Objectives

1) Which of the following types of memory is pivotal for effecting language processing.

preserved working memory integrated memory

long-term memory short term memory

2) The hierarchical network models suggest that semantic memory is organized into 2 categories, the first being nodes which is referred a major concept, such as an animal or BIRD.

3) Metaphor consist of THREE main parts

4) __ predominate in our retention of sentence

meaning surface structure deep structure form

5) A _ error occurs when morphemes are switched

morpehemes allophone

6) Production of speech is a _ process

complex medium simple

7) Conversation follows a proper structure that consist of PARTICIPANTS opening & closing

8) Cross linguistic studies enables us to explore BOTH UNIVERSAL AND PARTICULAR APECTS OF LANGUAGE

9) A child kept away from civilisation is called _ child

feral motherese

10) our brain store the ___ for later (INFORMATION)

11) Initially parsing is performed by a ..... Module. (syntactic)

12) Numerous studies shows .....that predominates in our retention of sentences. (meaning)

13) conversational settings..... Conversational process. (shape)

14) The timeframe of babbling is ..... Months. (6 till 9 months)

15) In the context of recognition,prasodic fectors provide a source of stability in ..... (Perception)

16) Initially parsing is performed by a ..... Module.(SYNTACTIC)

17) Numerous studies shows that_____ predominates in our retention of sentences.(MEANING)

18) Conversational settings..... Conversational process.(SHAPE)

19) The timeframe of babbling is ..... Months.(4 MONTH)

20) In the context of recognition, prosodic fectors provide a source of stability in ..... (PERCEPTION)
21) The term Psycholinguistics was coined in 1936 by Jacob Robert Kantor.
22) Perception of continuous speech is different from our perception of individual words
23) Figurative language is language that literally means one thing but is taken to mean another.
24) Numerous studies show that meaning predominates in our retention of sentences.
25) For Building Global Structure ,we need to consider what aspect of performance is being.
26) Every conversation has a topic development phase which is framed by opening and closing phrase.
27) Until the early part of their second year, infants communicate with their world primarily in nonverbal ways.
28) Pre-operational stage is Toddler and Early Childhood.

03 Marks Questions

Q. 3 stages of development of processing system ?

Stage 1: Input The brain is exposed to a stimulus, at which point it analyzes and evaluates the information. For example, the online learner reads a passage and determines whether it's worth remembering.

Stage 2: Storage Our brains store the information for later use. It also adds it to our mental schema and encodes it. If the information is not reinforced, the brain may simply forget it over time.

Stage 3: Output The brain decides what it's going to do with the information and how it will react to the stimulus. For example, after reading the passage, the individual uses the information they learned to overcome a challenge.

Q. simultaneous & sequential bilingualism

A distinction has been drawn between simultaneous bilingualism and sequential bilingualism. When children acquire two languages at the same time, their bilingualism is referred to as simultaneous bilingualism. Sequential bilingualism occurs when an individual (child or adult) acquires a second language after already acquiring a native language. This type of bilingualism is also referred to as second-language acquisition. Most commonly, children learn two languages simultaneously when they are born into a community that is bilingual. In some communities, bilingualism is simply expected.

Q. modular & interactive model

The modular approach suggests that the words of sentence activate syntactic processing strategies that are used to organize the words into a phrase marker. These strategies indicate that we prefer to attach incoming words to the most recent constituent as opposed to attaching them to earlier constituents or developing new ones. Although the strategies are generally useful, they sometimes lead to errors and subsequent re-analyses of syntactic structure.

The interactive approach emphasizes that we use all available information, including lexical, discourse, and contextual factors. Whereas the modular approach insists that syntactically based strategies are used first, with lexical and discourse factors coming in later, the interactive model asserts that we simultaneously use all available information to parse sentences. Current research supports the role of lexical and contextual factors in parsing, but the role of discourse factors is less evident.

Q. agramatic , patient proceed of words

Agrammatic patients frequently omit closed-class words (and inflectional endings; see the later discussion) from their sentences while preserving open-class words somewhat better. In addition, they process closed-class words differently than individuals without neurological damage.

Q. story grammar in narrative discource processing

Some of Bartlett's ideas have been formalized by contemporary researchers into the concept of a story grammar. A story grammar is a schema in semantic memory that identifies the typical or expected arrangement of events in a story. In general, story grammars view narratives as consisting of a setting, one or more episodes, and then an ending. In turn, episodes have a characteristic structure: some initiating event occurs, leading to some internal response on the part of the protagonist. The response leads to a goal, an attempt to reach the goal, and an outcome.

Q. Type of cohesion

One type of cohesion is called reference. Reference deals with the links between words and objects or events in the world. In discourse, reference deals with the links between words (or phrases) and other words (or phrases) in discourse. More precisely, reference is a semantic relation whereby information needed for the interpretation of one item is found elsewhere in the text. We often use pronouns such as she, he, it, his, her, and their to refer to earlier items.

Q. Constraint based theory

Constraint based theory proposed by MacDonald, argues all relevant information is available immediately to the parser during reading and listening. The incoming information is analysed and all possible constraints or outputs are activated and ranked according to the strength of the subsequent activation. The syntactic structure receiving the most support from the constraints will be highly activated and thus chosen. In essence, activated constraints are in competition with one another and when two constraints are equally activated, ambiguity arises.

Q. Sign Language

Sign languages (also known as signed languages) are languages that use the visual-manual modality to convey meaning. Sign languages are expressed through manual articulations in combination with non-manual elements. Sign languages are full-fledged natural languages with their own grammar and lexicon. Sign languages are not universal and they are not mutually intelligible with each other, although there are also striking similarities among sign languages.

Q. How a child's language at home is different from language at school

Some individuals are bilingual because they live in bilingual regions; some become bilingual because their home language is not the same as their school or business language; some become bilingual because colonization has imposed another language. Others become bilingual because they have studied a language in school or because they grew up in homes with two languages.

Q. Speech perception

Speech perception is a product of innate preparation (nature) and sensitivity to experience (nurture) as demonstrated in infants' abilities to perceive speech. The process of speech perception seems simple enough. Listeners must, in effect, categorize the sounds that they hear into one of the many classes of sounds that exist in their language. In fact, the task is an extraordinarily complex one, for two major reasons. First, the environmental context often interferes with the speech signal. Under normal listening conditions, the speech we hear competes with other stimuli

for our limited processing capacity. Other auditory signals, such as a conversation across the room or someone's sneezing or burping can interfere with the fidelity of the speech signal.

Q. there are 6 sub types within a semantic network write only the name of 3.

1. **Implicational networks** use implication as the primary relation for connecting nodes. They may be used to represent patterns of beliefs, causality, or inferences.
2. **Executable networks** include some mechanism, such as marker passing or attached procedures, which can perform inferences, pass messages, or search for patterns and associations.
3. **Learning networks** build or extend their representations by acquiring knowledge from examples. The new knowledge may change the old network by adding and deleting nodes and arcs or by modifying numerical values, called weights, associated with the nodes and arcs.

Q. what do you understand the term proposition

A proposition is an idea unit; it is a statement that expresses a factual claim; it is the basic unit involved in the understanding and retention of text. Propositions correspond roughly to verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and subordinating conjunctions (not nouns or pronouns). Proposition density is an important factor in reading comprehension because of a proposition's role in text comprehension and retention. In addition, sentences in print often have a complex, embedded syntax that places demands on the reader's working memory.

Q. define episodic memory

episodic memory stores our experience from our personal perspective. Studies of individuals with various forms of brain damage suggest that these memory systems are controlled by distinct regions in the brain. These concepts provide a framework for understanding how language processing occurs. Although it is generally agreed that we encode, store, and retrieve linguistic information along the general lines sketched here, the specific processes have yet to be addressed.

Q. Define Self monitring?

Speakers routinely monitor their utterances to ensure that they are saying what they wanted to and in the way they wanted to. When errors are detected, speakers interrupt their speech nearly immediately and begin editing their utterance. Both the use of editing expressions and the linguistic structure of the repair itself appear to facilitate listener comprehension.

Q. Working memory with respect to Comprehension?

Given the complexity of comprehension, we would expect that working memory capacity is also related to individual differences in comprehension performance. Gernsbacher and Faust provide evidence for this claim. They found that less skilled comprehenders were less efficient in rejecting the inappropriate meanings of ambiguous words. For example, when presented with sentences such as He dug with the spade, less skilled comprehenders were slower to reject the meaning of spade that pertains to playing cards in favor of the meaning that pertains to gardening.

Q. Note on American sign language?

American Sign Language has its own set of grammatical rules and is a language that is independent of English. Our preliminary look at ASL indicates some striking similarities in its grammatical organization, suggesting that some of the basic concepts we have been discussing might be universal. At the same time, there are significant differences

between ASL and English, and we will examine these further. Because the similarities and differences between ASL and spoken languages are so intriguing, we will return periodically to the study of ASL throughout this book.

Q. Transformation grammar

Transformational grammar was an influential theory of grammar formulated by Chomsky in the late 1950s (Chomsky, 1957, 1965). Language and Grammar From a linguistic perspective, a grammar is a description of a person's linguistic knowledge. Grammar: A formal device with a finite set of rules that generates the sentences in the language.

Q. Network Hierarchical model 3 Marks

A semantic network is an interconnected web of concepts connected by various relations. In the hierarchical network model, we store our knowledge of words in the form of a semantic network with some words represented at higher nodes in the network than others. Although the hierarchical network model can explain some results, it is too rigid to capture all of our tacit knowledge of the lexicon.

Q. Lexical Ambiguity

The form of ambiguity in which a single word may be interpreted to have more than one meaning is referred to as lexical ambiguity. Foss was the first to apply the phoneme-monitoring technique to the study of lexical ambiguity. He presented listeners with sentences containing ambiguous words, such as those in sentence:

The man started to drill before the truck arrived.

Q. Lexical access

Lexical access is influenced by a variety of factors, including the frequency of a word, its phonological structure, its syntactic category, its morphological structure, the presence of semantically related words, and the existence of alternative meanings of the word. Common words and meanings appear to be in a state of greater readiness than less-often-used words and meanings. We rely on morphological structure when encountering unfamiliar words. Considerable research has investigated how we access lexically ambiguous words. Some research suggests that we briefly consider all meanings of an ambiguous word. However, when a preceding context primes the most dominant meaning of a word, lexical access may be selective.

Q. Turn taking

Turn-taking has been described as a process which obtain a distribution of talk across two participants. The time gap between one person stopping and the other starting being just a few fractions of a second, yet the co-ordination is achieved with some rapidity and turns are appropriated in orderly fashion.

Q. proposition density

Proposition density is an important factor in reading comprehension because of a proposition's role in text comprehension and retention. In addition, "sentences in print often have a complex, embedded syntax that places demands on the reader's working memory".

Q. Explain Memory (3 marks) Memory:

"process of retaining information over time" What do we remember after one exposure to a single sentence? e, our memory for sentences is a mixture of the meaning of the sentences, their wording, and the inferences we draw at the time of comprehension. Numerous studies show that meaning predominates in our retention of sentences.

Q. Working memory:

Working memory is only able to hold about seven units of information. This could simply be seven words, but because many sentences are longer than this, we need some way to deal immediately with more than seven words. One way we do this is to chunk the words into grammatical constituents such as noun and verb phrases, thereby reducing the storage burden to perhaps two or three constituents. The processing function of working memory is used to organize the words into the constituents.

Q. Long-term memory:

Long term memory is defined as a memory structure that holds permanent knowledge. Tulving suggests that we should distinguish between two aspects of long-term memory, episodic memory and semantic memory. In the original formulation, episodic memory dealt with personally experienced facts and semantic memory dealt with general facts. For example, most people know that John Wilkes Booth killed Abraham Lincoln, and thus this fact is a part of our semantic memory. But if you happen to remember when and where you were when you first learned this information (for example, your fourth-grade class), this personal event is a small part of your episodic memory.

Q. Define lexical objects (3 marks)

The basic objects (such as words) described in a lexicon. It is becoming customary in lexicography and computational linguistics to refer to the lexical sign, i.e. an object associated with attributes denoting orthogonal kinds of lexical information. A second kind of lexical object is the lexical sign class or archi-sign in which similar lexical objects are grouped together, each characterized by subsets of the lexical information required to characterize specific lexical signs. These class-based generalizations may be organized in terms of implication rules (redundancy rules), subsumption lattices, type hierarchies, or default inheritance hierarchies.

Q. Gender Difference in language (3)

Early studies of gender differences found that men interrupt women more than vice versa, a result that has not been found as often recently. Studies of conversational participants flesh out an outline of conversational processes sketched earlier in the chapter while, at the same time, suggesting new avenues for research and theory.

Q. Three pioneers who worked in Psycholinguistics in 19 century. Write Names. 3 Marks

1) Paul Broca,
2) Charles Hockett and
3) Willem Levelt

Q. local discourse structure

Comprehension of connected discourse depends less on the meanings of the individual sentences than on their arrangement. Indeed, it is entirely possible for a group of meaningful sentences to be thrown together in a way that makes no sense at all.

Q. Three TYPES of psycholinguistic

1) Developmental psycholinguistics
2) Social psycholinguistics
3) Applied psycholinguistics

Q. scope of psycholinguistic:

- It is concerned with the relationship between the human mind and the language
- It is interested in the ways of storing lexical items and syntactic rules in mind
- It is also interested in the processes of memory involved in perception and interpretation of texts

05 Marks Questions

Q. Slip hand Key elements of phonological knowledge

Slips of the Hand: Errors occur in signing that strongly resemble those found with speech.

Independence of Parameters: speech errors suggest that these are independent planning units because errors ordinarily occur at only one level of planning at a time.

Sick Hand configuration: hand toward signer

Place of articulation: at forehead ,

Movement: with twist of wrist Bored Hand configuration: straight index finger with hand toward signer Place of articulation: at nose ,

Movement: with twist of wrist

Q. Theraputic discourse

For the most part, psychotherapists and related professionals (counselors and so on) attempt to help clients by listening to their concerns and talking to them. When the primary means of achieving therapeutic results is through language, we would expect that therapists are especially skilled at conversational processes. What kinds of special characteristics, then, comprise therapeutic discourse? Or, to put it slightly differently, what are the special institutional rules of psychotherapy? It might be helpful to begin with an admittedly simplistic model of what therapists do and then examine each of these tasks in terms of conversational processes. We may distinguish three main tasks during therapy. First, the therapist listens carefully as the client reports experiences, issues, and concerns. Second, the therapist interprets the client's experiences and symptoms. Third, the therapist collaborates with the client regarding potential courses of action. These tasks are not necessarily organized sequentially; therapeutic sessions interweave data, interpretation, and suggestion in a complex pattern.

Q. concept of close conversation

Conventions are also at work when we close conversations. Schegloff and Sacks (1973) suggest that one way to end a conversation is to present a preclosing statement like we-ell, so-o-o, or OK, which signals a readiness to end the conversation. The listener then may accept the statement with an utterance such as yeah or OK. Alternatively, the listener might bring up another topic and the conversation would continue. Here is an example of the latter (from Clark, 1994, p. 1004):

June: yes

Daphie: thanks very much

June: OK?

Daphie: right, I'll see you this

June: because there how did you beat him?

Daphie: no, he beat me, four one (laughs)

June: four one

Daphie: yes, I was doing quite well in one game, and then then I—I lost

June: oh, how disgusting

Daphie: yes

June: OK. Right

Daphie: right

June: see you tonight

Daphie: right, bye

June: bye love

Notice that June, in the third line, signals a potential end to the conversation (OK?) and Daphie seems to reciprocate (right, I'll see you this), but then June brings up another topic.

Q. Explain briefly "Propositional Representation"(5 marks)

Evidence for the psychological reality of propositions comes from Kintsch and Keenan, who showed that the number of propositions influences the time required to read a passage when preparing to recall it. For example, the following two sentences have about the same number of words:

(3) Cleopatra's downfall lay in her foolish trust in the fickle political figures of the Roman world.

(4) Romulus, the legendary founder of Rome, took the women of the Sabine by force.

However, sentence (3) is more complex propositionally than (4), which contains four propositions. Kintsch and Keenan found that a proposition added about 1.5 seconds to the reading time. Later studies provide somewhat lower estimates of the time needed to encode a single proposition but support the general conclusion that the number of propositions is related to reading time. Further work explored the notion that discourse is stored as a network of propositions.

Q. Motor theory

The main rationale for the motor theory is that it deals effectively with the lack of invariance and it argued that although the relationship between acoustic structure and perception is quite complex, sounds are produced in similar ways but with varying acoustic representations and are perceived in similar ways. Anecdotal evidence suggests that teaching students to produce sounds silently aids them in the identification of new sounds. The theory makes some testable claims about the brain mechanisms underlying language.

The areas responsible for language perception and production are distinct and separate and the motor theory would expect a closer neurological link between these functions. Ojemann provided some support for the idea that the perception and production areas of the brain are closely related. The theory has some interesting implications regarding language acquisition that infants can hear certain phonetic distinctions well before they are able to

produce them. The phonetic module, which links these perceptual and productive skills, may be an important innate mechanism in the acquisition of language; the motor theory has been a useful theory.

Q. PROPERTIES of speech error

Other patterns in these speech errors deserve a closer look. Garrett has identified four generalizations about speech errors that reappear with striking regularity. First, elements that interact with one another tend to come from similar linguistic environments, as indicated by examples (2) through (4):

(2) The little burst of beaden (beast of burden).

(3) You're not a poojin pitter-downer, are you? (pigeon putterdowner)

(4) Children interfere with your nife lite (night life).

Notice that the phonetic segments in the beginning of a word tend to be exchanged with other initial segments; the same is true for middle and final segments. Moreover, exchanges of segments are more common when the segments that precede them are similar. The exchange of /f/ and /t/ in sentence (4) follows this principle. Second, elements that interact with one another tend to be similar to one another. In particular, consonants are invariably exchanged or shifted with other consonants but not with vowels. Errors involving similar sounds, such as in sentence (5), often have little relation to meaning but are based, instead, on phonetic similarity:

(5) Sesame Street crackers (sesame seed crackers).

Q. Grammatical concept of children

Lexical development refers to changes that occur in vocabulary knowledge over childhood, and how children of different ages assign meanings to words, and how these meanings change in response to various experiences.

Children's acquisition of the sound system of their language does not occur in isolation of the communicative processes rather, children come to the task of learning phonology with some knowledge of how to communicate in nonverbal ways.

Children acquire grammatical morphemes gradually, over a period of years. During this time, their sentences get longer and more complex. Some of the changes in sentence length reflect the fact that children are now able to express agent, action, and object in a single sentence.

Children acquire grammatical morphemes gradually throughout the preschool years. Complex syntactic constructions such as negatives, questions, and relative clauses are also developed during the preschool years.

Q. Give your concept about linguistic productivity in 3 4 lines

Four basic grammatical concepts are duality of patterning, morphology, phrase structure, and linguistic productivity. Words are composed of phonemes, which, in turn, have distinctive features. In each instance, the smaller units are combined in a rule-governed manner to produce the larger units. Words consist of one or more units of meaning or morphemes. The system of grammatical morphemes in a language provides speakers with a way of signaling subtle differences in meaning. Phrase-structure rules codify our intuitions about the groupings of words in a sentence. Some sentences are ambiguous and may be grouped in more than one way. Linguistic productivity refers to the fact that there is no limit to the number of sentences in a language. One type of phrase-structure rule, that of recursion, is responsible for some of this productivity.

Q. semantic networks

A semantic network or net is a graphic notation for representing knowledge in patterns of interconnected nodes and arcs. Computer implementations of semantic networks were first developed for artificial intelligence and machine translation, but earlier versions have long been used in philosophy, psychology, and linguistics.

What is common to all semantic networks is a declarative graphic representation that can be used either to represent knowledge or to support automated systems for reasoning about knowledge. Some versions are highly informal, but other versions are formally defined systems of logic.

Q. Factors of lexical access Lexical Frequency

In visual and auditory modalities, the more frequently a lexical item is used the more quickly it is recognized Word Concreteness and Imagery Words such as camera and banana are easy to imagine in our mind, whereas words such as justice and evil are more difficult to mentally picture. This issue which relates to the difficulty and ease of picturing some words in comparison to others refers to the concept of word concreteness and abstractness. Word concreteness is also known as image ability and as implied by its name, is the ability to visualize lexical items. Concrete words are those that describe tangible nouns .

Q. Info processing system

The general strategies by which the human mind encodes, stores, and retrieves information can be described independently of language. Working memory provides a temporary repository of information that is relevant for ongoing cognitive tasks. It is divided into three components: the central executive, the phonological loop, and the visuo spatial sketchpad.

Long-term memory is divided into semantic memory and episodic memory. Semantic memory holds general knowledge, whereas episodic memory stores our experience from our personal perspective. Studies of individuals with various forms of brain damage suggest that these memory systems are controlled by distinct regions in the brain. These concepts provide a framework for understanding how language processing occurs. Although it is generally agreed that we encode, store, and retrieve linguistic information along the general lines sketched here, the specific processes have yet to be addressed. We now turn our attention to these processes in the next section.

Q. Language processing developments five points

- Interpret the middle letter as and h in one word but as a in the other despite the fact letter is physically identical in two cases.
- Use context to identify obscure letters.
- Some identified letters enable us to recognize the word as a familiar word
- We identify the obscured letter from our knowledge of spellings
- Processing at letter and word level simultaneously

Q. abilities in child to acquir lang

- One of the main themes of psycholinguistics is how children acquire language.
- To understand language acquisition, it will be helpful to understand the cognitive abilities children bring to the task of acquiring their native language.
- To what extent the information-processing system operates during the first few years of life, when most normal children acquire language.

To conclude, the information processing approach characterizes thinking as the environment providing input of data, which is then transformed by our senses. The information can be stored, retrieved and transformed using “mental programs”.

Q. What are the 3 questions when Chomsky present his theory. 5 marks

1) what constitutes knowledge of language?
2) how knowledge of language is acquired?
3) how knowledge of language is put to use?

Q. Language gestures

Despite the richness of the language infants receive in the first year of life, it is some time before they are able to speak themselves. Before they use language to communicate, they communicate with gestures. Well before 10 months of age, children engage in a lot of vocal behavior that appears to have some communicative value. Children's smiles and (most definitely) cries elicit parental behavior. Moreover, different cries are discriminated by parents, and these yield responses that differ in urgency as well as type. Still, these sounds are not true forms of intentional communication because infants do not display flexible, goal-directed behavior. For example, if a cry is ineffective in obtaining adult attention, young infants do not turn to another behavior, such as banging an object against the side of the crib. Thus, although infants' cries generally elicit parental responses, the infant is not using the cry for that purpose. Rather, it is simply a built-in response with predictable consequences.

Q. Role of agreement in linguistics planning:

A line of research that may be helpful in evaluating serial and parallel models concerns number agreement. In English, in order for a sentence to be grammatical there needs to be number agreement between subjects and either verbs or pronouns. Thus, we say The concerts this Summer have been wonderful, not The concerts this Summer has been wonderful, and The pitcher's fastball is his best pitch, not The pitcher's fastball is their best pitch. We sometimes make agreement errors that are instructive. For example, in sentence (5), the head noun (time) controls the correct form of the subsequent verb (is), but we sometimes err by using a form of the verb (are) that matches the immediately preceding word (games).

For example, the time for fun and games is over.

Q. Parallel theory

Speech errors from both spontaneous speech as well as laboratory studies have provided researchers with a body of data about the production of language. Theories of how we proceed from message to linguistic structure come in two types. Serial models assume that we begin with the overall idea of an utterance, followed by syntactic organization, content words, morphemes, and phonology. Slips of the tongue typically involve just one level of planning, with other levels unaffected. There may be a final stage, after the planning of an utterance but before its articulation, that edits the utterance-to-be in a manner not inconsistent with Freud's ideas. Recent alternatives to the stage models are parallel models of production. These models assume that the linguistic message is organized at semantic, syntactic, morphological, and phonological levels. Activation of a node at one level may trigger activation of nodes at other levels, and feedback may occur from morphological and phonological levels back to higher levels of processing. Models organized along these lines have been shown to account for several important research findings.

Q. Slip tongue

Slips-of-the-tongue are speech errors in which intended utterances are rearranged between other words or sounds. According to psychologist Gary Dell, slips-of-the tongue are significant because they show a person's widespread knowledge about language, including its sounds, structures, and meanings. There are three types of slip-of-the-tongue errors. These types include sound errors, morpheme errors, and word errors. A sound error occurs when the sounds in words close by are exchanged. For example, instead of saying "flower pot," one says "power flot." A morpheme error occurs when morphemes, which are the smallest meaningful units in language, are switched in

words close by. For example, instead of saying "self-destruct instruction," one says, "self-instruct destruction." Word errors occur when actual words are rearranged. For example instead of saying, "reading a book to my dog," one says, "reading a dog to my book." Errors in speech production and perception are also called performance errors.

Q. Bilingualism

Bilingualism (or more generally: Multilingualism) is the phenomenon of speaking and understanding two or more languages. The term can refer to individuals (individual bilingualism) as well as to an entire society (social bilingualism). The meaning and definition of bilingualism varies tremendously from situation to situation.

Q. Editing process intervene between planning of Utterances of its articulation:

In addition to the stages of planning, some intriguing evidence indicates that editing processes intervene between the planning of an utterance and its articulation. These editing operations might provide a last check to determine whether the planned utterance is linguistically and socially acceptable. It is clear that some monitoring and editing processes occur after a speech segment is uttered; after all, we often spontaneously correct ourselves. The question we want to consider now is whether we also have editing processes prior to articulation.

Q. propositional representation short note

Speakers in all languages possess abstract concepts about the sounds they articulate. In other words, they believe that they have an accurate awareness of speech sounds that they utter. Typically, though, there is a discrepancy between speakers' own ideas about the sounds in their language use, and what they are actually articulating in practice. The underlying representation (UR) refers to speakers' abstract concepts of their phones (language sounds), and the surface form (SF) refers the phones that are actually produced.

This does not at all stand to mean that UR somehow 'does not exist', nor does it entail that UR is an 'incorrect' version of SF. To clarify, the UR does exist, and it is 'correct' at the abstract level. The SF is what 'surfaces' in speech after the UR has been modified by underging a phonological process. Surface forms are a net result of one or more of phonological processes that occur systematically during the last stage of language production. Phonological processes (e.g. substitution, assimilation, epenthesis) cause the alternation of phonemes based phonological environments in which they are found. Environments can exist within morphemes, syllables of word segments; they can also be phrasal and exist across word boundaries when phonological processes such as vowel harmony are at play.

Q. psycholinguistic cover three main point explain by Clark& Clark

1. **Comprehension**: How people understand spoken and written language

a. Imitation

b. Conditioning

c. Social cognition

2**. Speech production**: How people produce language

Spoken words are selected to be produced, have their phonetics formulated and then finally are articulated by the motor system in the vocal apparatus

3. **Language Acquisition**: How people learn language

Q. identifying participants and nonparticipants explain:

During conversations, speakers establish their and others' participant roles (who participates in the conversation and in what capacity)

- We resort to a variety of strategies when dealing with overhearers, including disclosure, concealment, and indifference
- We resort to a variety of strategies in private conversations to conceal our meaning from eavesdroppers, including referring to personal events (for example, the event we talked about yesterday)

Conversations often take place in a context in which various types of nonparticipants are also present. The roles of the participants during social interaction are particularly important for understanding spoken discourse .While these roles might be fixed in some social settings (e.g. lectures), most conversational settings allow for shifting of roles.

Q. write the types of figurative language. 5 marks

Indirect speech acts: To understand indirect speech acts, we need to first understand the concept of speech act. And to do, this we need to define some terms. For example, it makes no sense at all to respond No, that's not true to the following sentence:

It's going to be cold today.

Metaphor: When someone says that Jim's head is full of rocks, we instantly recognize it as a metaphoric statement. The comprehension of metaphoric language poses some very interesting problems for a general theory of language comprehension. For one thing, metaphors and other forms of figurative language are ubiquitous features of language and thus cannot be dismissed as a peripheral concern. Consider, for example,

Billboards are warts on the landscape.

Q. write a note on features level or word level or letter level

At the feature level, the stimulus is represented in terms of the physical features that comprise a letter of the alphabet. For instance, the letter K may be represented as a vertical line and two diagonal lines; R may be coded as a vertical line, a diagonal line, and a curved portion; and so on.

At the letter level, the visual stimulus is represented more abstractly as an identity separate from its physical manifestation. That is, a stimulus may be represented as an F regardless of whether it is typewritten or handwritten.

Finally, there is a **word level** of processing, in which an array of features and letters is recognized as a familiar word. As the word is recognized, various properties of the word, such as its spelling, pronunciation, meaning, become available to us.

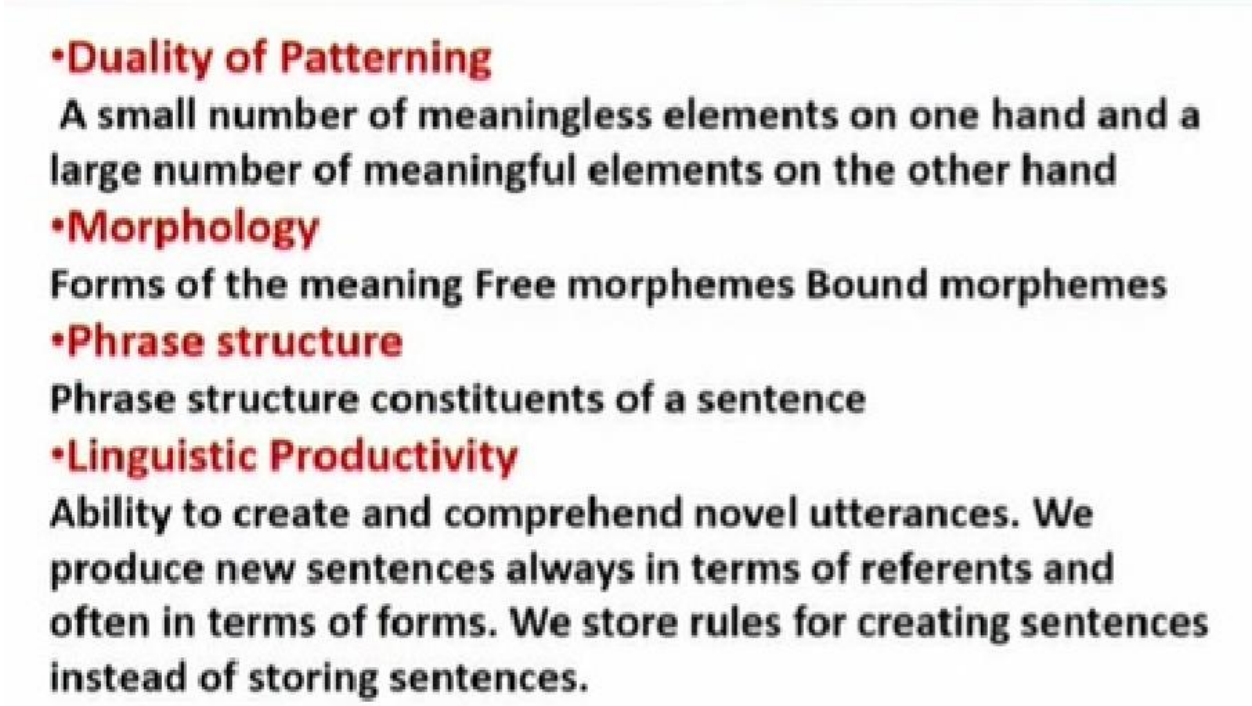
Q. Explain Building global structure.

Devices that highlight the main points of a passage are certainly helpful in the short run, but ultimately we need to identify important points even when they are not so explicitly marked. As we become more familiar with the content and structure of an author's prose, we can gradually deduce the author's schema. One good test of whether we have successfully done this is to write a summary for a portion of the text. This requires us to select specific propositions as the most important ones and to generalize some of the individual propositions into broader thematic statements (see Fletcher, 1994). By comparing our summary with the author's, we can see how close we have come to extracting the gist of the text. As we become more proficient, we can shift to a greater reliance on global processing strategies.

Q. Difference between friend and acquaintances with respect to conversation ...

Common ground: One concept that is helpful here is what Clark calls common ground, which refers to the shared understanding of those involved in the conversation. For knowledge to qualify as common ground, person A must know a given information X, and person B must know X, and A must know that B knows, and B knows that A knows, and so on; that is, both parties are aware that they share the information. Some of this common ground is culturally based, such as cultural values, commonly held beliefs, or culturally prescribed roles. For example, when you have a conversation with your academic adviser, your discussion is linked to these roles. Other types of common ground are more personal, in which shared experiences influence the nature of the conversation. It is this personal common ground that is our concern at this point.

Q. Define Morphology and phrase structure. (it can be asked about any one of them.)



Q. Explain the 'editing expressions' briefly.

It appears that the editing expression conveys to the listener the kind of trouble that the speaker is correcting. James (1972) analyzed utterances containing expressions such as uh and oh, suggesting that these convey different meanings. For instance, in sentence (1), the uh suggests that the speaker paused to try to remember the exact number of people. In contrast, sentence (2) would be used when the speaker did not know the precise number but was trying to choose a number that was approximately correct.

(1) I saw ... uh ... 12 people at the party.

(2) I saw ... oh ... 12 people at the party.

Q. write a note on generative grammar

Generative grammar is a linguistic theory that regards grammar as a system of rules that generates exactly those combinations of words that form grammatical sentences in a given language. Noam Chomsky first used the term in relation to the theoretical linguistics of grammar that he developed in the late 1950s.

Q. scope of psycholinguistics

Psycholinguistics is part of the emerging field of study called cognitive science. Cognitive science is an interdisciplinary venture that draws upon the insights of psychologists, linguists, computer scientists, neuroscientists, and philosophers to study the mind and mental processes. Some of the topics that have been studied by cognitive scientists include problem solving, memory, imagery, and language. Anyone who is seriously interested in any of these topics must be prepared to cross disciplinary lines, for the topics do not belong to any one field of study but rather are treated in distinctive and yet complementary ways by various disciplines. As the name implies, psycholinguistics is principally an integration of the fields of psychology and linguistics. Linguistics is the branch of science that studies the origin, structure, and use of language. Like most interdisciplinary fields; however, psycholinguistics has a rich heritage that includes contributions from diverse intellectual traditions.

Q. Critical Period Hypothesis. 5 marks

There is a period early in life in which we are especially prepared to acquire a language is referred to as the critical period hypothesis. Many investigators who favor the critical period hypothesis suggest that there are neurological changes in the brain that leave a learner less able to acquire a language, although the nature of these supposed changes is not well understood. Most commonly, these changes are assumed to occur near puberty. Surprisingly, although the critical period hypothesis has evoked much discussion, there have been few empirical studies that have tested the hypothesis. A landmark study was reported by Johnson and Newport (1989) who examined native speakers of Korean and Chinese who had immigrated to the United States at various ages between 3 and 39 years of age. On the average, the participants who arrived earlier (that is, before puberty) had been in the United States about the same amount of time as those who had arrived later. They also included a group of native speakers for comparison purposes.

Q. what is syntactic knowledge. 3 marks

Our knowledge of words is the syntactic category, or part of speech, to which they belong. Two words belong to the same syntactic category when they can substitute for one another in a sentence. E.g.

(1) The aging pianist stunned the audience.

We can replace aging with any number of words, such as wealthy, poor, fat, solemn, and so on. Although the substitutions may change the meaning of a sentence, the sentence remains grammatical. One advantage of using syntactic categories is that we can formulate grammatical rules in terms of categories rather than lexical items.

Q. cognitive control in billingualism. 3 marks

Another cognitive consequence of bilingualism may be cognitive control, the ability to selectively attend to some stimuli and ignore others. A fascinating recent report by Bialystok, Craik, Klein, and Viswanathan (2004) suggests that bilingualism may help to offset age-related losses in cognitive or executive control. Bialystok et al. (2004) used a task known as the Simon task (Lu & Proctor, 1995). The task is based on stimulus–response compatibility and assesses the extent to which a person can ignore irrelevant spatial information. In the Bialystok et al. study, investigators presented colored stimuli to the left or right side of a computer screen. Each of the two colors was associated with a response key that was also on one of the sides of the keyboard. On congruent trials, the stimulus and the key were both on the same side, whereas on incongruent trials, they were on the opposite side. In general, individuals are faster to respond to congruent trials than to incongruent trials.

Q. define pre-linguistics communication

Until the early part of their second year, infants communicate with their world primarily in nonverbal ways: they tug at people's clothes, point at desired objects, and wave bye-bye. These gestures, though basic, reveal a good deal about the infant's understanding of how communication works. It appears that the emergence of these communication skills is made possible by advances in the child's understanding of how actions can be used as means for achieving desired goals. These advances take place in the first year of life, suggesting that infants' understanding of communication precedes and facilitates much of the child's acquisition of phonology, syntax, and semantics.

Q. 5 types of idioms

1. Pure idioms
2. Semi-idioms
3. Ideational idioms
4. Interpersonal idioms
5. Relational idioms

Q. how critical period effect second language learning

The evidence from second-language acquisition research has not provided unequivocal evidence for the critical period hypothesis. The best we can say is that young children generally learn L2 better than older children and adults, at least in the long run. Moreover, the advantage that younger learners display in some studies may be due to biological changes (as assumed in the critical period hypothesis), environmental factors, cognitive changes, or some combination of factors. Clearly, we have much more to learn about how the capacity for language acquisition changes over the life span.

Q. Comprehending Figurative Language

Figurative language is language that means one thing literally but is taken to mean something different. It is a ubiquitous aspect of language. Honeck has noted the prevalence of figurative language in advertising. Studies of language use in television news programs have found that speakers use one unique metaphor for every 25 words.

Generally, in figurative language, the intended meanings of the words, sentences, and expressions used do not coincide with their literal meanings. When speaking figuratively, speakers mean something other than what they literally say. Therefore, to understand figurative language, an individual must be able to grasp the speaker's intention in a given context. The most common examples of figurative language include metaphors (e.g. 'Love is a journey'), which involve 'understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another.'

Q. feral or isolated children or only Isolated Children

Feral children are those who have grown up in the wild. Lane presented a detailed description and analysis of a boy named Victor, who was found in the woods of France in 1797. Peasants spotted the boy running naked through the woods, searching for potatoes and nuts, and he was subsequently captured by some hunters and brought to civilization. They called him the Wild Boy of Aveyron, after the province in which he was found. The Wild Boy came to the attention of Jean-Marc-Gaspard Itard, a young physician. At the time of his capture, Victor was thought to be about 12 or 13 years old. He had no speech, although his hearing was normal and he uttered some sounds. Other physicians thought that Victor was deaf and retarded, but Itard was optimistic that he could be trained to be

socialized and to use language. Itard worked intensively with Victor for 5 years, using techniques of language training and behavior modification similar to those used by modern researchers.

Q. creativity in bilingual children

Many early psychologists also concluded that bilingualism had a detrimental effect on children's intellectual development and academic performance. As Hakuta has pointed out, however, many of these studies had serious methodological flaws. Many studies failed to control for group differences in socioeconomic status between monolingual and bilingual samples. Thus, the apparent problems associated with bilingualism may have instead been due to low socioeconomic status; the bilingual children usually came from poor backgrounds. In addition, these studies did not always ensure that the bilinguals were truly fluent in both languages. Some of the early investigators ''assessed'' bilingualism through family names. Obviously, this procedure leaves considerable doubt whether the ''bilingual'' children were really bilingu

Q. How a child multiword utterances can interpreted

Several different possibilities have been explored. Consider a simple utterance such as baby cry. We can describe this in syntactic terms as a subject followed by a predicate. Alternatively, we can describe it in semantic terms as an agent (an animate being who is the instigator of an action) and an action. Or we can describe it in positional terms, with baby being a word typically in the initial position and cry as typically in the latter position. These characterizations differ in degree of abstractness, with the syntactic description as most abstract and the positional description as least abstract. The syntactic description does not appear to fit children's utterances, at least not in the earliest stages. The subject of a sentence may be an agent, but it could also be an object (The book is on the table), an instrument (The nail pierced the wood), or a location (Dallas is dull).

Q. View about conversation, explain briefly?

The linguist Charles Fillmore has stated that the language of face-to-face conversation is the basic and primary use of language, all others being best described in terms of their deviation from that base, and this appears to be a reasonable starting point. Let us begin, then, by comparing conversation with other types of discourse. Debates, for example, typically have topics specified in advance, and rules specifying who can speak at a given time and for how long are also usually agreed on ahead of time. The turns of each speaker are identified clearly. Speakers typically speak for an extended period of time. Ceremonies, such as an awards dinner, are also formalized. The topic is specified in advance but not the length of time any given speaker may take. Turns are identified rather clearly, with formal introductions given for each speaker. Again, the length of a given speaker's monologue can be rather long. Meetings are typically less formal than either ceremonies or debates. While it is not uncommon for specific rules, such as Robert's Rules of Order, to be used to organize discussions, the discussions themselves vary, as a general rule, more than those of more formal types of discourse.

Q. TOT phenomenon in detail ?

The tip-of-the-tongue (TOT) phenomenon when we are not quite successful at retrieving a particular word but can remember something about how it sounds. The phenomenon has been described vividly by William James: suppose we try to recall a forgotten name. The state of our consciousness is peculiar. There is a gap therein, but no mere gap. It is a gap that is intensely active. A sort of wraith of the name is in it, beckoning us in a given direction, making us at moments tingle with the sense of our closeness, and then letting us sink back without the longed for term. If wrong names are proposed to us, this singularly definite gap acts immediately so as to negate them. They do not fit into its mould. And the gap of one word does not feel like the gap of another, all empty of content as both might seem necessarily to be when described as gaps. . The rhythm of a lost word may be there without a sound to clothe it, or the evanescent sense of something which is the initial vowel or consonant may mock us fitfully, without

growing more distinct. The TOT phenomenon was systematically studied for the first time by Brown and McNeill, who presented definitions of infrequent words, such as sextant, and asked subjects to produce the defined word. When subjects were in the TOT state, they retrieved but rejected similar-sounding word such as secant. Thus, we sometimes activate words by their sounds.

Q. Explain pragmatic theory by Grice ?

It is generally held that linguistic communication takes place within a context of shared assumptions about communication. These implicit assumptions are referred to as conventions. Grice has identified four conventions (which he calls ‘‘maxims’’) governing conversation. According to Grice, we strive to be informative, clear, relevant, and truthful. Of course, these conventions provide no more than ground rules for successful conversations; all of us, from time to time, are uninformative, unclear, irrelevant, and deceitful. Grice’s point is that these conventions provide a basis for interpreting what others mean because we generally assume, unless we have information to the contrary, that such conventions will be observed.