AN OVERVIEW OF PERSPECTIVES OF PSYCHOLINGUISTICS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING.

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Abstract
Psycholinguistics is a highly interdisciplinary area of knowledge on language in which the basic principles of psychology as well as linguistics are brought together to bear upon each other. Psychology is fundamentally concerned about the behavior of the human individual that is the psychological structure of the human individual. The most significant and complex of human behavior and the one that is essentially a characteristic of the species as such is language. Language as a behavior is a meeting ground of psychology and linguistics. Today psycholinguistics is not merely the meeting ground for linguistics and psychology but it has emerged as a discipline in its own right with its own set of general principles. This paper is intended to study the influence of Psycholinguistics in the teaching of English as a second language.

Keywords: Behaviourism, Neo-Behaviourism, Cognitivism, Humanism and Problem based Learning.

INTRODUCTION
Psycholinguistics or psychology of language is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, comprehend and produce language. Initial forays into psycholinguistics were largely philosophical ventures, due mainly to a lack of cohesive data on how the human brain functioned. Modern research makes use of biology, neuro science, cognitive science linguistics and information theory to study how the brain processes language. There are a number of sub disciplines with non-invasive techniques for studying the neurological workings of the brain; for example, neuro linguistics has become a field in its own right. Psycholinguistics covers the cognitive process that makes it possible to generate a grammatical and meaningful sentence out of vocabulary and grammatical structures as well as the processes that make it possible to understand utterances, words, text etc. Developmental psycholinguistics studies children's ability to learn language.

Psycholinguists study how word meaning, sentence meaning, and discourse meaning are computed and represented in the mind. They study how complex words and sentences are composed in speech and how they are broken down into their constituents in the acts of listening and reading. In short, psycholinguists seek to understand how language is done.

The development of language seems to flow in this order approximately. Before birth, we hear the sounds of our mother. Adopted newborns have a confusing time post birth, as opposed to other babies. The first seven months we here the intonation patterns of our first language (L1), and these seem to be treated in the right hemisphere of the brain. From this time, we seem to begin to segment (identify) individual phonemes of our L1(s) At six months or so, baby’s babble is thought to be a ‘tuning in’ process, testing a sound, and seeing the mother's response and producing another sound. From approximately nine months, babies start to associate words to nouns, though babies cannot show this understanding ordinarily. From about one year of age a baby might utter its first word. Bilingual babies take a little longer. After the first birthday, a baby may eventually point to a picture of a known object like ‘orange’ etc. By the age of two, children have a vocabulary of about 100 words, and some inkling of grammar, though just simple nouns, verbs and adjectives, and they seem to test the order that these go in. Age fifteen is when new grammar cannot be taken onboard, at least easily. Vocabulary can continue to be learnt throughout our life. Our accents have the capability to change during our lifetime, but in hearing, adults can find it difficult to adjust and tune into other unfamiliar accents.

OVERVIEW OF PSYCHOLOGY
Language has always played a certain role in the history of psychology. According to Lenneberg,B (1967) psychology can be defined as the science of the mental life and behavior of the individual. Psychology studies the behaviour, activities, conduct, and mental processes. Since speech is one of the features that distinguishes man most clearly from other species, it becomes an object of psychological enquiry. From about 1900 the objects of psychological studies paid attention to not only the learning, memory, thinking and intelligence (the higher mental processes), but also to the emotions, personality, psychological growth of the child, and the measurement of individual differences.

Ausubel,D.P (1978), the founder of modern scientific psychology, included a study of language in the first volume of his monumental study of "ethnic psychology". Word association experiments which showed the subjects' instant response to the verbal stimuli was done by Galton (1883). While in the area of emotions, some research has been undertaken by Freud with his treatment of slips of the tongue or the pen (the emotional dynamics of verbal behavior), by Jung's (1918) verbal associations as a diagnostic tool to uncover emotional complexes. In this regard, Jung theorized that someone with emotional problems will easily deviate from the common verbal associations of his speech community.

In the studies of mental development of the child, ‘nature or nurture’ became hotly debated issues. Some experts tended to
support ‘nature’ meaning the mental development of the child obtained by maturation (biological and nativistic), while some others favored ‘nurture’ meaning the mental development was mainly gained through social or environmental interaction.

According to William o’Grady, psycholinguistic studies have revealed that many of the concepts employed in the analysis of sound structure, word structure, and sentence structure also play a role in language processing. However, an account of language processing also requires that we understand how these linguistic concepts interact with other aspects of human processing to enable language production and comprehension.

John Field (2003) says that Psycholinguistics draws on ideas and knowledge from a number of associated areas, such as phonetics, semantics and pure linguistics. There is a constant exchange of information between psycholinguists and those working in neuro linguistics, who study how language is represented in the brain. There are also close links with studies in artificial intelligence. Indeed, much of the early interest in language processing derived from the AI goals of designing computer programs that can turn speech into written programs that can recognize the human voice.

Friedmann Pulvermuller (2009 ) says that Psycholinguistics has classically focused on button press tasks and reaction time experiments from which cognitive processes are being inferred. The advent of neuro imaging opened new research perspectives for the psycholinguist as it became possible to look at the neuronal mass activity that underlies language processing. Studies of brain correlates of psycholinguistic processes can complement behavioral results, and in some cases it leads to direct information about the basis of psycholinguistic processes.

Chomsky Noam (2002 ) believes that psychological counseling and foreign language tutoring are closely related. He advocates a unified concept of man and says that physical, intellectual, psychological and emotional factors can all influence language acquisition. Affection and an intimate relationship between the instructor and the learner, with both on the same level, provide the necessary framework. The instructor plays the role of confidant and the learner is responsible for himself. At this point the instructor helps the learner to reaffirm his opinions giving the precise language, just a little beyond the learner's capability. The learner will then see his convictions in convincing language, with good power of communication.

The ability to carry out creative and effective communication is the main goal of all learners. Proficiency does not depend on linguistic knowledge. Language knowledge is secondary when compared to the functional ability of understanding, speaking, reading and writing as a result. Therefore, while a structured syllabus can provide some basic language knowledge, it is only through the creative effort to communicate that complete communicative competence is acquired. The full process, from passive listening to understanding and from active thinking to speaking, needs to be thoroughly exercised. This can be achieved only through real human interaction. We also offer language learning through the study of grammar as a complement, but the emphasis is on language acquisition through communication, in which the role of the native speaker is essential. In other words, nobody fully acquires language ability with only books, tapes, VCRs, CD-ROMs or on-line exercises. Although such materials are helpful when designed according to contrastive linguistics, a brain needs another brain to interact with. Natural acquisition through real-life communicative experience can be complemented with audiolingual exercises and even with grammar study. Unique teaching materials based on contrastive analysis play here an important role. In this psycholinguistic approach, the counselor-teacher needs to try to build a personal relationship with the learner. Of course, this psychological involvement depends greatly on the student's personality. Therefore, the teacher must be constantly alert and able to recognize the communicative moments and opportunities and to explore them when they arise.

The key element of a psycholinguistic approach is the personal and intimate contact between learner and counselor. The learner's interests are explored and his own ideas are used as teaching materials. As in psychoanalysis, learner and counselor immerse in each other's mind. Instead of texts or tapes the thoughts of the learner, even the ones of neurotic origin, are discussed and brought to light in clear and appropriate language. The goal is to increase the emotional load of the conversation, making the sessions more appealing and engaging. Resorting to the same resources used in psychoanalysis, the counselor-instructor plays the role of confidant and brings the conversation (always in the target language) to the center of the learner's interest. The instructor adapts himself to the learner. If the learner is introverted, the instructor takes a leading role talking about himself, about his experience with the foreign culture, his difficulties and his weaknesses, opening his own heart, thus improving the mutual trust and creating an atmosphere for the learner to get ready. If the learner is extroverted, the instructor understands with empathy the learner's points of view encouraging him to express himself confidently. At this point the instructor helps the learner to reaffirm his opinions giving the precise language, just a little beyond the learner's capability. The learner will then see his convictions in convincing language, with good power of communication.

We do not emphasize error correction but communicative ability with beginners because psychological obstacles must be overcome before linguistic accuracy can be attained. Self-confidence and independence are the first steps. Still, linguistic forms like pronunciation and sentence patterns are not completely overlooked. These are discussed whenever necessary to address the learner's specific deviations. Again, the instructor needs to adjust his interventions to the learner. Introverts normally lack self-confidence and therefore should be less frequently interrupted and corrected than extroverts.

This communicative-psychological approach recommended is ideal for intermediate and advanced students and requires a skillful instructor. If not thoroughly bilingual, the person should be a native speaker of the target language with some command of the learners’ native language. Besides the instructor's qualification the language therapy groups must be very small and homogeneous, with affinity between group members being very important.

Foreign language teachers have long been perplexed by a continuum of abundant psycho-linguistic theories. One approach is the traditional method to second/foreign language teaching and learning. This embodied the grammar translation method which developed at the end of the eighteenth century in Germany and spread throughout Europe (Howat, 1984). The second approach is the direct method that developed in the late nineteenth century as a
reaction against the grammar-translation method (R.Carter, 1993).

There are four major theories of language acquisition and language learning which many psycholinguists and applied linguists are familiar with: Behaviorism, Neo-Behaviorism, Cognitivism, and Humanism.

**Psycholinguistics and Behaviourism**

Pavlov discovered the principle of Classical conditioning which is a more conservative approach in Behaviorism.

In experiments with dogs, Pavlov demonstrated that natural reflexes such as the secretion of saliva when food is in the dog's mouth can become conditioned to other stimuli. The food is called the unconditional stimulus (US) and the secretion of saliva the unconditioned response (UR). If a stimulus (e.g. a tone or bell) is paired with the US it can afterwards elicit the UR by itself. The tone or bell is then a conditioned stimulus (CS).

Classical conditioning is a more conservative approach in behaviorism, very mechanistic rejects mental concepts such as 'mind', 'insight', etc. to explain behavior. Pavlov felt that all learning was due to this type of conditioning. Behaviourism as a theory of language acquisition. B.F. Skinner's book 'Verbal Behaviour' 

In contrast to classical conditioning Skinner set up his own method which became known as operant conditioning.

Skinner is a behaviorist in the true sense of the word: the science of behavior should not hypothesize about the underlying cognitive mechanisms of behavior but concern itself solely with systematic observations of stimuli and responses. Behaviourism as a theory of Skinner's theory on language learning. Speech, like any operant behavior, comes under stimulus control through discrimination and reinforcement. Skinner does not talk of language, but of 'Verbal Behaviour' Criticism of the behaviourist approach to language learning Skinner considers merely external factors like stimulus, response, reinforcement which excludes internal factors of how a person organizes behavior, processes information, etc.

Jean Piaget a Swiss psychologist observed the cognitive development of his own children. According to Piaget (1959) cognitive development and language acquisition are closely interrelated processes. During the childhood the abstract knowledge about the world can be gained through seeing objects around them and by observing how the objects function and interact each other. This stage of development lasts from birth to 18 months, called the sensory motor period. In Piaget's view cognitive knowledge about the world, without cognitive development language acquisition will not take place, even if it does the children will only gain little. This kind of view is often labeled as 'cognitive determinism' - the development of language forms is governed by cognitive growth, i.e. cognitive development before language. In other words, the sequence of development within language learning is governed by the stages of cognitive growth.

Piaget established a theory of genetic epistemology; i.e. the development of mental processes in children. He observes 4 major stages in first language acquisition. These stages are directly related to and dependent on general cognitive development. Piaget's first stage of language acquisition is up to 2 years of age. It is a sensory-motor period of development. During the development of sensory-motor thinking, the baby is still unable to think symbolically. Piaget's second stage of language acquisition is the preoperational period, begins shortly before 2 years of age until the age of 5½ or 6. Emergence of representational or symbolic thought, a prerequisite for language acquisition. Piaget's third stage of language acquisition starts at the age of 6 or 7 concrete operational thinking emerges develops up to the age of approximately, Ability to solve practical problems but not theoretical, logical problems. Piaget's fourth stage of language acquisition begins around age 11 the child frees itself from concrete operational thinking, a period of formal operations. In this stage a child can logically predict and explain the results of physical experiments.

**Psycholinguistics and Neobehaviorism**

Psycholinguistics and Neobehaviorism, was associated with Edward C. Tolman (1886–1959), Clark Hull (1884–1952), and B. F. Skinner (1904–1990). Like Thorndike, Watson, and Pavlov, the neobehaviorists believed that the study of learning and a focus on rigorously objective observational methods were the keys to a scientific psychology. Unlike their predecessors, however, the neobehaviorists were more self-consciously trying to formalize the laws of behavior. They were also influenced by the Vienna Circle of logical positivists, a group of philosophers led by Rudolph Carnap (1891–1970), Otto Neurath (1882–1945), and Herbert Feigl (1902–1988), who argued that meaningful statements about the world had to be cast as statements about physical observations. Anything else was metaphysics or nonsense, not science, and had to be rejected. Knowledge, according to the logical positivists, had to be built on an observational base, and could be verified to the extent that it was in keeping with observation.

Of the three neobehaviorists, Hull was the most ambitious about constructing a formal theory of behavior. He believed he had found the fundamental law of learning or habit-formation—the law of stimulus generalization—and this law not only underlay all behavior in animals and humans, but was a principle basic enough to unify all the social sciences. According to the law, a response could be called forth by an unconventional stimulus as long as the stimulus was associated, either temporally or in character, with the stimulus that usually called forth the response. As long as the unconventional stimulus was similar enough to the usual one, it could elicit the response.

Behaviourism ambitions to cover everything that humans and non-humans learn, eat, walk, drive a car, being the president of the United States, speak etc. In the behaviourist view, all these activities are treated on a par. The so-called mentalist revolution was initiated by Chomsky (1959): learning a natural language and how to drive a car are cognitive processes that are different in kind. Language cannot be acquired without a set of genetically endowed predispositions. The child builds on this "knowledge without grounds" as well as on external stimulus in the acquisitional process. Generativists merely reiterate that "it is impossible that the child could ever acquire language without having access to innate knowledge", while neo-behaviourists say "it is possible. Neo-behaviourists build on these grounds. Their old baggage comes along in a fresh dress. That is, neo-behaviourists pretend to be generativists and mentalists. Moreover, they leave syntax/semantics alone and attack only phonology. The leading model is given by Can (2000): there is no UG in phonology, but there is one in syntax. Children do build on
innate knowledge, but this knowledge is not specifically phonological or even linguistic. The "more general capacities" that in the neo-behaviourist view are necessary and sufficient for the acquisition of language are shared with animals: the capacity to categorize ("this animal is an elephant, not a tiger"), induction, mimicry and the like. Hence, the content of UG is neither "U" nor "G": it is universal, but more than Chomsky believes it is since it is shared with animals; it is not grammatical."

**Psycholinguistics and Cognitivism**

Cognitive theory or approach views the learner as a thinking being and an active processor of information. Thus, learning is a process in which the learner actively tries to analyze the situations where the application of the rule would be appropriate and to make sense of data. In other words, we learn by thinking about and trying to make sense of what we see, hear and feel. In order to get a clear picture of the cognitive theory in relation to second language learning, other related theories were also described briefly from the historical points of view. In general cognitivism can be grouped under the innatist model which is also known as 'nativist', 'mentalism' (thinking as rule-governed activity), 'rationalism'. The implications of cognitive theories can be revealed in the basic teaching techniques which cover activities such as problem-based solving activity, discovery learning, cognitive strategies, project-based learning, etc.

Whereas the behaviorist theory of learning portrayed the learner as passive receiver of information, the cognitive view takes the learner to be an active processor of information (see Ausubel et al., 1978). Learning and using a rule require learners to think, that is, to apply their mental powers in order to distil a workable generative rule from the mass of data presented, and then to analyze the situations where the application of the rule would be useful or appropriate. Learning, then, is a process in which the learner actively tries to make sense of data, and learning can be said to have taken place when the learner has managed to impose some sort of meaningful interpretation or pattern on the data. This may sound complex, but in simple terms what it means is that we learn by thinking about and trying to make sense of what we see, feel and hear. (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987 : 43)

The basic teaching techniques associated with a cognitive theory of language learning may cover the following activities: (1) problem based learning (problem solving), (2) discovery learning, (3) cognitive strategies, (4) project based learning, etc.

1. **Problem based learning**

This activity is based on the problem exposure. The student conducts the research based on theories, concepts, various scientific principles. First, he/she identifies the problem, collects the data, and analyzes the data. Finally, he/she should draw a conclusion or conclusions.

2. **Discovery learning**

This activity is aimed to develop a research competence and to improve the learner's appreciation towards science. It would rather focus on the learning process than the learning product; in addition, discovery learning is designed to increase the student's learning skills, including how to ask questions and how to evaluate strategies.

3. **Cognitive strategies**

Cognitive strategies are one type of learning strategy that learners use in order to learn more successfully. These include repetition, organizing new language, summarizing meaning, guessing meaning from context, using imagery for memorization. All of these strategies involve deliberate manipulation of language to improve learning. Classifications of learning strategies distinguish between cognitive strategies and two other types; metacognitive strategies (organizing learning), and social/ affective strategies (which enable interaction). For example, a learner remembers new words by visualizing them represented in a memorable or ridiculous situation. This makes it easier and faster to recall these words. Activities in the classroom which can be described as cognitive strategies include making mind maps, visualization, association, mnemonics, using clues in reading comprehension, underlining key words, scanning and self-testing and monitoring.

Cognitive strategy is an organized internal competence which can lead the students in their learning process, i.e. thinking process, problem solving, and decision making. It enables the students to think systematically and critically. In other words, it will make their thinking process unique. This uniqueness is called executive control - high level control (consciousness).

**Psycholinguistics and Humanism**

It is commonly agreed characteristics of humanism are problem-solving, reasoning, free will, self-development, and co-operation. Perhaps the most well-known applications of humanism in ELT are those of Curran (1976) and Gattegno (1972). The former advocated the use of ‘Counselling-Learning’. In this practice, teachers sit outside a circle of learners and help them to talk about their personal and linguistic problems. The students decide the ‘curriculum’, while the teacher is more of a facilitator, who fosters an emotionally secure environment. Meanwhile, Gattegno advocated the Silent Way approach. In this, he presented challenges for learners. These challenges developed the students’ awareness and encouraged their independence.

The humanistic teacher should have a good grasp of language learning theories. They will realise the importance of change, which is implicit in all learning. They will be aware of the individual learners' 'developmental readiness' (Piaget, 1970), which will determine when and how to teach each student something. They will offer their students problems to solve, as, according to cognitivists, this is precisely how we learn things. Above all, the successful humanistic teacher will probably be a pragmatist - allowing a combination of language learning theories and their own experience to interact with each other to produce effective language lessons. The humanistic teacher also needs to be aware of what motivates their students. Some will probably want to learn English because they have to (e.g. for their job), while others want to simply for the sake of it. The former is called 'extrinsic motivation', while the latter is called 'intrinsic motivation'. Those students who are more extrinsically motivated will be more goal-oriented and might want, for example, a lot of tests and exams.

Students who are intrinsically motivated will derive a lot of satisfaction from solving language problems - the solution will be a reward in itself. In reality, of course, students can be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated. They may be learning English for a specific purpose (e.g. to be accepted into a speech community or to get promotion), but they might also really enjoy the process of learning. Teachers need to be aware of this mix and need to use this information to determine issues like: How much testing to do, How much fun can be had, Should the target language be
representative of one particular speech community or not?

In an attempt to be a humanistic language teacher, one should introduce every new language item at the optimum time of readiness for a class. She must elicit the target language. This fosters a sense of co-operation between the students and the teacher. She can try to make the meaning of the language items as clear as possible by using a number of techniques (e.g. pictures, mime, or a mini-explanation). Such work on the concept of the target language needs to be repeated later in a way that is appropriate to the abilities and progress of the group. At the appropriate time, students also need to practise speech production by saying or writing the target language. After enough practice, through both teacher-centred and student-centred phases, the student should gradually learn the target language. The student will have fundamentally changed.

Without flexibility, a teacher cannot teach humanistically, because students will never learn completely in step with any designated syllabus. This is why a humanistic teacher should always make a point of observing her students very carefully so that she knows when to introduce certain tasks, according to the progress they're making. The same applies to lesson plans also.

CONCLUSION

The learning and teaching of languages is a major focus in Psycholinguistics. Areas pertaining to its language pedagogy include first and second language acquisition, teaching strategies, learning styles, cognitive processing, social interaction and learning, emotion and language acquisition, and metaphor and teaching. Cutting across these subtopics of language learning in psycholinguistics, expanded in scope, has close affinity with language pedagogy. It is a cross-disciplinary in nature with an overlapping domain that includes phonetics, discourse analysis, language pathology, neuroscience, computer modelling, and language teaching pedagogy. On the other hand psycholinguistics concentrates on the functional aspects of language production and psycholinguistic studies serve functional and dynamic aspect of what human speech is. Acquisition of the native language and acquisition of the foreign language and the psychological factors involved in the learning of the L1 and L2. The functional characteristics of language, creative, choices involved in the production of language are some of the major aspects discussed here. Since it draws upon the general principles and findings of psychology and the insights of psychologists' yield are the great value in the understanding of the functional nature of a language.

Language learning direct to language acquisition. Many language learners believe that learning foreign language is not different from learning other courses and theories, so it seems that knowing its theoretic aspect is enough. It is good idea to apply psycholinguistic principle in English teaching, so communicative oral method can be implemented as early as possible suitable with language essential. As there is no ideal formula yet between behavioristic and cognitive theory, both of them should be considered proportionally, in the applied humanistic theory. Psycholinguistic, as a science studies encoding and decoding process in using a language, really needs to be comprehended or mastered by English teachers. Therefore, the urgency of principles related to language learning acquisition gets properly attention in English teaching methodology.

Reference