and discussing thoughts and feelings. Consider the prevalence of conversation in our daily lives – it serves as a valuable enrichment, particularly when conducted with politeness and civility.

Written discourse, encompassing various forms such as novels, poems, diaries, plays, and film scripts, serves as a source of shared information over decades.

Civil discourse represents a type of conversation where all participants have an equal opportunity to express their views without one dominating the discussion. Those involved in civil discourse strive to foster understanding and promote the social good through open and honest dialogue. Participating in such conversations contributes to peaceful coexistence in society.

There are *four discourse types*, each serving distinct purposes. *Description* involves portraying an item or subject, invoking the audience's senses, commonly found in essays, novels, and advertisements. *Narration* focuses on storytelling through a narrator, seen in novels, short stories, and plays. *Exposition* communicates neutral background information, encompassing definitions, comparative analysis, exemplification, reasons, outcomes, problem and solution. *Argumentation* seeks to persuade, evident in lectures, essays, and public speeches (English, Discourse, 2024).

Discourse analysis as a research method in pragmatics

Discourse analysis is the study of spoken or written language in context and explains how language defines our world and our social relations.

Discourse analysis, a *qualitative research method* within various disciplines like linguistics, sociology, and media studies, involves a thorough *examination of written, spoken, non-verbal, and visual language in its context*. Discourse analysts explore how language conveys meaning through *vocabulary, grammar, gestures, facial expressions, imagery*, and other elements within entire sections of planned or spontaneous language.

Crucial to discourse analysis is considering language use within its social context, encompassing *societal norms, political climate, time, place, intended audience, and the speaker's socio-cultural background*. Discourse analysis serves to comprehend the complex functions of language in real-life situations, creating meaning, and keeping social norms and common knowledge.

Discourse analysts study language's societal impact and how it influences interactions, employing discourse analysis on various sources like *newspapers, novels, conversations, song lyrics, adverts,* and *speeches*. The analysis involves examining language features like *vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, genre, non-verbals, paralinguistic features, pragmatics, Grice's conversational maxims, images, colour*, and their relationship with the broader social context.

Two primary types of discourse analysis are *language-in-use analysis* and *socio-political analysis*.

Language-in-use analysis examines *technical language details* like grammar, syntax, phonetics, phonology, and prosody, focusing on linguistic properties.

Socio-political analysis explores the dynamic *relationship between language and society*, particularly concerning language and power. *Critical discourse analysis* is the predominant method used for socio-political discourse analysis (English, Discourse, Discourse Analysis, 2024).

Critical discourse analysis as a research method in pragmatics

Critical discourse analysis is a cross-disciplinary approach employed in discourse study, focusing on language as a societal phenomenon. This method examines the shape, composition, substance, and reception of discourse in both oral and written formats. It explores social connections, societal issues, and the impact of discourse on generating and perpetuating power misuse or dominance in communication.

Critical discourse analysis is frequently applied in analysing rhetoric within *political discourse, media, education,* and *various forms of speech addressing power dynamics*.

Linguist Norman Fairclough's (1989, 1995) model for CDA encompasses *three analytical processes* linked to three interlinked discourse dimensions: *the subject of analysis*, involving visual or verbal texts, then *the procedure* by which the subject was generated and received by individuals (encompassing writing, speaking, designing, and reading, as well as listening and viewing), and *the socio-historical conditions* shaping or influencing these processes.

These dimensions require diverse forms of analysis, including *text analysis* (description), *processing analysis* (interpretation), and *social analysis* (explanation).

Critical discourse analysis explores power dynamics, dominance, and inequality, and how social groups either preserve or resist these through spoken or written communication (English, Discourse, Discourse Analysis, 2024).

Questions:
➢ *In what contexts does spoken discourse play a fundamental role in human interaction, and what benefits does it bring, as mentioned in the text?*
➢ *How does written discourse, encompassing various forms like novels, poems, diaries, plays, and film scripts, serve as a source of shared information over decades?*
➢ *What are the distinct purposes of the four discourse types – description, narration, exposition, and argumentation – and how are they exemplified in different forms of communication?*
➢ *Can you elaborate on the language features that discourse analysts examine, and how these features contribute to the societal impact of language, as discussed in the text?*
➢ *How does critical discourse analysis (CDA) view language, and what aspects of discourse does CDA specifically examine in both oral and written formats?*
➢ *According to the text, in what contexts is critical discourse analysis frequently applied, and what are the three analytical processes and discourse dimensions outlined in Norman Fairclough's model for CDA?*
➢ *How does critical discourse analysis contribute to the exploration of power dynamics, dominance, and inequality, and what are the three different forms of analysis mentioned that are required to understand the dimensions of discourse in CDA?*

2.8 Examples of research studies in pragmatics
Many linguists have carried out research into various aspects of spoken discourse (written or spoken communication). The following studies were conducted on workplace-specific communication by Drew and Heritage (1992) and Koester (2004).

Paul Drew's and John Heritage's Institutional Talk (1992)
Paul Drew and John Heritage played significant roles in the study of 'Institutional Talk,' which refers to communication within settings like workplaces, schools, courts, hospitals, and governmental bodies. Their theory emphasizes the distinct features of institutional talk compared to everyday conversation. These elements encompass predetermined roles (like interviewer/interviewee), limitations on speech, specialized vocabulary usage, and the goal-directed nature of the exchange. Drew and Heritage state that these interactions follow distinct patterns and structures, shaped by the specific institutional setting.

In 1992, they collected and summarised multiple research pieces into their institutional talk theory. They identified six characteristic elements: *goal orientation, turn-*

taking rules, allowable contributions, professional vocabulary, structures, and *asymmetry*.

Goal orientation implies that participants in institutional talk share common objectives, like exchanging information or giving and receiving instructions. When lacking a shared goal, conversations can become inefficient or lead to unproductive arguments, reflecting poorly on the speaker's professionalism. For instance, in a classroom, the teacher and students share the goal of learning, which dictates specific language use and turn-taking rules. The teacher's authority allows longer speaking turns but also encourages student participation through questions. Adhering to these rules fosters cooperative communication, aiding in reaching shared objectives.

In ordinary conversation, implicit *turn-taking rules* indicate politeness and respect, demonstrating regard for the conversation partner. For example, in the classroom, the teacher holds more power, initiating, leading, and ending discussions. If a student disrupts the established turn-taking rule, the teacher can intervene due to their authoritative position.

Allowable contributions signify restrictions on what one can contribute in institutional interactions, often reflecting social hierarchies.

In every institutional environment, there exists a distinct group of commonly used words and expressions related to that specific setting. This vocabulary differs from the language used in everyday conversations and is termed "*professional lexis*" by Drew and Heritage. Each institutional context, such as various workplaces, has its own set of specialized terms and phrases, facilitating effective and unambiguous communication among those involved.

Research indicates that each institutional setting has its conventions for *communication structure*, contrasting with flexible social conversations. For instance, dental check-ups follow a consistent pattern: patient greeting, examination, assistant communication, patient briefing, and scheduling.

Finally, Drew and Heritage discuss *asymmetry*, focusing on power dynamics and roles within interactions. Power can dictate who speaks first, holds the floor, and guides the conversation's direction. Role-based asymmetry arises from workplace requirements, necessitating varying levels of participation.

Almut Koester's Phatic Talk and Banter (2004)

Almut Koester, renowned for her research in spoken workplace discourse, investigated phatic talk (small talk) in her 2004 study "Relational sequences in workplace genres." Phatic talk (small talk) and communication refer to the use of language for establishing and sustaining social relationships, as opposed to conveying informational content.

Koester (2004) conducted her research in three distinct workplace settings in the UK and the USA, namely university offices, editorial offices within publishing companies, and

editorial offices outside of publishing. These professional work environments were chosen to reflect typical language usage in workplace interactions.

The data was collected within 30 hours and transcribed into 66 conversations. While most of these conversations involved two participants and were task-oriented, they carried an informal tone. The tasks encompassed making arrangements, decision-making, making requests, giving instructions, and reporting information. Some exceptions included instances of small talk, office gossip, and joking.

To analyse these interactions, Koester employed *conversation analysis*, aiming to understand the dynamics at play in each conversation.

Koester's study focused on shorter units of small talk in workplace conversations, examining patterns in their usage. The findings revealed that when phatic talk appeared, participants shared common goals, evident at four levels of interaction: *non-transactional conversations, phatic communion, relational episodes, and relational sequences and turns.*

Non-transactional conversations revolved around office gossip, small talk, and banter, for example, discussing weekend activities. *Phatic communion* referred specifically to small talk occurring at the beginning or end of a transactional interaction, serving to underscore the social value of the relationship. *Relational episodes* involved instances of small talk, and office gossip, during a transactional interaction, often turning off-topic and then returning to the main task. *Relational sequences and turns* focused on conversations primarily geared towards relationship-building, where topics like gossip, or small talk coexisted with a task-related element, such as discussing social plans while working in the office.

Drew and Heritage focus on 'Institutional Talk,' highlighting features like predetermined roles and specialized vocabulary. They identify six elements, providing a comprehensive understanding of communication in various institutional settings. Koester explores 'Phatic Talk and Banter,' emphasizing the role of small talk in workplaces. Her study reveals patterns in phatic talk, showing its importance in building social relationships within professional contexts. These studies enhance our understanding of formal and informal discourse dynamics in the workplace.

Questions
➢ *How do predetermined roles, limitations on speech, specialized vocabulary usage, and the goal-directed nature distinguish institutional talk from everyday conversation, as emphasized by Drew and Heritage in their theory?*
➢ *According to Drew and Heritage, how does asymmetry, focusing on power dynamics and roles within interactions, influence who speaks first, holds the floor, and guides the direction of a conversation in institutional settings?*
➢ *How did Koester select and differentiate the three distinct workplace settings in her 2004 study on phatic talk, and why were these particular settings chosen?*

➢ *In what ways did Koester's study on small talk (phatic talk) in workplace interactions reveal the significance of common goals among participants, particularly at the levels of non-transactional conversations, phatic communion, relational episodes, and relational sequences and turns?*

2.9 Language and power: assertive linguistic behaviour

Language is a powerful tool employed by various entities such as *media, news, advertising, politics, speeches, education, law, and religion* to establish and sustain authority. The intricate relationship between language and power is explored through an examination of different types of power and an analysis of language features that represent power.

Wareing (1999) identifies three main types of power - *political, personal,* and *social group power* - categorized into *instrumental* and *influential power*.

Instrumental power, associated with figures like head teachers and government officials, is authoritative and utilizes formal language features. On the other hand, *influential power*, found in politics, the media, and marketing, seeks to persuade and uses language features like assertions, metaphors, loaded language, and embedded assumptions.

Characteristics of *language associated with instrumental power* encompass the use of a *formal register*, employing *imperative sentences* for issuing requests, demands, or advice, incorporating *modal verbs* like 'you should' or 'you must', *utilizing mitigation* to soften the seriousness of statements, constructing *conditional sentences* such as 'if you don't respond soon, further action will be taken,' presenting *declarative statements* like 'in today's class we will look at declarative statements,' and integrating *words derived from Latin*.

Characteristics of *language linked to influential power* encompass making assertions by presenting opinions as facts, for instance, stating, 'We all know that England is the greatest country in the world.' This style also involves using *metaphors* to provide reassurance and tap into the power of memory, creating a connection between the speaker and the listener through established metaphors. Additionally, influential power language incorporates *loaded language* designed to evoke strong emotions or exploit feelings and integrates *embedded assumptions*, such as assuming the listener is genuinely interested in the speaker's message.

We can examine spoken conversational features to identify power dynamics between participants and to see who holds power based on which language features they use. The *participant in a dominant role* establishes the topic and atmosphere of the conversation, directs its course, speaks the most, interrupts and overlaps others, and may become unresponsive when reaching a limit. On the other hand, *the participant in a submissive role* responds to the dominant participant, aligns with the directional changes, listens

attentively, refrains from interrupting others, and employs more formal forms of address ('sir', 'ma'am' etc.).

The connection between language and power is particularly evident in *politics*, where political rhetoric employs strategies like repetition, the rule of three, rhetorical questions, and changes in tone to persuade and influence. Additionally, the discourse in conversations reflects power dynamics through features like lexical choices, grammar usage, and phonological elements, allowing one to discern dominant and submissive participants based on their language features in a conversation (English, Key Concepts in Language and Linguistics, Language and Power, 2024).

Questions:
➢ *How does language function in various domains, including media, news, advertising, politics, speeches, education, law, and religion, to establish and maintain authority?*
➢ *According to linguist Shân Wareing, what are the three main types of power, and how are they categorized into instrumental and influential power?*
➢ *What are the characteristics associated with instrumental power in language, and how do they contribute to an authoritative communication style?*
➢ *How does influential power, as observed in politics, media, and marketing, use specific language features such as assertions, metaphors, loaded language, and embedded assumptions to persuade and influence?*
➢ *In spoken conversations, what are the defining features that help identify power dynamics between participants, distinguishing dominant and submissive roles based on language use?*
➢ *In the context of politics, how is the relationship between language and power evident in political rhetoric, utilizing strategies like repetition, the rule of three, rhetorical questions, and changes in tone to persuade and influence?*

Language and power theories
Comprehending language and power theories is crucial for recognizing instances where language is employed to uphold authority. In conversations, individuals with existing power or those aspiring to gain it employ specific strategies to establish dominance. These tactics encompass interrupting others, displaying politeness or impoliteness, executing face-saving or face-threatening acts, and violating Grice's Maxims.

The key *language and power theories* are Fairclough's Language and Power (1984), Goffman's Face Work Theory (1967), Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory (1987), Coulthard and Sinclair's Initiation-Response-Feedback Model (1975), and Grice's Conversational Maxims (1975)

Fairclough (1984) explains the role of language as a tool for establishing and preserving power dynamics in society. He states that various encounters, encompassing

not only conversations but also activities like *reading advertisements, exhibit inherent inequalities, with language reflecting societal power structures*. He suggests that in capitalist societies, power relations manifest between *dominant entities* like business or landowners and *their workers*. He coins the term *'critical discourse analysis'*. Critical discourse analysis involves examining power in discourse - exploring the lexicon, strategies, and language structures employed to establish power - and power behind discourse, investigating the sociological and ideological motives for asserting power and its targets. Additionally, Fairclough investigates the power dynamics within advertising, introducing the concept of 'synthetic personalization.' This technique, utilized by large corporations, aims to foster a sense of friendship with potential customers by addressing them personally.

Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson (1987) formulated their *Politeness Theory* in, drawing inspiration from Erving Goffman's Face Work theory developed in 1967. Facework involves the effort to maintain one's own 'face' and respect or uphold the 'face' of others. Brown and Levinson state that the *degree of politeness* employed in interactions often hinges on *power dynamics*, with increased politeness directed towards more powerful individuals. The key concepts in this context are 'face-saving acts,' aimed at preventing public embarrassment for others, and 'face-threatening acts,' which encompass behaviours that may cause embarrassment. Individuals in *less influential positions* are more *inclined to engage in face-saving acts* for those in more authoritative positions.

The *Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) model* was presented by Sinclair and Coulthard in 1975. This model is applicable for illustrating and emphasizing power dynamics between the teacher and the student within a classroom setting. According to Sinclair and Coulthard, the teacher, holding the position of power, initiates the discourse through a question, the student, lacking power, responds, and the teacher subsequently offers feedback.

Grice's conversational maxims, also referred to as *'The Gricean Maxims,'* derive from Grice's Cooperative Principle, which explains how individuals achieve effective communication in everyday scenarios. In his work "Logic and Conversation" (1975), Grice introduced four conversational maxims: the maxim of quality, the maxim of quantity, the maxim of relevance, and the maxim of clarity. These maxims are grounded in Grice's observation that individuals aiming for meaningful conversation typically try to be *truthful, informative, relevant,* and *clear*.

However, these conversational maxims are not universally followed and are frequently violated or flouted. *Violating maxims*, such as lying, is considered quite serious while *flouting maxims,* a less severe form of deviation, occurs more frequently. Examples of flouting Grice's Maxims include irony, metaphors, pretending to mishear, and using vocabulary the listener will not comprehend. Grice proposed that *individuals with more*

power or those seeking to create the illusion of greater power *are more inclined to violate or flout the maxims* during conversations.

Questions

➢ *How does Fairclough's concept of 'critical discourse analysis' contribute to our understanding of power dynamics?*

➢ *According to Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory, how do the concepts of 'face-saving acts' and 'face-threatening acts' influence interactions, particularly concerning power dynamics?*

➢ *In the context of the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF), how does power manifest between the teacher and the student within a classroom setting, and how does this model illustrate power dynamics in educational discourse?*

➢ *How are Grice's four conversational maxims typically followed, and in what ways are they violated or flouted in communication?*

➢ *How does Grice suggest that individuals with more power or those aspiring to create the illusion of greater power are more likely to flout his conversational maxims during interactions?*

2.10 Cultural linguistics, cultural pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics and intercultural pragmatics

Pragmatics, often overlooked in L2 teaching, plays a vital role in language proficiency, with Cultural Linguistics employing tools like cultural pragmatic schemas. The theory of cultural pragmatics innovatively unites meaning structures and cultural elements, exceeding existing divisions. Cross-cultural pragmatics explores language meaning in diverse settings, offering insights for applied linguistics and enhancing communication understanding.

Cultural linguistics utilizes analytical instruments like cultural schemas, cultural categories, and cultural metaphors. Within these, cultural pragmatic schemas form a specific category serving as a foundation for conveying pragmatic meaning (Sharifian 2016).

A *cultural pragmatics theory* goes beyond existing divisions by uniting meaning structures, contingency, power, and materiality innovatively (Alexander 2004).

Cross-cultural pragmatics studies how language gains meaning through context and cultural embedding. Since meaning is not built into our words, understanding depends on context, speaker dynamics, and shared knowledge. The key focus is on the speaker's intention and how listeners interpret it, which may not always align. As cultural differences increase, the chances of understanding as intended decrease. Cross-cultural pragmatics aims to explore cultural patterns in specific settings, helping language learners navigate communication effectively (Stadler 2018).

Cross-cultural pragmatics (CCP) *and interlanguage pragmatics* (IP) have distinct views on cross-cultural communication. CCP believes that people from different societies follow their pragmatic norms, leading to clashes and mutual misunderstandings. These misunderstandings are usually mutual, with each group misinterpreting the other. In a world where cross-cultural interaction is common, diverse speech rules can contribute to stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination. CCP research is vital for addressing these issues, emphasizing the role of applied linguistics in fostering mutual understanding by examining discourse in cross-cultural pragmatics (Boxer 2002).

Intercultural pragmatics is a research area focused on language use in communication between individuals from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. To comprehend the unique characteristics of intercultural pragmatics as a distinct research field, it is essential to differentiate it from two closely related paradigms mentioned before: cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics (Cogo and House 2017).

Questions:
➢ *How does the role of pragmatics in language proficiency impact the effectiveness of L2 teaching, especially considering its often-neglected status?*
➢ *In what ways does Cultural Linguistics, through the use of tools like cultural pragmatic schemas, contribute to the understanding and conveyance of pragmatic meaning?*
➢ *How does the theory of cultural pragmatics, as described by Alexander (2004), integrate meaning structures, contingency, power, and materiality in a novel manner, surpassing existing divisions?*
➢ *Why is it important to consider context, speaker dynamics, and shared knowledge for understanding language in cross-cultural communication?*

3 Psycholinguistics

3.1 Defining psycholinguistics and its multidisciplinary nature

Psycholinguistics studies the relationship between human language and thinking. Human communication is based on sharing information via natural languages. While natural languages are studied by linguistics, the mental processes behind producing and comprehending the message are studied by psychology.

In other words, psycholinguistics investigates the interactions between linguistic and psychological factors of verbal communication. The discipline is primarily concerned with the psychological (related to the mind) and neurobiological (related to the brain) mechanisms that allow humans to acquire, use, comprehend, and produce language. Since language is a psychological reality, it also studies what a language can tell us about the ways the human mind works. Similarly, it studies whether these mental processes enabling humans verbal communication do have any impact on human culture (Caplan, 1994; De Bo, 2000; Dörnyei, 2009; Fernandéz & Cairns, 2010; Fernandéz et al., 2020; Gabrys-Barker, 2022; Nebeská, 1992; Rueschemeyer & Gaskell, 2018; Steinberg, 2006; Traxler & Gernsbacher, 2006).

Psycholinguistics studies 3 main areas:

- *language perception and comprehension* (processes involved in receiving, interpreting and understanding language texts through listening & reading),
- *language production* (the processes involved in creating and expressing meaning through speaking and writing),
- *language acquisition* (developing language competence through cognitive processes happening within the individual).

Even though a developed research infrastructure and numerous research studies brough ground-breaking findings; they still provide only partial positive (confirmed by experiments or observations) knowledge. The complete picture has yet to be drawn. Contemporary psycholinguistics is in a great deal based on assumptions and the resulting models of mental processes are designed using the combination of logical reasoning and highest probability rates of collected statistical data.

Thus, several models of language comprehension (for a review of 7 most influential models of comprehension - *the construction-integration theory, the structure-building model, the resonance model, the event-indexing model, the causal network model, the constructionist theory, and the landscape model -* read McNamara & Magliano, 2009) and language production (3 main models are *the serial model, the connectionist model, and*

the lexical access model) have been offered to the academic community for further discussion and confirmation.

Psycholinguistics looks for answers to many important research questions, e.g.:
- How do people generate language?
- How do people understand language they perceive?
- What cognitive processes are involved in the ordinary use of language?
- What knowledge of language is needed for us to use language?
- Which parts of the brain are necessary for language competence?
- How do people learn and use language?
- Can animals learn languages?
- How can humans communicate with machines verbally?
- How do children learn languages?
- How do people who can speak one language learn another?

Therefore, psycholinguistics encompasses a wide range of topics the list of which seems to go on endlessly:
- the mental processes that are activated during the acquisition, production, and comprehension of language
- the cognitive mechanisms that allow humans to acquire patterns and regularities in linguistic input (i.e. language they perceive)
- the relationship between linguistic competence and linguistic performance,
- the role of mental faculties (such as memory, attention, understanding, reasoning, motivation, creativity, decision-making ability, problem-solving ability, motivation, etc.) in verbal communication,
- the problems of mental structures and mental representation of linguistic constructs,
- the acquisition of language competence
- the acquisition of new knowledge through language
- the acquisition of foreign languages (development of bilingualism and plurilingualism)
- biological bases of language and speech pathology,
- impact of brain damage to language (e.g. aphasia)
- developmental language disorders (e.g. dyslexia and dysgraphia)
- verbal communication of deaf people through sign languages,
- verbal communication with non-human creatures (animals) and entities (machines)
- the relationships between language, thought and culture.

Going through the above-mentioned lists of model research questions and research topics, it is obvious that psycholinguistics (as a linguistic discipline) must rely on multidisciplinary research. It integrates linguistic knowledge with knowledge from biology, psychology, neurosciences, cognitive sciences, neurology, neurobiology, psychiatry, sociology, theory of communication, theory of education, and cultural studies.

Moreover, with the continually growing scope of interests, psycholinguistics itself saw the birth of several sub-disciplines, such as *experimental psycholinguistics* (Danks & Glucksberg, 1980; Foss, 1988; Johnson-Laird, 1974), *developmental psycholinguistics* (Rowland & Monaghan, 2017; Sekerina, Fernández, Clahsen, 2008), *computational psycholinguistics* (Crocker, 1996, 2009; Klabunde, 2001; Kučera & Haviger, 2016; Kučera & Havigerová, 2015), *social psycholinguistics* (Ahmad, 2014; Dressler & Moosmüller, 1991; Holler, 2014; Malik, Qin, Oteir, Soomro, 2021), and *neurolinguistics* (c.f. Handke, 2012).

3.2 History of psycholinguistics and its representatives

The human curiosity about the origin of language, its localization in a human body, and its other "hidden" aspects comes back to ancient times.

In ancient mythologies, the human ability to communicate either in oral or written form, was given and protected by the gods (patrons) who were associated with the concept of general wisdom, as well. Such were Saraswati, the Hindu goddess of knowledge, creativity, and speech; Nabu, the Babylonian god of wisdom and writing; Al-Kutbay, the Nabataean god of knowledge and writing; or Nisaba, the Sumerian goddess of writing, learning, and the harvest (Bertman, 2005). Egyptian Seshat was the goddess of wisdom, knowledge, and writing and Armenian Tir was the god of wisdom, written language, rhetoric, schooling, and the arts (Herouni, 2004). Ancient Greek god Hermes was the god of language, learning & crafty wiles. Roman god Fabulinus was the one who taught children to speak.

The first written records on language and its relation to the soul (not the brain since they believed that both the reason and human soul were positioned in the heart) come from Ancient Egyptians. In The Edwin Smith Surgical Papyrus (written about 1700 BC), in case 33, probably the first expert description of aphasia (i.e. a loss of full language competence) after suffering brain trauma is recorded (Altmann, 2001; van Middendorp, Sanchez, & Burridge, 2010).
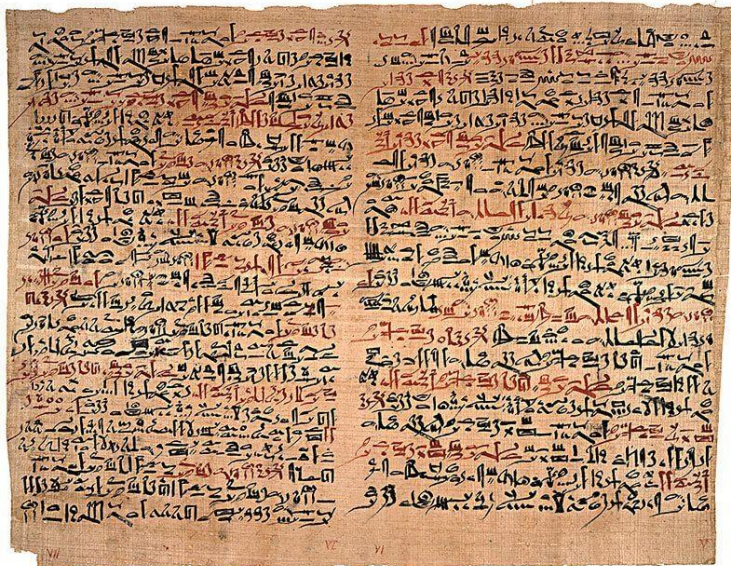
Fig. 3.1: Plates IV – VII from The Edwin Smith Surgical Papyrus (source: Egypt Museum)

For many centuries, people wanted to find out what the man´s natural (first) language was. The curiosity, often emphasized by religious devotion, led to the first isolated psycholinguistic experimental attempts.

On the order of the Egyptian Pharaoh Psamtik (7th century B.C.), a group of babies was brought up in isolation from other people (the only exception were their carers who were either mute or instructed not to speak). The aim was to observe what language the children would speak without external influence. It was recorded that they started speaking Phrygian.

After the similar experiment organized by the Roman emperor and German king Frederick II (1194–1250 AD) all the infants died. Children in the next experiment ordered by King James IV (1473–1513AD) emerged from their isolation speaking Hebrew proving the truth of biblical events. Finally, Mughal emperor Akbar the Great (1542–1605) conducted the similar experiment to learn the children communicated in a form of signed language.

Similarly, people were always wondering why there are so many languages in the world instead of one universal language comprehensible to everyone. The explanations are many and again rooted in religions or myths.

According to the old Aztec myth, first people talked a single language ad lived in peace and unity. After the great flood only two people, Coxcox and Xochiquétzal, survived. They were saved on a boat at the top of the mountain Colhuacan and had many children

afterwords. At first, the children could not speak. Later, a dove visited them and gave them all the gift of speech. But each child could speak a different language and they could not understand each other.

In Africa, a Wa-Sania myth of Bantu people replaces a flood by a famine. At first, people could speak only one language. Then a great famine came, and people went crazy. They started wandering in all directions, babbling incomprehensible words, and this is how many languages around the words occurred.

A somehow brutal story explaining multilinguality of the humankind was offered by one Southern Australian myth (told by the people of Encounter Bay). Once upon a time, an old woman named Wururi lived there who was mean to others and used to cause a lot of trouble. When she died, other people were happy, organized a celebration and invited other tribes. Each tribe then arrived and ate some parts of woman´s body. After doing so, the tribes started talking different languages (Woods, 1879).

Ancient Greeks believed that God Hermes taught people to use many languages. In Christian tradition, the *Book of Genesis* in the Hebrew Bible tells the story about the Tower of Babel. At that time, just a few generations after the Great Flood, people were united, and they all spoke in a single language. They were migrating from the east, coming to the land of Shinar (east of Eden) where they started building a city with a great tower to reach into the heavens. God saw that as a sign of their growing pride. To punish them, he "jumbled their language" so that they could no longer understand each other.

In all ancient myths, language was given to people as a gift or was explained as a consequence of a sudden biological transformation. Thus, people could communicate verbally immediately and without thinking.

Plato (427–347 BC) was the first known author who discussed the relationship between language and the brain as a seat of intelligence. With some exaggeration we can say that he even contemplated the distinctions between words and real objects they name, or words and the contexts in which both objects and words might occur (the topic extremely attractive to contemporary psycholinguists, too). In his well-known Allegory of the Cave (in Republic), a group of prisoners are kept within a cave all their lives. They cannot see the world outside; all they see are the shadows of objects reflected on a wall by the flames of a fire. Understandably, their language similarly describes only those shadows. Thus, Plato, rather unintentionally, pointed out to the indirect relationship between real objects and words used to name them.

Before the first systematic studies were conducted in the second half 19th century when Paul Broca, Carl Wernicke and Ludwig Lichtheim studied the links between the anatomy of human brain and various types of aphasia (language loss) caused by lesions to respective areas of the brain, the relationships between language and the brain were discussed solely by philosophers (Ludwig Wittgenstein, Bertrand Russell, Friedrich Gottlob Frege).

In the 18th century, the study of child language was motivated by the publication of Rousseau's *Émile* (1762), in which he recorded his observations on children's language and encouraged educators to carefully observe the language of their students. This line of psycholinguistics was later significantly enriched in the 19th century when the biographical developmental notes by Darwin (1877) were published. A dozen years prior to this, in 1865, Franciscus Donders established a new research paradigm in experimental psycholinguistics called "mental chronometry", which was the measurement of reaction time to some stimulus. Another important event occurred in 1879 when Wilhelm Wundt, known as the "father of experimental psychology", founded the first psychological laboratory in Leipzig, Germany. In 1900 he published *Die Sprache* in 1900 where he considered language as the outcome of psychological processes and argued that through studying the language, important insights into the nature of mind could be revealed. Wundt's studies contributed to theories of both psycholinguistics and linguistics and highly influenced other researchers' work, such as Hermann Paul (1846–1921).

The new term psycholinguistics first occurred in Jacob Robert Kantor´s book *An Objective Psychology of Grammar* (1936) who, paradoxically, believed that the idea of connection between language and any form of internal cognition or mind was wrong and academically worthless. In 1946, Kantor's student Nicholas Pronko published the work "Psycholinguistics: A Review." When Charles Osgood and Thomas Sebeok's edited and published their book *Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems* (1954), the new discipline was irrevocably established.

After 20 years of sometimes rather heated academic disputes between traditional behaviourists and freshly enthusiastic psycholinguists, the discussion seemed to be solved after publishing Noam Chomsky's important monograph *Syntactic structures* (1957) and his review of Skinner's book *Verbal behaviour* (Chomsky, 1959) where he argued about the lack of any evidence that conditioned stimulus-to-verbal-response associations advocated by behaviourists (Bloomfield, 1933; Skinner, 1957) could explain "the infinite productivity and systematicity of language". As Altmann (2001, p. 131) pointed out, "this was the sticking point between Chomsky and Skinner: Skinner ostensibly eschewed mental representations, and Chomsky proved that language was founded on precisely such representation". Chomsky also introduced new explanations of the ways in which language is learned by children and distinguished between "competence", i.e., the knowledge about a language, and "performance", i.e., the use of that language (Altmann, 2006).

Considering the dominant ideational and methodological determinants, main movements and directions within the development of psycholinguistics after the 1950s were summarized and systemized by Kess (1991) as the Formative, Linguistic, Cognitive, and Cognitive Science periods.

The formative period started in 1951 when a seminar of Social Science Research at Cornell University was organized and was still strongly influenced by behaviourism (in psychology) and structuralism (in linguistics). Three years later, the already mentioned collection of essays *Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research Problems* (1954) edited by Osgood and Sebeok was published. The key issues investigated during this time were: how people comprehend and produce language, how a particular language affects cognition, what the connection between the first and foreign language learning was, and how and under what circumstances they lose language. At that time, psycholinguistics was under strong influence of linguistic structuralism (language is considered as a system of mutually interrelated items), psychological behaviourism (language competence is a learned verbal behaviour as a result of learned habits), and theory of information (language is a specific code used for sharing information between two or more communicators).

During the **linguistic period,** the still emerging discipline of psycholinguistics focused on processes of language comprehension. The cooperation between psychologists and linguists was rather weak at the time, and the initiative was in linguists´ hands. It was then when the generative grammar theory by linguist and philosopher Noam Chomsky who presented his concept of a so-called universal grammar, according to which humans are born with an innate linguistic ability that enables them to quickly acquire their mother tongue. Chomsky (1965) also distinguished between so-called linguistic competence (abstract knowledge of language) and linguistic performance (production of language in real conditions). He pointed out that performance is not always necessarily consistent with competence.

The situation in the psycholinguistics paradigm changed during the **cognitive period** when contributions by psychologists became dominant. The main premise of the period was the belief in dependence of language upon human cognition. The roots for this period were laid by George A. Miller who published *Language and Communication* (1951) and contributed to founding of cognitive psychology and cognitive neuroscience, which further inspired the psychological study of human communication and hence psycholinguistics. In the Cognitive period, psycholinguistics was seen as a branch of cognitive psychology, studied language processes from psychological perspective solely, and thus was entirely independent of linguistics. The attention was paid mostly to investigation of children's language acquisition, first and other language learning, and causes of linguistic disabilities. As the impact of the rapid evolution of digital computing, the 'mind-as-computer' metaphor was introduced into both psycholinguistics thinking and research. Modern computer programs were able to break down complex language behaviours into sequences of simpler, more manageable elements, making their understanding easier and more effective.

In the **cognitive science period**, the new balance between psychological and linguistic aspects of research was established thanks to the availability of new research

methods. In the last decades of the 20th century, connectionism emerged. New neuroimaging technologies (predominantly PET and fMRI, with EEG and MEG) helped in designing new language models.

Psycholinguistics in the early 21st century focuses on research into the relationship between language, action (communication), and the context. Modern-day psycholinguistics relies heavily on experimental investigations and statistical approaches became more prominent today. Further development of digital computing, the theory of neural network structures was introduced and thanks to artificial intelligence, computer simulations of mental behaviour became possible. For contemporary psycholinguistics the following 3 aspects are typical:

- synthesis of communication and cognitive theories
- better balance in methodolog of research
- openess of a contemporary paradigm to new stimuli.

Contemporary psycholinguistics is developed through numerous research centres and educational institutions. Psycholinguists are associated in several international associations, the most prominent of them being the *International Society of Applied Psycholinguistics* (ISAPL, established in 1982). Latest research findings are published in both psychological and linguistic periodicals, however, readers are recommended to study primarily papers in specialized research journals such as *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* *(since 1971),* *Applied Psycholinguistics* *(since 1980),* *Psycholinguistics* (since 2008), and *East European Journal of Psycholinguistics (*since 2014).

Alduais, Alfadda, Baraja'a, and Allegretta (2022) assessed the current state of research in psycholinguistics (specifically on knowledge domains on children's language acquisition, production, comprehension, and dissolution) by analysing bibliometric and scientometric indicators of 32,586 psycholinguistics papers published in research journals between 1946 and 2022. They identified 12 most prominent topics discussed in contemporary psycholinguistics:

1) examining individual difference in affective norm and familiarity account;
2) examining refractory effect in the role of Broca's area in sentence processing;
3) using eye movement to study bilingual language control and familiarity account;
4) exploring familiarity account through relative clauses;
5) the study of formulaic language and language persistence;
6) examining affective norm and sub-lexical effect in Spanish words;
7) examining lexical persistence in multiplex lexical networks;
8) the study of persistence through cortical dynamics;
9) the study of context effect in language learning and language processing;
10) the study of neurophysiological correlates in semantic context integration;
11) examining persistence as an acquisition norm through naming latencies; and

12) following a cross-linguistic perspective to study aphasic speakers.

3.3 Methodology of psycholinguistic research

To study how the mind/brain processes language, modern research employs a wide scope of research methods.

Experiments with behavioural tasks

Some of behavioural tasks belong to the oldest and most traditionally used in psycholinguistics. In these experiments, subjects are presented with linguistic stimuli and asked to respond. Usually, the duration of subject´s responses or the proportion of correct responses is recorded. For example, they may be asked to reproduce the stimulus, respond physically after hearing the stimuli, say a visually presented word aloud, or make a lexical decision about a stimulus.

When **mental chronometry** is carried out, the reaction time between the onset of a stimuli and the response by the participant is measured (on the order of milliseconds). For example, subjects are asked to press the button when they hear a selected word (e.g. dog). To learn more about the technique as well as its position in contemporary psycholinguistic research, read the comparative study by Riès, Legou, Burle et al. (2014).

Priming is used in almost all areas of psychology. The method is based on the belief that if two linguistic items share some cognitive or psychological attribute, they will either facilitate or interfere with each other. If linguistic items do not share such similarities, no such effect will be observed. The experimental procedure itself is based on mental chronometry.

Fig. 3.2: Exemplary set-up for priming experiment (source: Fábregas & Penke, 2020, licenced by CC BY-NC-ND 4.0)
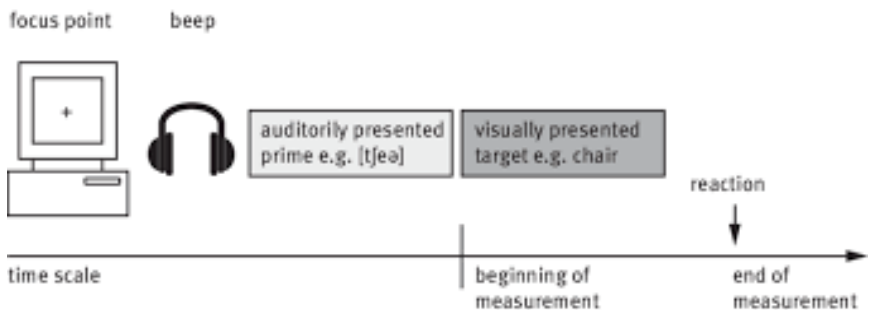
Priming can be phonological (both words consist of similar sounds, e.g. sheep and ship) or semantic (both words belong to the same semantic category, e.g. sheep and cow belong to the semantic family "animal"). The principle is that perceiving a stimulus (by seeing or hearing it) will not only activate that concept in the subject´s mind but also partially activate other connected concepts linked to the primary one to some degree. As such, when any of those linked concepts is presented next, they will be emerged and retrieved quicker because they have already been partially primed (activated) by the previous stimulus. Along with other purposes, priming thus helped model the inner architecture of mental lexicon and explain some aspects of the lexical decisions made by communicators.

Figure 3.3: A Model Priming Web (source: Lerner, Bentin, Shriki, 2012; license CC BY-NC 4.0).
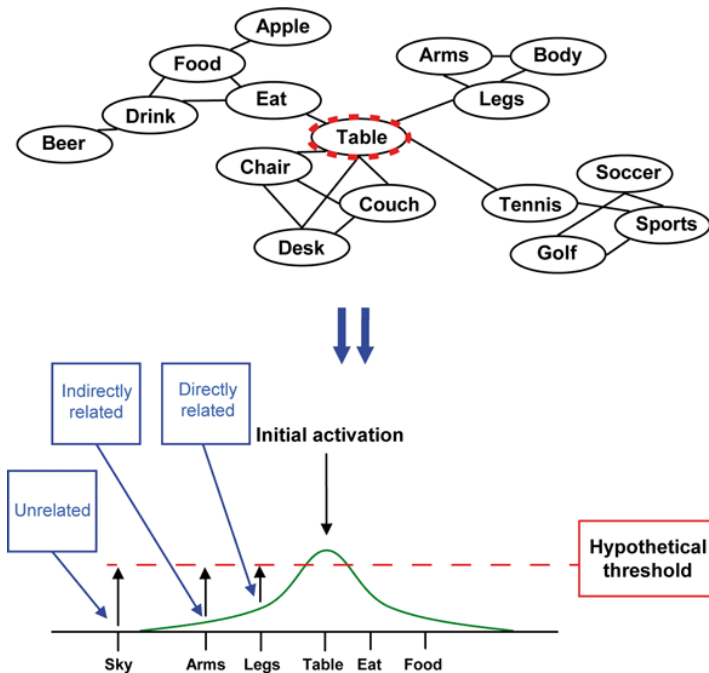
In a typical priming experiment, the participant is presented with two words - the prime and the target - in succession. In pronunciation tasks, the procedure usually involves reading the prime silently and naming the target. In lexical decision tasks, after hearing or reading a prime, the subject decides whether it is a real word. The target could either be phonologically/semantically related or unrelated to the prime, or a nonword in

case of the lexical decision task. The subject´s reaction time (RT) an/or frequency of errors are measured. The shorter average RT is or the less errors occur, the more prominent semantic relationships between the two words exist (compared with when they are unrelated). Experiments have proved that priming may reflect both facilitation (i.e., a prime accelerates the RT to a related target) and inhibition when the prime delays RT to an unrelated target (Lerner, Bentin, Shriki, 2012).

The result of priming is a priming web (as seen in the upper half of Figure 3.3), i.e. a web of interconnected ideas or concepts in the mind. Concepts that are connected phonologically (e.g. table and label) or semantically (table and chair are both pieces of furniture) are more probable to facilitate priming. The stronger priming is, the shorter time in subject´s response is observed as indicated in the lower half of Figure 3.2. Examples of studies: Dumay, Benra, Barriol, et al. (2001), McNamara, 2005, and Rastle & Coltheart (1999).

Eye-movements tracking

Language processing can be studied by monitoring subject´s eye movements while they read a written text or listen to spoken language. Eye tracking has recently been frequently used to study online language processing. The technique was introduced by Rayner (1978). A brief look into psycholinguistic journals offer many examples of research studies which used the technique for investigating spoken language processing (Tanenhaus, 2007), orthographic processing (Fella & Papadopoulos, 2018), morphological processing (Stites, Federmeier, & Christianson, 2016), or visual attention of bilingual children (Sun, Loh, & Roberts, 2019).

Decades of reserch has proved the existence of a close "eye–mind" link between eye movements and the processing of the text based on coordination of vision with higher order cognition, which requires close synchronization between eye movements and underlying mental processes. Eye-tracking technique in psycholinguistics is used to examine auditory processing (listening); visual word processing (reading); and simultaneous auditory and visual processing (Conklin & Pellicer-Sánchez, 2016). As an example of a research study based on eye-movement tracking experiment, the reader is recommended to study the paper "Factors Influencing the Use of Captions by Foreign Language Learners: An Eye-Tracking Study" by Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko (2013).

Self-paced reading

The method of self-paced reading is used to examine language processing in a real time. The subject is asked to read a text or a sentence on a monitor or a PC screen in a word-by-word, phrase-by-phrase or sentence-by-sentence manner. After finishing reading the word/phrase/sentence, the subject presses a button to ask for the next word/phrase. Each sentence is then followed by a simple follow-up question (yes/no or true/false) to check the subject comprehended the meaning of the text. The average time

rates of reading are measured. Reading tasks are frequently used in psycholinguistic experiments because the input (stimulus = the text to be read) can be controlled easily and the measurement tools are easily available.

Analysing errors in language production

The main assumption behind this method is that the analysis of systematic errors in speech can provide evidence of the mental processes that produced them. Contemporary psycholinguistics recognizes several types of speech errors caused by various disruptions in language generating or perceiving processes:

- *substitutions* (phoneme and lexical) — replacing a sound or word with an unrelated sound or a word with its antonym;
- *blends* — combining two synonyms and saying "my stummy hurts" instead of "stomach" or "tummy";
- *spoonerisms* (exchanges) - switching two sounds or morphemes, e.g. "They're Turking talkish" instead of "They're talking Turkish";
- *morpheme shifts* - changing a function morpheme like "-ly" or "-ed" to another word and saying "happy afterly" instead of "happily after".
- *anticipation* — substituting a sound that belongs later in the utterance, such as saying "My dog beats bones" instead of "My dog eats bones".

Psycholinguistic paradigms tend to argue that speech errors are most likely to occur during the lexical, morpheme, or phoneme encoding stages. They occur less probably in the first stage of semantic encoding, which can be attributed to a speaker´s clear intention while they are still pondering what and how to say. The following trend-setting research studies are examples of widely cited psycholinguistics analyses of errors with excellent international impact: language production errors as evidence for language production processes were investigated by Hohenberger & Waleschkowski (2005) the relation between content and structure in language production through an analysis of speech errors in semantic dementia was studied by Meteyard & Patterson (2009); and speech errors and phonotactic constraints in language production were analysed by Dell, Reed, Adams, & Meyer (2000).

Study of lesions

Lesion analysis in psycholinguistics has a long tradition (see Brocka´s and Wernicke´s observations of aphasia reasons and symptoms). Its basic principle comes from the belief that if a certain brain region is damaged and a particular deficit in language behaviour occurs, then that brain region must subserve the same processes and the same language behaviour in the normal, undamaged brain. The methodological weakness of the procedure lies in the fact that the method is based on a number of assumptions about the brain. The method also brings a number of challenges regarding patient´s privacy, stimulus selection, and data collection.

Neuroimaging

New developments in medical diagnosing opened new possibilities for psycholinguistic research, too. Modern non-invasive techniques of brain imaging, including PET (positron emission tomography), fMRI (functional magnetic resonance imaging), EEG (electroencephalography – measuring of the brain's electrical activity by detecting it from electrodes placed on the scalp) and MEG (magnetoencephalography) replaced the necessity of longitudinal observations of patients after brain impairment, or surgery, or post-mortem examinations and backtracking to analyse their language behaviour while alive. "The emerging work on the complex functional language systems that connect with other brain systems illustrates the need for brain imaging methods that not only assess localized brain areas or functions but also their structural and functional connections" (Richards & Berninger, 2013).

Positron emission tomography (PET)

A PET scan is a type of nuclear medicine imaging. PET produces images of organs (including the brain) and tissues at work in real time. The test uses a safe, injectable radioactive chemical called a radiotracer and a device called a PET scanner. As the brain consumes a large amount of energy, injecting glucose into the body ensures that most of it ends up in brain regions that are active in a cognitive task. If the glucose contains isotopes that are radioactive, their emissions can be detected and transformed into images.

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is a medical imaging technique that uses large, tube-shaped magnets to create a magnetic field and computer-generated radio waves to affect hydrogen atoms in a scanned human organ. It produces detailed cross-sectional images of the organs and tissues.

Computational modelling

It is the practise of creating cognitive models in the form of executable computer programmes. They can be used to generate accurate predictions for theoretical models that are so complex that discursive analysis is untrustworthy. Chater and Christiansen (2012) outline historical origins of the idea behind computational models of psycholinguistic processes and compare symbolic, connectionist, and probabilistic approaches to the computational modelling of psycholinguistic phenomena. With the AI-induced digital revolution in the 2020s, this branch of psycholinguistic research have been undergoing the most dramatic changes and progress.

Psycholinguistic survey

New information about various aspects of interconnections between language and psychological factors be gathered simply by asking people about their attitudes,

experiences, emotions, etc. To gather such information, carefully designed surveys (in the form of either a questionnaire, an interview, or an inquiry, etc.) may be applied.

Within the context of foreign language education, the method is rather frequently used when identifying learners´ learning styles, motivation structure, or reasons of learning anxiety or lack of confidence (Zasiekina & Zhuravlova, 2019).

As recent example of the methos, the study by Pokrivčáková (2023) on future EFL teachers´ attitudes towards artificial intelligence and the study by Klímová, Pikhart, Cierniak-Emerych, Dziuba (2021) on the subjective feelings of well-being outcomes of foreign language learning in older adults can be named. Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q) is the example of a standardized psycholinguistic questionnaire, now available in 38 languages (Marian, Blumenfeld, & Kaushanskaya, 2007).

Psycholinguistic content analysis

This is a specific form of content analysis intended to investigate the defined psycholinguistic properties of texts. This type of content analysis provides insights into the ways what words and language means people use to reflect their psychological states. The procedure follows the standardized steps of content analysis; however, the specific psycholinguistic intention is necessary when defining categories (codes) for the analysis and when interpreted collected data. When searching for examples of good practice, the reader can learn that the method was already applied:

- to investigate the frequency of occurrence and psychological functions of emotion words in students´ autobiographic music-related memories (Yinger & Springer, 2020)
- to identify psychological functions of function words (Chung & Pennebaker, 2007);
- to describe language used by depressed and depression-vulnerable college students (Rude, Gortner, & Pennebaker, 2004);
- to reveal motivation, semantic and emotional structure of suicide notes (Osgood & Walker, 1959; Teixeira, Talaga, Swanson, & Stella, 2020).

To conduct psycholinguistic content analysis of texts, computerized research tools have been available and already tested in research practice (Kahn, Tobin, Massey, & Anderson, 2007; Tausczik & Pennebaker, 2010).

Analysis of personal narratives

The method is most often used to identify factors that impact the learning process. Personal narratives come in various types: diaries and journals, language biographies and autobiographies (focused on the languages of the speaker and discuss how and why these languages were acquired, used, or abandoned), or life history interviews. Researchers may study published language (auto) memoirs, or narratives written by language learners (either spontaneously or in response to teachers' and researchers' requests), or as classroom writing assignment (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Pavlenko,

2007; Posada-Ortiz & Garzón-Duarte, 2019; McEwan & Egan, 1995). In the context if psycholinguistic research, personal narratives and their systematic analysing brings several methodological advantages, among them:

1) they offer insights into people's private worlds, inaccessible to measurements in experimental methodologies, and thus provide the insider's view of the processes of language learning, attrition, and use;
2) they highlight new connections between personal perceptions and various learning processes, and, in doing so, they open new directions for future research.

Longitudinal observations

Especially in developmental psycholinguistics, longitudinal observations when researchers follow and observe the same group of children over an extended period (usually for several years) to record and analyse changes and development in their language behaviours.

3.4 Developmental psycholinguistics

Developmental psycholinguistics (DS) is a specialized field within psycholinguistics that studies how children acquire their mother language, i.e. it examines how children construct the complex structures of their mother tongue and how child´s speech emerges. The main concept here is **language acquisition**, the term typically marking the process of getting first language (mother tongue) naturally and unconsciously without a formal setting (as opposed to language learning which is usually organized, intentional and set in formal school environment). However, some authors use the terms acquisition and learning as synonyms.

DS integrates findings of developmental psychology and linguistics to understand the psychological processes that make language acquisition and the development of individual´s language communicative competence possible.

In contemporary developmental psycholinguistics, four main theories of language acquisition have been constituted:

- **Behavioural theory** (B. F. Skinner) – claims that children learn the language first by imitating external sources (input) then modifying their use of language (output) thanks to operant conditioning.
- **Cognitive theory** (J. Piaget) – suggests that children are born with relatively little cognitive ability. With continual development of their minds, children construct their own new knowledge (mental schemas) through adding new information into what is already known (assimilation) and modifying their knowledge (accommodation).
- **Nativist theory** (N. Chomsky) – assumes that children are born with the language acquisition device (LAD) - an instinct or drive for language learning. It supposes there must be a biological component to language acquisition which can be triggered after the child´s birth i fit is exposed to a sufficient amount of language input (*innateness*).

- **Interactionist theory** (J. Bruner) – is based on the belief that children are born with innates indeed but they need a regular reinforcement (LASS - Language Acquisition Support System) to develop their language communication competence to full fluency.

Stages of language development

Despite the fact that each child is a unique creature with individual needs and displays, children typically go through the following four stages in their language development:

1. **pre-linguistic stage (0-12 months):** This stage, also known as "the crying, cooing and bubbling phase", encompasses the child's early communicative behaviours before the first words emerge. Crying is a direct precursor for both language and speech. At first, crying is an autonomic (spontaneous, unintentional) response to discomfort and unpleasant stimuli (hunger, pain, fear, etc.). It is also iconic since there is a direct link between communication and its purpose (the larger discomfort, the louder crying). After several weeks of child´s life, crying becomes more symbolic, i.e. differentiating more subtle meanings (parents usually are able to understand these various "types" of their child´s crying). Cooing is usually elicited by caretaker´s actions and consists of soft sounds, frequently connected with pleasant emotions. A babbling stage typically occurs when a child is six months old. A child produces random clusters of consonants or consonant-vowel syllables. They are usually rhythmical and sound like musical plays or jazz improvisations. From the psycholinguistic point of view, it is fascinating that the infant´s babbles are not limited to the phonemes (consonants nor vowels) of its mother tongue. In the age of eight months, the sound of child´s productions begin to have typical suprasegmental features (melody, intonation, rhythm, pitch) of its caretakers´ language(s).

2. **one-word stage (12-24 months):** it is the period when children begin to produce first words and single-word sentences. Very often, children invent their own words and use them repeatedly (*idiomorphs*). Children learn new vocabulary at amazing pace, preferring words naming family members, objects or actions closely related to their own life and surrounding (Piaget called this aspect as *egocentric speech*). In their speech, a single word can represent the meaning of an entire sentence, e.g. "Papu?" or "Papu!" (*holophrases*).

3. **two-word stage (24-30 months):** children start combining more words together (two are usually enough). Children in this period usually manifest the ability to understand and apply basic word order and syntax.

4. **multi-word stage (30 months onwards):** This stage sees children using increasingly complex sentences, showing a grasp of grammar rules, and rapidly expanding their vocabulary.

Contemporary developmental psycholinguistics seemingly pays most attention to the acquisition of grammar (to learn more, study Chomsky´s Universal Grammar theory and the Transformational-Generative Grammar theory).

While most children naturally acquire language following the above explained stages, some may experience difficulties (e.g. stattering, autism-induced loss of speech, problems caused by mental disfunctions, etc.) which are addressed by research in developmental psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, special pedagogy, and medicine. Developmental psycholinguistics is mostly interested in the following three types of disorders:

specific language impairments: a child struggles with language acquisition while no other medical conditions (e.g. visual or hearing impairment), or developmental difficulties/delays can be observed;

language delays: a child manifests a generally slower language development compared to their peers, which may severely affect their language competence and communication skills;

autism spectrum disorders: a child often show imbalanced language development with unique language behaviours, e.g. some may show excellent linguistic competence (rich vocabulary and excellent grammar awareness equal to adult speech) but insufficiently developed social and pragmatic competence in everyday communication).

For decades, developmental psycholinguists have tried to find the answer to the question whether there is an age limit until which language acquisition is possible. The research was significantly inspired and fuelled by the cases of so-called "wild children" who lived for some time in the wilderness without social interactions and language input. The many observations led to the **Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH).** This hypothesis suggests a specific period during childhood (first 10-12 years) when language acquisition occurs most efficiently. After this period, language learning becomes significantly more challenging. Som psycholinguists believe that certain aspects of language acquisition (e.g. native accentless pronunciation) cannot be gained after this age (critical period) has been reached.

3.5 Psycholinguistic approach to language learning/teaching

Unlike to language acquisition (unintentional, takes place in informal or natural circumstances), language learning is conscious, intentional and organized process, usually set in the classroom with teachers.

Similarly to the situation with the designing language comprehension and production models (for more see chapter 3.1), psycholinguistics has provided numerous theories that try to describe and explain how humans learn language(s). These are further used to design as effective language teaching methods and strategies as possible, regardless of whether the first/second or foreign language(s) are considered. When combined, all

these efforts constitute a psycholinguistics approach to language learning and teaching. In addition, psycholinguistics searches for reasons behind errors and mistakes made by language learners and looks for various ways how to use them in teaching processes as another indicator of effective language education (in the psycholinguistic approach, errors and mistakes are seen as natural and enriching part of education, not as something wrong that should be prevented and removed from the picture). Moreover, psycholinguistics explains the effects of some kinds of brain disorders on language learning (dyslexia, dysgraphia, agraphia, etc.).

Psycholinguistics provides valuable insights into how language learning unfolds and the factors that can affect the related processes. By understanding them, educators can better support children who might struggle with language learning, ultimately helping them communicate more effectively.

Factors affecting language learning studied by psycholinguistics (according to Lightbown and Spada, 2006):
a) age (the most important psycholinguistic factor of all)
b) intelligence (i.e. a mental capacity to learn new things)
c) aptitude (specific abilities thought to determine/predict success in language learning)
d) learning style (an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills, e.g. visual, audial, kinaesthetic, manual, logical, emotional, social, etc.).
e) personality (a unique set of personality characteristics such as self-esteem, empathy, dominance, talkativeness, responsiveness, etc.)
f) intrinsic motivation (learners' inner communicative needs and their attitudes towards verbal communication)
g) extrinsic motivation (motivation encouraged by external factors such as peers´, parents´ or teachers´ influence, classroom atmosphere, etc.)
h) health status
i) culture and socio-economic status.

Based on the known psycholinguistics theories, three teaching methods were developed: the Direct Method, Total Physical Response method (TPR), and Suggestopedia. They are important part of so-called **Psycholinguistic Approach** to foreign language learning and teaching (for more information, see Aguilar-Valera, 2019; Dörnyei, 2011; Dey & Sawalmeh, 2021; Godfroid & Hopp, 2022; Leow, Cerezo, & Baralt, 2015; Maftoon & Shakouri, 2012; Moghaddam & Araghi, 2013; Purba, 2018).

In the psycholinguistic approach, the main efforts are directed to activization of the individual internal cognitive processes to support and intensify language acquisition and learning.

1. Direct Method

This method was proposed by Tracy D. Terrel and tries to copy the ways in which children naturally acquire their native languages. This method rejects so-called traditional methods such as Grammar Translational Method or the Audio-Lingual Method. Language teaching is organized to be as natural as possible. Learners should be exposed to natural input as much as possible. Developing language comprehension precedes language production.

2. Total Physical Response Method

Developed by James J. Asher in the 1960s, this psycholinguisticaly-based method integrates and emphasises the kinaesthetic factor in language learning. It supposes that there is a positive correlation between physical movements and students' language achievement. In this method, new language material is usually manifested by physical activities.

3. Suggestopaedia

In the 1970s, Georgy Lazanov offered this method as a remedy for false beginners who continually struggled with language learning. The main condition for suggestopaedia is to set a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere. It is believed that under such circumstances, learners´ nerves are stimulated to get the new information and store it in the memory for a longer time. The classroom is usually set up with comfortable seats, dim lights, and classical music. Stressful activities are rejected.

3.6 Psycholinguistics and cultural studies

The relationship of language, thought, and culture is a topic that is central to psycholinguistics. The influence of culture and language on psychological phenomena has long been an issue for research and the idea that to study individual´s psyche, it is important to understand their language and culture is not new (Gendron & Barrett, 2009; Imai, Kanero, & Masuda, 2016). Theoretically, any linguistic behaviour is also a cultural fact. Psycholinguistic study of culture (through certain aspects of language) implies that relevant cultural characteristics correspond with linguistic characteristics in that culture (Young, 1971) and they cannot be isolated from emotions and attitudes. "Culture-specific words are conceptual tools which reflect a society's past experience of doing, and thinking about things in certain ways; and they help to perpetuate these ways. As a society changes, these tools, too, may be gradually modified and discarded" (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 1995, p. 58).

In contemporary research, the links between language, psychology and culture are approached in 2 ways:

a) conducting psycholinguistic analyses in cross-cultural contexts, as valuable examples of the approach, Jacobovits´ (1966) comparative psycholinguistics study comparing linguistic material from 12 languages and the psycholinguistic cross-

cultural analysis by Girnyk, Krylova-Grek, & Khan (2021) on the concept 'conflict' in India and Ukraine can be named;

b) research probes integrating cultural psychology and psycholinguistics (Altarriba & Kazanas, 2017; Basnight-Brown & Altarriba, 2018; Dylman & Champoux-Larsson, 2020; Harris, Ayçiçegi, & Gleason, 2003).

Such analyses often focus on comparing vocabularies of various languages, while identifying emotional meanings and cultural values behind the found differences. For example, it is quite a well-known fact that nations living near North or South Poles who live in areas with rather long winter seasons, created in their vocabularies many notions for snow (25 words in Swedish – see Tab. 3.1, 46 in Icelandic, 70 in Inuit, 180 in Saami and 421 in Scottish – BBC, 2015). They are used to distinguish various shadows of white, or various types of quality, or different size of snowflakes, etc. (see Tab. 3.1). In addition to naming different qualities of snow, some of those words indicate a clear emotional attitude of the speaker who chooses to use them in the utterance, e.g. Aprilsnö has positive connotations, Drivsnö and Majsnö both have negative connotations. These emotional meanings the words bring into texts are studied by psycholinguistics.

It has been proved, that a deeper understanding of interrelationships between language, culture and emotions are important for translators (Boguslawska-Tafelska, 2001; Chernovaty & Kovalchuk, 2020; Dyachuk, 2014; Vakhovska & Isaienko, 2021). Not all the words in Tab. 3.1 have equivalents in other national languages and other speakers face difficulties if trying to translate them. Dylman et al (2020) pointed out to the example of emotion words – they may be shared by several languages (e.g. hey in English vs hej in Slovak), yet their meaning in particular languages can be different. On the contrary, some words are unique to their languages and/or cultures (culturally specific words) and they cannot be directly translated (e.g. the German feeling Fremdschämen, the Portuguese word saudade, the Dutch sensation of gezellig, or the Japanese concept of amae). In addition, knowledge of cultural factors is necessary when reading and interpreting foreign language literature and interpreting its effects on readers from psycholinguistic point of view.

In her chapter on Language and culture, Nau (2014) discusses culture of speech as another interesting link between language and culture: "Culture in the broad sense is what humans add to nature in order to achieve something better. In many European languages, the concept is associated to civilization, refinement, education, or arts. (...) However, there are different views on what characterizes cultivated speech and its opposite, which may be conceived as "primitive", "vulgar", "uneducated" or simply "careless" speech.

Tab. 3.1: An example of culturally-affected vocabulary – 50 Swedish words for snow

50 Swedish words for snow collected by Neil Shipley (2022)	Snökanon – the word for the snow canon that creates artificial snow on ski slopes has also come to mean a sudden blast of snow that suddenly hits a place and feels like snow has been dumped on you.
Blötsnö – wet, slushy snow	
Drivsnö – snow that is blown into troublesome snow drifts	Jungfrusnö – virgin snow
Aprilsnö – snow in April, according to superstition, signifies plenty of food for the coming season	Snösmocka – a huge amount of snow
Hårdsnö – compacted hard snow	Snötäcke – snow on the ground
Konstsnö – artificial snow	Sjösnö – snow over the sea that can roll in over land
Kramsnö – squeezy snow, perfect for making snowballs	Snöfall – snow in the air
Julesnö – snow at Christmas	Flingsnö – snow with larger crystals
Klabbsnö – wet, warm snow for building snowmen	Skarsnö – a crispy surface on a blanket of snow
Kolsyresnö – frozen carbondioxide	Packsnö – thickly packed snow
Kornsnö – small white snow breadcrumbs	Pärlsnö – snow like small pearls that hurts when it hits your face
Lappvante – thick, falling snow	Snöglopp – wet snow mixed with rain
Lössnö – snow that can loosen and be dangerous	Spårsnö – snow that allows footprints to be formed
Majsnö – surprising and unwelcome snow in May	Fjöcksnö – a light, fluffy snow
Modd – snow that has partly melted due to salt	Flister – snow the consistency of salt that stings the face when it falls
Natursnö – real snow (as opposed to artificial)	Flaksnö – a sheet of snow
Nysnö – fresh snow, crisp and white	Upplega – snow on the upper side of a tree branch
Pudersnö – powder snow	Firn – liquid-like snow that can initiate an avalanche
Rekordsnö – an unusual amount of snow, breaking previous snow records	Fimmel – sandy snow that falls at low temperatures
Slask – slushy snow mixed with rain and dirt on the ground	Själja – a thin layer of ice on top of the snow that resembles glass
Snö – snow	Knarrsnö – crispy snow that creaks when you walk on it
Snöblandat regn – snow mixed with rain	Snöfyk – wet snow

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Muohta – the Sami word for snow (it is said the Sami actually have 200 words for snow!)	Torrsnö – dry snow
Snörök – faint particles of snow that look like smoke	Månsilver – a poetic word to describe the dusting of snow
Yrsnö – snow being whipped around by the wind in all directions	Snöis – snow on cold water that forms an icy solid surface
Åsksnö – snow that pours down during a thunder storm	Stöp – a mixture of snow and ice resembling porridge that forms on top of cold water

At different times and in different parts of European societies, one or more of the following features were (are) held to characterize refined language, or the speech of an educated (cultivated) person:

- having a pleasant voice, speaking with a pleasant rhythm and intonation,
- speaking with a particular accent, for example from a region that is thought of as more cultivated than others, or speaking without a local accent (your speech doesn't show from which region you come),
- using sophisticated words, internationalisms of Greek and Latin origin,
- speaking in "whole sentences", such as in written language,
- speaking politely, showing respect towards the listener.

3.7 Psycholinguistics: questions and tips for self-study

- ➢ *How does Linguistics differ from Psycholinguistics?*
- ➢ *Describe the structure of the human brain and its regions related to production and comprehension of language/speech.*
- ➢ *What are the differences between the various neurocognitive research methods (lesions, direct stimulation, CAT, MRI, fMRI, PET, EEG, and ERPs)?*
- ➢ *Which content-analysis-based research methods can be used for psycholinguistic research? What possible research purposes can they fulfil?*
- ➢ *Review 7 models of language comprehension: the construction-integration theory, the structure-building model, the resonance model, the event-indexing model, the causal network model, the constructionist theory, the landscape model.*
- ➢ *Explain 3 basic models of language production: the serial model, the connectionist model, and the lexical access model.*
- ➢ *Define aphasia. What are its three most common forms (Broca's aphasia, Wernicke's aphasia, and conduction aphasia)?*
- ➢ *What is anomia? Where is the damage usually located?*
- ➢ *What is a false memory? How does it affect human ability to communicate via a language?*

- What is the difference between 'memory impairment' and 'the misinformation effect'. Define both terms.
- What is prolonged acquisition?
- What is the integrative or interactive approach to speech recognition?
- Explain Chomsky's Transformational Grammar approach. What are its strengths and weaknesses?
- Explain the Semantic Grammar approach?
- What processes are involved in building mental structures in order to comprehend language? What evidence exists to support this structure building approach?
- What is the Situation Model approach to comprehension? Does psycholinguistics provide any evidence for this approach?
- Compare the Direct Method and Audio Lingual Method.
- Why is the TPR method extensively recommended for primary learners of foreign languages? Summarize its strengths and weaknesses.
- Generate as detailed list of methodological principles of Suggestopaedia as possible.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: A model assignment in sociolinguistics

Name:
Study programme:
Title of the assignment:

Suggested assignment tasks:

1. Multilingual environments in schools:
Define and describe multilingual environments within educational settings, emphasizing the linguistic diversity present. Investigate and discuss the impact of multilingualism on learning outcomes, language acquisition, and learner/student engagement.

2. School communication dynamics:
Analyse communication patterns between teachers and students, emphasizing the linguistic aspects and their impact on learning. Explore communication patterns between teachers and parents, considering language barriers, cultural influences, and their effects on learner/student progress.

3. Language of instruction as a language variant:
Define the language of instruction as a language variant and discuss its significance in shaping educational experiences. Investigate language policies regarding the language of instruction, analysing their impact on students' linguistic development and cultural identity.

Introduction

Background and rationale:
Briefly introduce the significance of the topic, highlighting the importance of studying sociolinguistics within the context of chosen area of focus, e.g., language policies, language variation, language and identity, etc. Introduce the significance of studying language dynamics within schools, emphasizing the role of language in education, communication, and identity formation.

Research objectives:
State the objectives of the assignment, outlining the specific areas of investigation and the expected outcomes.

Literature review:
Provide a concise overview of the key concepts, theories, and methodologies relevant to the chosen topic within sociolinguistics. Summarize and evaluate relevant studies, scholarly works, policy documents, and empirical research related to the chosen area of focus. Identify gaps, debates, and current trends in the field.

Analysis

Conduct a case study or observational study within educational settings, examining language and communication patterns, or the effects of language policies on students and educators.

Discussion of findings

Synthesize the findings from the exploration of multilingual environments, school communication, and the language of instruction as a language variant. Discuss the educational implications of language dynamics in schools, considering the role of language in learning.

Conclusion

Summarize the main insights and observations derived from the analysis of languages in school and school communication. Provide concluding remarks on the significance of understanding language dynamics in educational settings and potential areas for further research.

References

Include a comprehensive list of all sources cited in the assignment according to the required citation style (ISO 690).

Appendix 2: A model assignment in pragmatics

Name:
Study programme:
Title of the assignment:

Suggested assignment tasks:
1. Meta-analysis of pragmatic competence in professional communication
Synthesize studies on pragmatic competence in professional settings (e.g., business, healthcare), examining effective communication strategies and their cultural relevance.
2. Meta-analysis of pragmatic development in foreign language acquisition
Analyse studies on the acquisition of pragmatic competence in foreign language learners, synthesizing research findings to understand the challenges, strategies, and effective interventions in developing pragmatic skills.
3. Meta-analysis of pragmatic variation in speech acts across cultures
Investigate how speech acts (e.g., requests, apologies, compliments) vary across different cultural contexts, synthesizing findings from various studies to identify common patterns and cultural-specific strategies.

Introduction
Background and rationale:
Briefly introduce the significance of the topic, highlighting the importance of studying sociolinguistics within the context of chosen area of focus.
Research objectives:
State the objectives of the assignment and conduct a comprehensive meta-analysis that synthesizes and compares research findings connected to the selected topic.

Identification of reliable research studies and evaluation of the initial research material
Gather and review scholarly articles, research papers, focusing on chosen topic. Explore databases and academic journals to compile a comprehensive collection of studies.

Narrowing the initial research material based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria
Establish specific criteria for selecting studies to include in the meta-analysis e.g. the publication year, relevance to cross-cultural communication, types of pragmatic strategies investigated, methodology, etc.

Creating a coding sheet for published meta-analyses and assigning attributes to the research sample

Create a coding sheet based on extracted relevant information from selected studies, such as research objectives, methodology, linguistic context, participants, pragmatic strategies investigated, key findings etc.

Analysis of the data

Analyse the collected data to identify similarities, differences, trends, and patterns. Draw links to existing literature that the meta-analysis is designed to address.

Strengths and limitations of the meta-analysis and limits of the scope of transferability

Discuss any challenges or limitations observed in the studies reviewed, such as methodological variations, sample sizes, cultural biases, or gaps in research. Evaluate the implications of these limitations on the overall understanding of the selected topic.

References

Include a comprehensive list of all sources cited in the assignment according to the required citation style (ISO 690).

Appendix 3: A model assignment in psycholinguistics

Name:
Study programme:
Title of the assignment:

Suggested assignment tasks:
1) Personal language biography
Write a detailed account of your own language biography. Focus on your memories and events that were important to you. You are expected to provide both a summary or a listing of key experiences and reflections on the meaning and significance of these key experiences.
Length: 600–700 words (a final word count must be provided).
Recommended structure:
My mother language and any memory related to it
Languages I understand
Languages I learned at school
Languages I forgot
Languages I would like to learn in the future
Any other details on your language learning

Guidelines for style
Your language history must be written in the form of extended prose with coherent and logically structured paragraphs (not bullet-point notes). A well–written biography must capture the interest of the reader.

Language
Please, edit your biography carefully for grammar, spelling and punctuation errors. If you choose to incorporate words or phrases from languages other than English into your biography, please, provide a glossary of the foreign words and phrases used.

&&&&&
2) A meta-analysis
Choose a research problem related to a selected psycholinguistic aspect of your future profession (e.g. language teaching, translating, culture study, etc.). Desing a sample of research studies (at least 5) on the same research problem. Conduct a meta-analysis and write a research paper as a result. The paper should follow the academic standards both in its structure (IMRAD) and style (academic discourse).
Present the paper in your study group.

Selected topics in applied linguistics for the study of the English language and Anglophone cultures:
Sociolinguistics, Pragmalinguistics, and Psycholinguistics

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