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Formulaic Language and Language Disorders

Diana Van Lancker Sidtis

The importance of formulaic language is recognized by many branches of the language sciences. Second language learners acquire a language using a maturationally advanced neurological substrate, leading to a profile of formulaic language use and knowledge that differs from that of the prepuberty learner. Unlike the considerable interest in formulaic language seen in second language learning, attention paid to this theme in clinical communicative disorders has been limited. Historically, verbal expressions preserved in severe nonfluent aphasia, including counting, interjections, and memorized phrases, have been referred to as *automatic speech*. Closer examination of all forms of aphasic speech reveals a high proportion of formulaic expressions, while speech samples from persons with right hemisphere and subcortical damage show a significant impoverishment. These findings are supported by studies of persons with Alzheimer's disease, who have intact subcortical nuclei and abnormally high proportions of formulaic expressions, and Parkinson's disease, which is characterized by dysfunctional subcortical systems and impoverished formulaic language. Preliminary studies of schizophrenic speech also reveal a paucity of formulaic language. A dissociation between knowledge and use of the expressions is found in some of these populations. Observations in clinical adult subjects lead to a profile of cerebral function underlying production of novel and formulaic language, known as the dual processing model. Whereas the left hemisphere modulates newly created language, production of formulaic language is dependent on a right hemisphere/subcortical circuit. Implications of the dual process model for evaluation and treatment of language disorders are discussed.

This article reviews emerging interest across academic disciplines in formulaic language. Properties of formulaic expressions, as well as methods for identifying and quantifying them in natural speech, are described. Knowledge and use of formulaic expressions in native and second language speakers and in persons with neurological disorders and psychiatric disabilities are surveyed, leading to a dual process model to describe the normal and disordered production of formulaic expressions.

As is apparent in this special issue, formulaic language has taken a prominent place in the language sciences, with good representation in most of the

1 modern linguistic disciplines (Kuiper, 2009; Sidtis, 2011; Van Lancker Sidtis, 2008;
2 Wray, 2002). Scholars of first and second language learning, sociolinguists, and
3 psychologists have explored the special status of formulaic expressions in their
4 domains of interest: acquisition by children and adults (Kempler, Van Lancker,
5 Marchman, & Bates, 1999; Perkins, 1999), use in everyday settings (Biber, 2009),
6 incidence in corpora (Fellbaum, 2007; Moon, 1998), and mental representation
7 (Kuiper, Van Egmond, Kempen, & Sprenger, 2007).

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8 There appears to be less emphasis given to the importance of formulaic lan-
9 guage in the field of speech pathology or communicative disorders. Formulaic
10 language plays, at best, a casual role in evaluation and treatment of adult lan-
11 guage disorders. For example, two well-regarded texts on aphasia (Davis, 2000)
12 and aphasia therapy (Basso, 2003) make little or no mention of formulaic ex-
13 pressions. An exception arises in observations in autistic speech and Tourette's
14 syndrome, but these lack a theoretical underpinning.

15 Interest arising from related fields, such as neuropsychology, has focused on
16 cerebral representations of idiom and sarcasm comprehension, with conflicting
17 results implicating the left as well as the right hemisphere in comprehension
18 of literal and/or nonliteral meanings of idioms (Bottini et al., 1994; Cacciari
19 et al., 2006; Fogliata et al., 2007; Giora, Zaidel, Soroker, Batori, & Kasher, 2000;
20 Mashal, Faust, Hendler, & Jung-Beeman, 2008; Myers, 1998; Oliveri, Romero, &
21 Papagno, 2004; Papagno, Curti, Rizzo, Crippa, & Colombo, 2006; Papagno, Q2
22 Tabossi, Colombo, & Zampetti, 2004; Van Lancker & Kempler, 1987). Attempts Q3
23 to measure cognitive processing of idioms are highly vulnerable to the effects of
24 task demands, experimental design, nature of the stimuli, and mode of acquiring
25 data. The conflicting results for neurological substrates underlying comprehen-
26 sion of idioms and other nonliteral expressions will not be addressed here, as the
27 focus of this review is instead the production of formulaic expressions. Studies
28 of cerebral function underlying production of formulaic expressions are rare
29 (but see Belánger, Baum, & Titone, 2009).

30 This oversight in the communicative disorders clinic is perplexing for several
31 reasons. The sheer volume of formulaic expressions in normal language use has
32 made its mark through numerous corpus and field studies, dictionaries, and
33 surveys. Studies indicate that 25% of typical conversational speech consists of
34 formulaic expressions (Van Lancker & Rallon, 2004). It is now generally held
35 that formulaic expressions have a different status with regard to their utilization
36 of structure and meaning, when compared to newly generated language. Struc-
37 turally, they are fixed and unitary, and their meanings are complex and usually
38 nonliteral; they are rife with nuance and connotations, and they depend in
39 special ways on social context. Most importantly, speakers in a community know
40 these chunks intuitively. This means that speakers endorse formulaic expres-
41 sions as familiar, while matched novel expressions are not so categorized, and
42 when asked to enter missing words in a cloze procedure, speakers agree in the
43 words they enter for formulaic but not for novel expressions (Van Lancker Sidtis
44 & Postman, 2006). These facts are reflected in brain processing underlying loss
45 and rehabilitation of production and comprehension of speech and should there-
46 fore be of interest to neurolinguists and speech pathologists (Van Lancker Sidtis,
47 2004).

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1 In the communication disorders sciences, there is a long tradition of in-
2 terest in *automatic speech*, utterances that are preserved in severe aphasia
3 (acquired language disorder following brain damage; Van Lancker, 1994). This
4 refers to the consistently observed fact that the majority of victims of left hemi-
5 sphere strokes are able to fluently produce at least some serial speech (count-
6 ing from 1 to 10, days of the week); interjections and swear words; nursery
7 rhymes; and routinized, conventional expressions (called speech interaction
8 formulas such as *thank you, goodbye*) with normal articulation and prosody,
9 although impaired to varying degrees in producing newly created utterances
10 or propositional speech. In later survey studies, familiar proper nouns were
11 identified in preserved speech in severe aphasia (Code, 2005). That is, following
12 damage to the language areas of the brain, while newly generated speech is
13 impaired (Code, 2005), in many cases, a great variety of overlearned expres-
14 sions (different ones for different persons) are retained with normal-sounding
15 competence.

16 Until recently, beyond the level of description, little was understood about
17 these types of utterances. There was no agreement about how brain structures
18 modulate these preserved expressions, nor was there any theoretical under-
19 standing about how or why some kinds of speech are preserved in severe
20 aphasia while other kinds are lost. With the modern development of formulaic
21 language as a vibrant scholarly field (e.g., Kuiper, 2009), it can now be said that
22 automatic speech constitutes the tip of the iceberg of normal formulaic language
23 competence, which has unique properties and purposes in communication (Van
24 Lancker Sidtis, 2010), and is selectively impacted by brain damage and cerebral
25 dysfunction.

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28 **PROPERTIES OF FORMULAIC EXPRESSIONS**

29

30 Four important characteristics distinguish formulaic from novel expressions:
31 stereotyped form, conventional meaning, specific conditions of use or prag-
32 matics, and their status as known (stored in memory) to the native speaker
33 (and to some nonnative speakers). Formulaic language consists of canonical
34 forms or *formulemes*, with specific words in a certain order spoken on a fixed
35 prosodic shape. The concept of –emic forms refers to conceptual categories
36 (e.g., phoneme, morpheme, lexeme) that are instantiated in actual performance
37 as variants (allophones; allomorphs, that is, the various versions of the En-
38 glish plural; and lexical units, declined or conjugated variants of the canonical
39 lexeme). Like these other well-understood and well-studied –emic forms, in-
40 stantiation of the phrase, referred to as a *formuleme* or *superlemma*, allows
41 for flexibility, as long as the underlying form is recognizable or “recoverable”
42 (Kuiper, 2007, p. 96). For example, Senator Tom Harkin, chairman of the U.S.
43 Senate Education Committee, speaking recently of accrediting agencies, stated,
44 *This is a whole different horse of a whole different color* inserting words in the
45 verb complement to enhance the formulaic expression *horse of a different color*,
46 which, despite the addition of three words into a five-word phrase, retains its
47 recognizability (Field, 2011). Meanings inhering in these expressions are usually

1 complex and pack innuendos of evaluation and commentary. *She has him eating*
2 *out of her hand* carries intimations of questionable sociopolitical relationships
3 with a decidedly judgmental overlay. Conversational speech formulas signal sol-
4 idarity (*Right!, You bet!*), incredulity (*You're kidding!, Get out!*), or nonagreement
5 (*Not really, whatever*). It has often been mentioned that a formulaic expression
6 means more than the sum of its lexical content (e.g., Wray, 2002). For example, a
7 young woman's formulaic use of "I met someone," spoken in a low, often breathy
8 tone, packs an intense meaning of romance and excitement, very different from
9 the utterance spoken propositionally to refer to a neutral meeting. The third
10 important characteristic of formulaic expressions relates to their use. Studies
11 of the pragmatics of formulaic expressions indicate that unlike novel sentences,
12 which are much more independent of context, formulaic expressions are espe-
13 cially sensitive to social conditions, such as social register, formality indexes,
14 discourse styles, and the format of the communication, speaker, topic, purpose
15 of the talk, and numerous other variables. The novel sentences such as "The cat
16 often sits on the sofa" or "Traveling through Europe takes time and money" are
17 not tied to particulars of the social setting. On the other hand, "Good morning"
18 can only be said at the first meeting with a friend or colleague in the time before
19 noon; "I'll see you later" can be said only on leave-taking; "What's up, baby?"
20 and "You've got to be kidding" are best said between close social acquaintances
21 and not to one's professor, and so on.

22 Finally, speakers know and recognize a very large repertory of formulaic
23 expressions. The novel examples in the previous paragraph do not intrinsi-
24 cally convey attitudinal nuances, while most formulaic expressions inherently
25 carry such nuances. Novel expressions, given their flexibility, can be adapted to
26 conditions through lexical choice, while formulaic expressions carry complex
27 meanings as part of their holistic semantic content. For example, the formulaic
28 phrase "That's what I'm talkin' about" provides an endorsement of a particu-
29 lar thematic content in the setting, even when there had been no previous
30 verbal mention of the theme. In this way, formulaic expressions further the
31 talk through processes that are best thought of as ritualistic. This forms a
32 significant contrast to the contribution by novel expressions. All these prop-
33 erties (form, meaning, use, known to speakers), which are inherent in formulaic
34 expressions, contribute in different degrees to the likelihood that formulaic
35 language is associated with cerebral resources other than those used for novel
36 language.

37 This review draws on modern scholarship to describe how formulaic lan-
38 guage operates in mind and brain. Evidence is presented that formulaic and
39 novel language production are differentially affected by left, right, or subcortical
40 brain damage due to stroke. Pathological loss or overabundance of formulaic
41 language following other kinds of cerebral dysfunction are described. Use and
42 knowledge of formulaic expressions may be differentially affected by specific
43 neurological lesions. The conclusion is that these modes of language behavior
44 are processed in the brain according to principles and in cerebral sites that are
45 different from those known to govern novel, newly created language, leading to
46 the dual process model of language competence (Van Lancker Sidtis, 2012; Wray Q4
47 & Perkins, 2000).

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1 **IDENTIFYING AND STUDYING FORMULAIC EXPRESSIONS IN PRODUCTION**

2

3 Formulaic expressions can be identified and categorized with adequate reliability by native speakers, using linguistic intuition in the same way that such intuitions were used for 50 years in generative linguistics to identify well-formed sentences. From our informal surveys and formal studies, we are assured that native speakers will endorse the notion that *She has him eating out of her hand* and *by the way* are familiar expressions. Personal knowledge of the expressions is a most compelling factor distinguishing formulaic and novel language. Formal and functional criteria aid in the process of identifying formulaic expressions throughout a corpus. Swear words, interjections, pause fillers (*uh, um*), and discourse elements (*well, so*) are all easily identified. Some formal criteria include nonliteral lexical meanings for idioms (*He was at the end of his rope*) and for proverbs, extension from a superficially literal expression to a general meaning (*A rolling stone gathers no moss*). Functional criteria pertain mostly to the repertory of speech formulas, such as *Hello, Right, If you say so, How could you?, Here's back atcha*, and thousands of others that signal turn-taking, commentary, and assent, conveying countless attitudinal stances, in conversational interaction (Kreiman & Sidtis, 2011). Procedures for identifying formulaic expressions generally elicit full agreement among three raters. A few expressions raise questions and must be adjudicated. This is to be expected during the examination and analysis of linguistic objects, which exist only in the minds of speakers.

23 Most linguistic and neuropsychological studies focus on comprehension and use formal testing techniques, usually targeting idioms or other nonliteral expressions. As already mentioned, performance derived from comprehension studies of nonliteral expressions are heavily influenced by task and design effects. However, formulaic language is best encountered in discourse, specifically, in spontaneous conversational speech. Transcripts of naturalistic talk provide the most authentic source of formulaic expressions. To gain some control over speech samples for conversational speech, structured interviews can be used, whereby the experimenter directs the conversation by producing questions or statements that are consistent across subjects. We shall see that *use* of formulaic language (incidence in the talk) can be differentiated from *knowledge* (endorsement of familiarity) of formulaic expressions, in that either can be selectively impaired while the other remains intact.

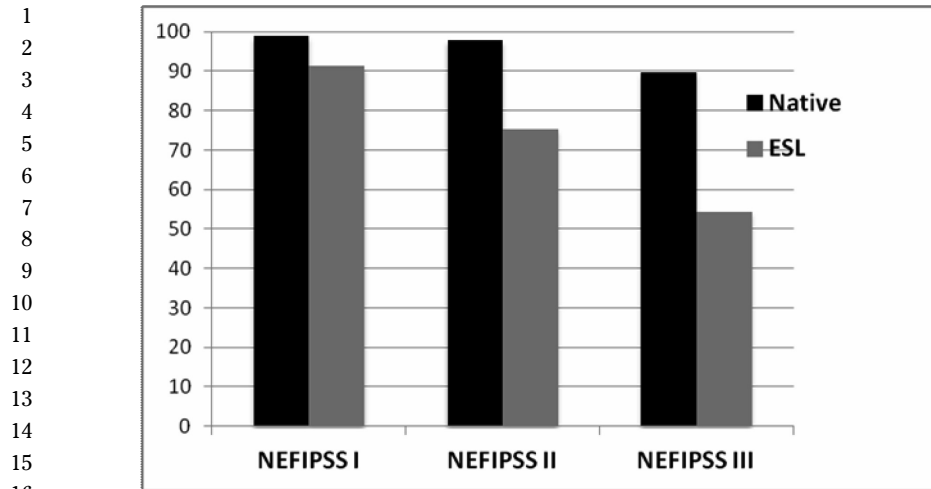
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39 **SECOND LANGUAGE STUDIES: KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF FORMULAIC**
40 **EXPRESSIONS**

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42 To examine use of formulaic expressions in the methodology developed in our laboratory, conversational speech samples are analyzed; formulaic expressions are identified and classified; and an incidence measure is expressed as a proportion of the speech sample word count. To probe knowledge of formulaic expressions, a formal test, the Northridge Evaluation of Formulas, Idioms and Proverbs in Social Situations was used (NEFIPSS I, II, III; see Hall, 1995). This



17 **Fig. 1.** Performance by native and nonnative speakers on NEFIPSS I (multiple choice
18 with linguistically balanced foils), NEFIPSS II (multiple choice with phrasal equivalents
19 as foils), and NEFIPSS III, slot-filler format (“fill in the blank”).
20
21

22 protocol provides brief verbal descriptions of a social setting to elicit the cor-
23 rect social interaction formula. NEFIPSS I and II use two multiple choice de- Q5
24 signs, the first with foils chosen for semantic and phonological likeness and
25 the second for phrasal similarity; in NEFIPSS III, subjects write the phrase in Q6
26 blanks provided (See appendix). The NEFIPSS protocols were designed by Q7
27 Edward Hall (1995) to probe knowledge and use of formulaic language in various
28 populations, including second language speakers and persons with neurogenic
29 language disturbance. By design, healthy persons who are native speakers typ-
30 ically perform near ceiling on these protocols. In the ensuing years, we have
31 tested over 300 first and second language speakers of English ranging in age
32 from 25 to 30 years with a mean of 16 years of education using the NEFIPSS
33 (Figure 1). When subjects must select between comparable phrases that could
34 plausibly fit the situation, greater difficulty is encountered. This is especially so
35 for second language speakers, who may not have acquired the formulemes in
36 their standard, canonical shapes. These results, which support the aspect of the
37 dual process model which posits personal familiarity of formulaic expressions
38 by native speakers, can fruitfully be compared with findings from persons with
39 neurological disorders. Second language speakers, by definition, have acquired
40 their second language at some point after developing their first language. When
41 this process occurs near or after puberty, which is considered a critical period
42 for native sounding speech and language competence, a decrement in compe-
43 tence as compared with the native speaker is often in evidence. Details sur-
44 rounding the critical period hypothesis have been controversial, but the basic
45 concept remains robust (DeKeyser, 2000; Flege, 1995; Johnson & Newport, 1989;
46 Lenneberg, 1967; Scovel, 2000). The notion implies that second language speak-
47 ers, learning a language after the critical period, acquire language using brain

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1 mechanisms that do not have the same structure and/or functionality as first
2 language speakers. Second language speakers can be viewed as having measur-
3 able and quantifiable deficiencies in use and knowledge of formulaic expressions
4 based on these neurological differences. Therefore, these performance results
5 can usefully be compared to results obtained from persons with neurological
6 disorders.

7

8

9 **Focal Brain Damage**

10 Early hints that formulaic expressions are stored and produced differently in
11 the brain arose from observations of adults with language disturbance, usually
12 those with nonfluent aphasia due to a left hemisphere stroke, who preserve some
13 kinds of speech while sustaining serious loss to generative language competence
14 (Code, 2005). The categories identified by Code (2005) included greetings, in-
15 terjections, conventional phrases, and, for the first time in the study of this
16 topic, proper nouns. It likely that the names reported as preserved by persons
17 with severe nonfluent aphasia were personally familiar names, in agreement
18 with findings for preserved famous proper name recognition in severe aphasia
19 (Van Lancker & Klein, 1990) and the role of the right hemisphere in processing
20 personally relevant phenomena (Van Lancker, 1991). The notion that the kinds
21 of speech called *automatic* are processed by cerebral structures that differ from
22 those modulating novel speech was supported by a brain imaging study using
23 PET (positron emission tomography) in healthy subjects. Word generation was
24 associated with activity in left anterior lobe language areas, but counting from 1
25 to 10 was not (Van Lancker, McIntosh, & Grafton, 2003). Counting forms one type
26 of the very large array of overlearned expressions preserved in left hemisphere
27 damage, referred to variously as automatic or nonpropositional speech, unitary
28 phrases, and formulaic expressions.

29 It is dramatic to observe persons with aphasia produce these expressions with
30 normal articulation and prosody in the context of severe deficits in production
31 of propositional language. These preserved components of expressive language
32 are similar in type but differ in the actual forms across individual patients.
33 Because of their extreme variety, these verbal behaviors have been dismissed
34 as incidental, as if they were merely randomly broken-off pieces of a damaged
35 system. This bias was supported by naming the phenomena *stereotypies*, *emo-*
36 *tional utterances*, and *automatic speech*. These terms are misleading because the
37 utterances are often standard conventional expressions used intentionally to
38 communicate and they are not exclusively emotional expressions. When viewed
39 from another perspective, they betray a striking soundness somewhere in the
40 communication system.

41 Example 1 is a published typical example of 31 words spoken by a patient
42 with nonfluent (Broca's) aphasia, of which only three words (hospital, doc-
43 tors, teeth) are lexical items not included in traditional list of stereotyped
44 speech. (Formulaic language is underscored in all examples.) Following the sur-
45 vey research of Code (2005) and later studies on persons with global aphasia,
46 proper nouns are included in the highlighted samples (Van Lancker & Klein,
47 1990).

1 *Example (1)*

2 Yes... ah... Monday... er... Dad and Peter and Dad... er... hospital...
 3 and ah... Wednesday... Wednesday, 9 o'clock... and oh... Thursday...
 4 10 o'clock, ah doctors... two... an' doctors... and er... teeth... yah.
 5 (Goodglass & Geschwind [1976], cited in Carroll [2007], p. 357)
 6

7
 8 The modern view of formulaic language provides a satisfying explanation for
 9 the phenomenon of preserved utterances in severe aphasia. The preserved ut-
 10 terances constitute remnants of natural competence for the very large repertory
 11 of formulemes, expressions that are learned in a special way with unique linguis-
 12 tic properties (Reuterskiold & Sidtis, 2012). The stored repertory is very large:
 13 Experts estimate that between 200,000 and 500,000 fixed expressions are known
 14 to the native speaker (Jackendoff, 1995). The size of this repertory accounts for
 15 the variety of preserved expressions seen in severely aphasic persons.

16 Examination of persons with mild expressive aphasia and those with fluent
 17 aphasia but poor comprehension has revealed an abnormally high proportion of
 18 formulaic expressions in their speech. Striking results arose from the study of an
 19 adult with transcortical sensory aphasia (Sidtis, Canterucci, & Katsnelson, 2009),
 20 whose speech contained 60–90% of formulaic expressions, depending on the
 21 conversational setting. With his other preserved linguistic ability, repetition, his
 22 fluent, socially based speech often deluded interlocutors into assuming normal
 23 communicative skills as shown in Example 2.

24 *Example (2)*

25
 26 Clinician: Good job.

27 PT: What're you laughin' 'bout?

28 Clinician: 'Cause, it's so good! It makes me smile.

29 PT: Really?

30 Clinician: Yes, it causes me to smile with happiness.

31 PT: You know, you're very handsome.

32 Clinician: (Laughs) See, you're getting your language back, I can tell.

33 PT: Well, can I tell you something? It wasn't easy, but I think I
 34 understand what you're saying.

35 Clinician: I think you're getting it back.

36 PT: Well, I'm trying.
 37
 38
 39
 40

41 Even identifying formulaic expressions conservatively (*you're very handsome*
 42 and *I'm trying* are probably also formulaic expressions in this patient's idiolect),
 43 over half of the words spoken by the patient in this short dialogue (under-
 44 lined) are in formulaic expressions. Further examination of speech from aphasic
 45 patients undergoing rehabilitation often reveals that the quantity of speech
 46 increases, but that a large proportion in the increased language samples is
 47 formulaic (see examples in Van Lancker Sidtis, 2012.)

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1 The picture is very different in right hemisphere damage. Persons who have
2 suffered a stroke in the right cerebral hemisphere do not have obvious language
3 deficits: Speech production and comprehension appear intact, and deficits are
4 not usually seen in grammar, phonology, or word retrieval. For this reason,
5 these individuals seldom undergo language testing. It is only in recent years that
6 practitioners have become aware of right hemisphere communicative deficits,
7 or *pragnosia* (this term was first used in development of a neuropsychological
8 protocol for the evaluation of affect; Nelson et al., 1989). Pragnosia, or prag-
9 matic deficits, defined as deficiency in the social use of language, occur in
10 association with a broad range of neurological and psychiatric disorders
11 (Cutting, 1990; Mitchell & Crow, 2005; Myers, 1998). In persons who have sus-
12 tained right hemisphere damage, many of the elements belonging to the prag-
13 matics of language are deficient: maintaining topic and theme, conversational
14 turn-taking, recognizing when speaker's meaning overrides linguistic meaning
15 in utterances (e.g., in indirect requests, sarcasm, idiomatic expressions), pro-
16 cessing humor, and appropriately using social expressions. When recalling that
17 certain of the natural properties of formulaic language pertain to their appro-
18 priate use in social context, it follows that the right hemisphere, so adept at the
19 pragmatic component of language, would play a major role in use of formulas.
20 Conversely, as sequela of pragnosia, persons with right hemisphere damage are
21 likely to produce significantly fewer formulaic expressions in their spontaneous
22 speech (Van Lancker Sidtis, 2004).

23 Studies comparing proportions of formulaic expressions in unilateral brain
24 damage to the left or right hemisphere showed striking differences in these two
25 groups (Van Lancker Sidtis & Postman, 2006). Left cerebral hemisphere damage
26 was associated with abnormally high proportions of formulaic language produc-
27 tion, while measures of persons with right hemisphere damage revealed speech
28 that was deficient in formulaic expressions, containing about 16%, with normal
29 speakers' values (obtained from the control group) at around 25% (Figure 2). The
30 formulaic language impoverishment in neurological subjects with right hemi-
31 sphere damage, despite their intact grammatical, phonological, and semantic
32 competence, negatively affects their communicative abilities, sometimes giving
33 the impression of being cold, unengaged, distracted, or otherwise not coopera-
34 tive in interaction. This arises from the large role played by formulaic language
35 in naturalistic conversation. One of its functions is to foster socialization, which
36 includes achieving empathy and bonding (Wolf & Van Lancker Sidtis, 2012; Wolf,
37 Van Lancker Sidtis, & Sidtis, 2012).

38 The first evidence that subcortical nuclei contribute significantly to the pro-
39 duction of formulaic language came from a single case study of stroke (Speedie,
40 Wertman, T'air, & Heilman, 1993), reporting a patient who no longer was able to
41 say his daily prayers. In another single case study, a survivor of a basal ganglia
42 stroke, complained that she no longer knew the everyday common expressions
43 to use in social settings (Van Lancker Sidtis, Pachana, Cummings, & Sidtis, 2006,
44 p. 276). Quantitative studies of the spontaneous speech of persons with sub-
45 cortical stroke supported these findings (Sidtis et al., 2009). Figure 2 shows two
46 healthy control groups, left and right hemisphere damaged groups, and four
47 single case studies with focal damage in left or right hemisphere or subcortical

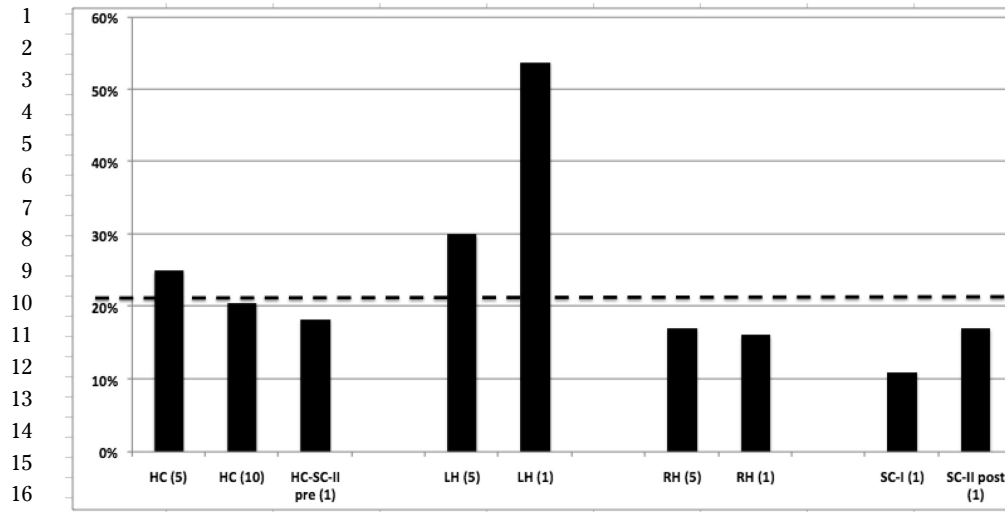


Fig. 2. Percentage of words in formulaic expressions in speech samples obtained from two groups of healthy control subjects (HC 5 and 10) and a single subject previous to the stroke; a group of five and a single case study of left hemisphere damaged subjects; a group of five and a single case study of right hemisphere damaged subjects; two single cases with subcortical damage (SC-I and SC-II). For SC-II, speech samples before the stroke (pre) were compared to highly comparable speech samples produced after the stroke (post). The normal-control average (21.6) is represented by the dashed line.

nuclei. In one case, the second person with subcortical damage (SC-II) and pre- and postmorbidity speech samples were obtained; a significant decline in proportion of formulaic expressions was documented. Overall, findings point to an impact of right hemisphere and subcortical damage on production of formulaic expressions.

Parkinson's Disease

As further confirmation of the role of subcortical nuclei in the execution of formulaic expressions, studies of persons with Parkinson's disease (PD), which affects the basal ganglia, lent support to the findings from stroke studies. In PD, a reduction in a crucial neurotransmitter, dopamine, normally infusing the basal ganglia from the midbrain, leads to motor dysfunction in gait, limb movements, and speech. In our ongoing studies, persons with PD produce significantly fewer formulaic expressions than healthy speakers, and their proportion of formulaic language diminishes with progression and severity of the disease (Rogers, Sidtis, & Sidtis, 2009). Other studies of basal ganglia function reveal its important role in configuring holistic and routinized gestures (Graybiel, 1998; Lieberman, 2002). A range of procedurally based processes are impacted by the subcortical disturbances in PD. These include production of overlearned and routinized expressions, those making up formulaic language.

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1 **Alzheimer's Disease**

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3 In contrast to PD, Alzheimer's disease (AD) affects the cortical layers but
4 leaves basal ganglia intact until late in the disease progression. Neurologi-
5 cally, AD presents with cortical degeneration of the temporal and parietal
6 lobes that gradually progresses frontally, co-occurring with the presence of
7 amyloid plaques and neurofibrillary tangles, the cause of which remains un-
8 clear. Individuals afflicted with AD often suffer significant language impairments
9 that decline as the disease progresses. Numerous anecdotal, clinical obser-
10 vations highlight the presence of formulaic language in AD speech. In our
11 laboratory, two studies of formulaic language in AD speech were conducted.
12 Spontaneous speech of persons diagnosed with AD and age- and education-
13 comparable healthy control participants were analyzed using previously pub-
14 lished methods (Van Lancker & Rallan, 2004), whereby the proportions of words
15 in formulaic expressions were calculated. Results indicate that AD subjects used
16 significantly ($p < .001$) more words in formulas ($M = 35.54\%$, $SD = 5.54$) than
17 healthy subjects ($M = 21.79\%$, $SD = 4.81$) (Bridges, Van Lancker Sidtis, & Sidtis,
18 2012).

19 In the second study, persons with AD participated in a structured conver-
20 sational interview, followed by administration of the NEFIPSS II and III (Hall,
21 1995). Again, persons with AD had greater proportions of formulaic language
22 than healthy participants or than PD participants (Rogers et al., Figure 3). On
23 the NEFIPSS, the PD and AD groups differed. Despite the lesser use (i.e., lower Q9
24 incidence of formulaic expressions), the PD group revealed relatively intact
25 knowledge of formulaic expressions (NEFIPSS II = 94.4%, NEFIPSS III = 84.7%),
26 while the AD group performed poorly on the knowledge probe (NEFIPSS II =
27 78.7%, NEFIPSS III = 57.2%). These results suggest a double dissociation regard-
28 ing formulaic language, whereby AD subjects used the expressions but show
29 insufficient knowledge, while the PD group failed to use the expressions nor-
30 mally but knew them. The results for the AD speakers were supported by their
31 occasional formulaic errors, which reflected a distortion not seen in formulaic
32 speech errors performed by normal speakers (Kuiper et al., 2007). For example,
33 AD errors were *If I can't say anything pleasant, just keep quiet*, which was probably
34 derived from "if you can't say anything nice, don't say anything at all"; and *Put*
35 *down my mind to it*, likely from "put my mind to it"). For healthy speakers, speech
36 errors generally represent blends from two recognizable formulaic expressions,
37 as in *That's the way the cookie bounces* (Cutting & Bock, 1997; Kuiper et al.,
38 2007).

39 It might be speculated that cortical integrity is associated with declarative
40 or linguistic knowledge of formulaic expressions, while intact basal ganglia are
41 needed for normal use. Declarative knowledge of formulaic expressions in right
42 hemisphere damage or in many other neurological populations has not yet been
43 assessed. The distinction in performance between use, whereby productive
44 speech is examined, and knowledge, which evaluates language competence,
45 is a very important one. Differences between procedural memory and use of
46 formulaic expressions and declarative knowledge of their forms and meanings
47 remain to be studied.

1 **Schizophrenia**

2 Studies in our laboratory of persons with a diagnosis of schizophrenia have
3 indicated a significant paucity of formulaic expressions in their conversations
4 (Karibis et al., 2009). Measures of spontaneous speech were obtained from eight
5 persons diagnosed with schizophrenia and compared to speech samples from
6 age and education matched healthy control subjects. The schizophrenic group
7 had a significantly lower proportion of words comprising formulaic expressions
8 (12.3%) compared to the normal group (21.3%) in their spontaneous speech.
9 Results obtained from formal testing using the NEFIPSS (86%) suggested that
10 the schizophrenic subjects had sufficient knowledge of the formulaic expres-
11 sions. Here again a distinction between use and knowledge is encountered.
12 Taken together, their performance on the structured interviews and on the
13 NEFIPSS suggested that schizophrenia is associated with intact knowledge but
14 significantly reduced use of formulaic expressions.

15 Results for the schizophrenic group may account for the impression that
16 their speech is abnormal, although no grammatical deficits have been found,
17 and the semantic disturbance has been traditionally attributed to cognitive
18 dysfunction (i.e., thought disorder). Impoverishment of formulaic expressions
19 provides a quantitative measure of social cognitive deficits recently proposed for
20 this condition (Mitchell & Crow, 2005; Subotnik et al., 2006). Although the sites of
21 cerebral disorder underlying schizophrenia are not known, and many brain areas
22 and neurochemical conditions have been proposed, there is some evidence of
23 subcortical dysfunction (Carlsson & Carlsson, 1990; Prestia et al., 2011; Salvador
24 et al., 2010), which is concordant with other observations reviewed here that
25 associate intact basal ganglia with formulaic language production abilities.
26

28 **Autistic Spectrum**

29 As already mentioned, persons with autistic characteristics, including those with
30 severe linguistic impairment, are observed to verbally produce fixed expressions
31 in a repetitive manner with clear articulation but often hypo- or hypermelodic
32 or otherwise abnormal prosody (Bogdashina, 2005). These verbal chunks may
33 arise from imitating radio or television, such as advertising jingles, or they may
34 be the result of echoing the utterances of other speakers. Using the terminology
35 of scientists and clinicians studying autistic language, verbal repetition is either
36 *mitigated* (with altered grammar and pronouns) or *unmitigated* (unaltered or
37 exact repetitions; Stark, 2007). As the sites or sources of cerebral disorder are
38 not known for these linguistically handicapped children, little is understood
39 about this behavior. It has been proposed that these repetitive expressions
40 are sometimes used to communicate (Dobbinson, Perkins, & Boucher, 2003).
41 Experts in child language acquisition have posited two processes, analytic and
42 holistic, as operating side by side in the development of language competence
43 (e.g., Locke, 1993). Drawing on the dual process model of language, it might be
44 of interest to consider that while grammatical abilities are profoundly impaired
45 in these children, the learning process that provides for acquisition of holistic
46 verbal material may be selectively preserved.
47

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1 In contrast, persons diagnosed with high-functioning autism and/or As-
2 perger's syndrome appear to be deficient in routinized expressions. They are
3 noted to use literal, formal speech; they fail to follow conversational cues in turn-
4 taking; they interpret nonliteral expressions concretely; and they exhibit a range
5 of social communicative deficits (Landa, 2000; Peppe, McCann, Gibbon, O'Hare,
6 & Rutherford, 2006). Although few quantitative studies have been undertaken, it
7 is to be predicted that this population, although verbal, is deficient in production
8 of formulaic expressions, contributing importantly to the negative impression
9 of their communicative competence. In these autistic-spectrum populations, as
10 in so many others, one can conclude that production of holistic utterances
11 (formulaic language) appears to be neurologically separate from production
12 of novel, propositional speech, lending support to the dual process model of
13 language processing. This fact is heightened in interest by the observation that
14 persons falling toward the severely impaired end of the autistic spectrum may
15 be observed to produce formulaic expressions almost exclusively, while those
16 toward the higher-functioning extreme end of the spectrum communicate with
17 an abnormal paucity of formulaic expressions. While discussion of detailed neu-
18robiological substrates associated with these disorders is beyond the scope of
19 this review, the considerable progress in understanding brain behavior relation-
20 ships may further elucidate disparate brain mechanisms underlying formulaic
21 and normal language production competence (e.g., Minshew & Williams, 2007).

22

23 **Other Neurological Disorders**

24
25 Tourette's syndrome is known for vocalizations of taboo words and phrases
26 indigenous to a culture (Van Lancker & Cummings, 1999). In this disorder, dam-
27 age to functionality in the basal ganglia is suspected, involving hyperactivation
28 of motor behaviors leading to excessive physical and verbal tic-like gestures.
29 The semi-involuntary vocal-motor gestures may be coughing, yelling, grunting,
30 hissing, spitting, or emitting taboo words, which include expletives, insults,
31 curses, and other words and phrases considered socially interdicted in the
32 native language. These behaviors affect only some of the sufferers some of the
33 time in the course of the disease; the cause remains mysterious. In normal
34 brain function, the basal ganglia—modulating motor behaviors—are intimately
35 intertwined within limbic system structures, in which emotional experiencing is
36 represented. It might be speculated that emotional and reflexive cries in human
37 communication (which some view as antecedent in biological evolution to emo-
38 tional utterances; see review in Kreiman & Sidtis, 2011) involve orchestrated
39 activation of these structures, and that in Tourette's disease, a normal process
40 is thus distorted by the obsessive compulsive component of the neurological
41 disorder (Van Lancker & Cummings, 1999). This phenomenon highlights the
42 uniqueness of expletives, as a subset of formulaic language, in human verbal
43 expression.

44 While Tourette's syndrome is associated with excessive production of a nar-
45 rowly specific category of formulaic language, impoverishment of formulaic ex-
46 pressions can be inferred from studies in persons with agenesis of the corpus
47 callosum. In a study of such individuals, poor performance in comprehension

1 tasks using the Formulaic and Novel Language Comprehension test (FANL-C,
2 a test of formulaic language comprehension; Kempler & Van Lancker, 1996)
3 and significantly weaker proverb interpretation was found (Paul, Van Lancker,
4 Schieffer, Dietrich, & Brown, 2003). Possible explanations include a failure of
5 communication from the right hemisphere, a major facilitator of formulaic ex-
6 pressions. It is likely that whole brain involvement is necessary for normal
7 production of formulaic expressions.

8 In summary, observations from second language speakers and clinical sub-
9 jects, taken together, suggest that exposure before puberty as a native speaker to
10 language in the indigenous culture as well as a whole, intact, and communicating
11 brain are required to achieve and maintain linguistic competence in formulaic
12 language.

13

14

15 **DUAL PROCESS MODEL OF LANGUAGE PROCESSING**

16

17 Although the story is surely much more complex than can be posited at this
18 early time in the neurolinguistic study of formulaic language, some preliminary
19 proposals seem viable. First, it appears clear from converging sources that for-
20 mulaic language and novel language are produced during spontaneous speech
21 according to separate and distinct principles. That is, they are dissociated in
22 cerebral function. Each can be selectively preserved or impaired following spe-
23 cific types of brain damage or dysfunction. The neurolinguistic results already
24 described lead to the dual processing model with respect to speech produc-
25 tion, which posits two different functional modes: novel and formulaic (Perkins,
26 1999; Van Lancker Sidtis, 2008). Second, studies for which underlying neurolog-
27 ical disorders are known or understood (stroke, AD, PD) strongly suggest that
28 a right hemisphere-subcortical circuit modulates the production of formulaic
29 expressions (Van Lancker Sidtis, 2012). A third observation, made from second **Q10**
30 language speakers and persons with neurological disease, is that knowledge and
31 use of formulaic expressions are dissociated skills. English as a second language
32 (ESL) speakers may score high in incidence, but the repertory of formulaic ex-
33 pressions may be small, and their knowledge impoverished compared to native
34 speakers. In AD, incidence or use of formulaic expressions is in excess of normal
35 but knowledge of formulaic language is impaired, whereas the opposite is true of
36 PD subjects. The causes and conditions of deviant formulaic language behaviors
37 in other neurological conditions, such as schizophrenia, autism, agenesis of the
38 corpus callosum, and Tourette's syndrome, remain to be explained.

39

40

41 **IMPLICATIONS FOR EVALUATION AND TREATMENT**

42

43 Failure to recognize the essential differences between formulaic and novel lan-
44 guage in the speech clinic has serious implications for accurate evaluation of the
45 language disorder and of language recovery, as evidenced in Example 2. It could
46 be beneficial to identify clinically when aphasic speech is made up primarily of
47 formulaic language, either in the first months following neurological injury or at

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1 a later assessment following a course of therapy. While formulaic expressions
2 are useful and prevalent in communication, they do not achieve the same goals
3 of novel language. Further, predominant preservation of formulaic expressions,
4 when recognized in the patient, can be utilized and optimized in treatment plan-
5 ning, whereas persons with a pathologically low incidence and/or knowledge of
6 formulaic language might be trained into the realm of social interaction formulas.

7

8

9

10 CONCLUSIONS

11

12 Because formulaic language pervades all human language use, it can be expected
13 to play an important role in neurogenic communication disorders. Knowledge
14 and use of formulaic expressions are affected by brain maturation and by brain
15 damage and dysfunction. Following neurological impairment, formulaic language
16 may be either selectively impaired or preserved, either in use or knowledge, lead-
17 ing to an abnormal language profile and loss of functionality in social settings.
18 Studies of formulaic language in persons with neurological disorders hold the
19 promise of casting light on these disparate modes of language use as well as
20 improving models of brain function underlying communication.

21

22

23

24

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26

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26 APPENDIX

27 NEFIPSS sample item, with three kinds of response options

28 1. Bob opens the door and gestures for Mary to go through first. He would probably
29 say. . .

30 Response options:

- 31 NEFIPSS I: a. Open the door
32 b. Leather shoe
33 c. Come here
34 d. Before you
35 e. After you
- 36 NEFIPSS II: a. After yourself
37 b. After you
38 c. Behind you
39 d. First, you
40 e. Go through
- 41 NEFIPSS III: After _____.
- 42
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Author Queries Article APL 1200010

- AQ1: Please check change, per Ref list.
AQ2: Please check change, per Ref list.
AQ3: Please check change, per Ref list.
AQ4: Please check change: Year changed to 2012 per Ref list; OK?
AQ5: Please check change, matches with prevalent acronym used here and checked with Internet search.
AQ6: Please check change.
AQ7: Please check change.
AQ8: Please check change: Year changed to 2012 per Ref list; OK?
AQ9: Please check change.
AQ10: Please check change: Year changed to 2012 per Ref list.
AQ11: Please check change; as meant?
AQ12: Please check change; as meant?
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