ENG511

FINAL TERM PREPARATION FILE

MOST REPEATED SHORT & LONG

NATASHA STUDY ZONE

SUBJECTIVE

Q1. Cognitive Processes

We saw that parents provide a structured environment for children who are acquiring language. Although some of these speech adaptations facilitate development, they are not sufficient to explain language acquisition. To benefit from these language lessons, children must have certain cognitive prerequisites. These include procedures for registering, storing, and analyzing linguistic information. A simple analogy may be helpful here. Suppose you are taking a course in philosophy. The instructor is well prepared, lectures well, and is available when students have problems. Although all of these characteristics are beneficial, they do not guarantee the desired learning outcome. A course in philosophy typically requires students to think abstractly and write analytical essays. Students who lack these skills may have considerable difficulty even if the course material is presented in an organized fashion. The same is true for the child learning language.

Q2. Sensorimotor Schemata

Another way of characterizing the child's cognitive system comes from the work of Piaget who expresses the belief that children undergo several qualitative shifts in their thinking throughout development. Piaget refers to the first 2 years as the sensorimotor period of development because the schemata the child uses to organize experience are directly related to taking in sensory information and acting on it. Sensorimotor schemata include banging, sucking, and throwing. The major development that culminates near the end of the sensorimotor period is the acquisition of object permanence, the notion that objects continue to exist even when they cannot be perceived. Once object permanence is acquired, the child is no longer at the mercy of immediate stimuli but can respond on the basis of stimuli no longer present. We would certainly anticipate that developments of this magnitude would be related to the child's language development.

Q3. Pidgins and Creoles

A pidgin is 'an auxiliary language that arises when speakers of several mutually unintelligible languages are in close contact' typically this occurs when workers from diverse countries are brought in as cheap labor in an agricultural community. Immigrant workers come to speak a simpler form of the dominant language of the area—just enough to get by. A creole occurs when the children of these immigrants acquire a pidgin as their native language. Because access to native speakers of the dominant language is usually limited, these children receive the impoverished pidgin version as their primary linguistic input. Bicker ton (1983) observes that the conditions necessary to produce creoles have existed numerous times between 1500 and 1900 when various European nations developed labor-intensive agricultural economies on isolated, under populated tropical islands throughout the world. Bicker ton's studies have focused on creoles in Hawaii. Although Hawaiian contact with Europeans goes back to the 18th century, it was not until 1876 that a revision of the U.S. tariff laws led to a large influx of indentured workers to harvest Hawaiian sugar. Because Hawaiian creole developed between 1900 and 1920, it was possible for bicker ton to study the development of the creole by studying the speech of people who are still living. In particular, he examined the language of immigrants who moved to Hawaii and that of their children who were born in the first two decades of the 20th century. The speech of pidgin speakers was rudimentary. In many cases, there was no recognizable syntax, and the language resembled a linguistic free-for-all. Some speakers used one word order and others another; the word orders were often related to the speaker's own native language. Moreover, complex sentences were absent in pidgin: pidgin sentences had no subordinate clauses, and even single-clause utterances often lacked verbs. In addition, there was no consistent system of anaphora.

Q4. Boca's Aphasia

A person with expressive aphasia will exhibit effortful speech. Speech generally includes important content words, but leaves out function words that have only grammatical significance and not real-world meaning, such as prepositions and articles. This is known as "telegraphic speech." The person's intended message may still be understood but his or her sentence will not be grammatically correct. In very severe forms of expressive aphasia, a person may only speak using single word utterances. Typically, comprehension is mildly to moderately impair in expressive aphasia due to difficulty in understanding complex grammar. The speech of a person with expressive aphasia contains mostly content words such as nouns, verbs, and some adjectives. However, function words like conjunctions, articles, and prepositions are rarely used except for "and" which is prevalent in the speech of most patients with aphasia. The omission of function words makes the person's speech grammatical.

Type of information is stored in left hemisphere

Analytic thought

Logical

Language

Reasoning

Science and Math

Written

Number skills

Right-hand control

Q5. Wernicke's and Conduction Aphasia

The following are common symptoms seen in patients with Wernicke's aphasia:

Impaired comprehension:

It deficits in understanding (receptive) written and spoken language. This is because Wernicke's area is responsible for assigning meaning to the language that is heard, so if it is damaged, the brain cannot comprehend the information that is being received.

Poor word retrieval:

The ability to retrieve target words is impaired. This is also referred to as Anomia.

Fluent speech:

Individuals with Wernicke's aphasia do not have difficulty with producing connected speech that flows. Although the connection of the words may be appropriate, the words they are using may not belong together or make sense (see Production of Jargon below).

Production of jargon:

Speech that lacks content, consists of typical intonation, and is structurally intact. Jargon can consist of a string of neologisms, as well as a combination of real words that do not make sense together in context. It may include word salads.

Awareness:

Individuals with Wernicke's aphasia are often not aware of their incorrect productions which would further explain why they do not correct themselves when they produce jargon, paraphasias, or neologisms.

Q6. Different between Continuity theories and Discontinuity theories?

Continuity theories: Continuity theories are built on the idea that language exhibits so much complexity that one cannot imagine it simply appearing from nothing in its final form; therefore it must have evolved from earlier pre-linguistic systems among our primate ancestors.

Discontinuity theories: Discontinuity theories take the opposite approach—that language, as a unique trait which cannot be compared to anything found among non-humans, must have appeared fairly suddenly during the course of human evolution. Some theories see language mostly as an innate faculty—largely genetically encoded. Other theories regard language as a mainly cultural system—learned through social interaction.

Q7. The Whorf Hypothesis

The view that language shapes thought is most often associated with the work of Benjamin Lee Whorf. Whorf received his degree in chemical engineering from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and worked throughout his life for an insurance company as a fire prevention engineer. He had a number of avocations, however. He had a strong interest in the relationship between science and religion, and ultimately religion led him to language. He was initially self-taught in linguistics but eventually studied American Indian linguistics with the prominent anthropologist Edward Sapir at Yale University. This was a position that Whorf developed in a series of articles from 1925 to 1941, many of which are included in Carroll (1956). The notion that language shapes thought patterns is commonly referred to as the Whorf hypothesis, although it is also called the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis, to acknowledge the role of Whorf's mentor.

Q8. Codability

A concept that has figured in much of the research on color cognition is codability. Brown (1958; see also Lenneberg, 1953) defined codability as the length of a verbal expression. As we saw in our discussion of differentiation, some languages have single words to refer to a particular object or event, whereas others do not. If one's language does not have a specific word for the occasion, the speaker can still make the reference but will need to do so by some combination of words. Relative to the case in which a single word serves the purpose, the phrase is, in Brown's terms, less codable. Brown (1958) suggested a relationship between the frequency of usage of a verbal expression, its length (codability), and the ease with which it may be used. The relationship between frequency and length is captured in what is called Zipf's law. Some time ago, Zapf (1935) examined Chinese, Latin, and English and found that the length of a word is negatively correlated with its frequency of usage. That is, the more frequently a word is used in a language, the shorter the word (measured either in phonemes or syllables). English contains many examples of Zipf's law. Whenever mass-produced technological innovations are introduced in society, their initial, cumbersome names become shortened for easy reference (for example, video camera-videocassette recorder becomes camcorder). It may be that the differences in the differentiation of domains that Whorf observed are a special instance of Zipf's law. For instance, it may be that in cultures in which an object is referred to extremely often, it is referred to by a single, brief name; when it is moderately frequent, by a longer name; and when it is infrequent, by a phrase. The relationship between codability and ease of expression has been studied in several experiments.

Q9. Dyslexia

Dyslexia is a brain-based type of learning disability that specifically impairs a person's ability to read. Individuals with dyslexia typically read at levels significantly lower than expected despite having normal intelligence. Although the disorder varies from person to person, common characteristics among people with dyslexia are: difficulty with phonological processing (the manipulation of sounds), spelling, and/or rapid visual-verbal responding. Dyslexia can be inherited in some families, and recent studies have identified a number of genes that may predispose an individual to developing dyslexia.

Examples of specific types of reading disorders include:

- **Word decoding:**

People who have difficulty sounding out written words; matching the letters to sounds to be able to read a word.

- **Lack of fluency**:

People who lack fluency have difficulty reading quickly, accurately, and with proper expression (if reading aloud).

- **Poor reading comprehension:**

People with poor reading comprehension have trouble understanding what they read.

Q10 .Different between Processing differences and Proficiency differences?

Processing differences:

There are distinct differences in the way an adult brain processes a foreign language when compared to the brain of a child. Dr. Paul Thompson of UCLA used MRI imaging and animation technology to view what parts of the brain adults and children use when learning a second language. What was found is that children use a part of their brain called the “deep motor area.” The “deep motor area” of the brain is responsible for processes that are not consciously thought about, like brushing your teeth or getting dressed. For children, processing a new language is second nature. Adults process language in a more active part of the brain, meaning that they think more consciously about language rather than it being intuitive.

Proficiency differences:

One reason that it seems that children acquire a second language quicker than adults is because of the different standards of proficiency between adults and children. Children have a smaller vocabulary and it is easy to learn enough of a second language to communicate their needs. Adults have a much larger vocabulary and think and communicate in more complex ways than children. This means it takes them longer to acquire the ability to communicate effectively in a second language. Although it seems that children learn language quicker than adults, in actuality adults and adolescents have the edge.

Q11. Second language learning

Second language learning is a conscious process where the learning of another language other than the First language (L1) takes place. Often confused with bilingualism and multilingualism, the process has to take place after the first language(s) has already been acquired. Having said that, Second language

learning could also refer to the third, fourth, or fifth (so on and so forth) language the learner is currently learning. People who adopt the memory strategy depend on their memorizing ability.

Q12. Reflectivity and impulsivity

It is common for us to show in our personalities certain tendencies toward reflectivity sometimes and impulsivity at other tunes. Psychological studies have been conducted to determine the degree to which, in the cognitive domain, a person tends to make either a quick or gambling (Impulsive) guess at an answer to a problem or a slower, more calculated (reflective) decision. David Ewlng (1977) referred to two styles that are closely related to the reflectivity/impulsivity (R/l) dimension; systematic and intuitive styles. An intuitive style implies an approach in which a person makes a number of different gambles on the basis of "hunches," with possibly several successive gambles before a solution is achieved. Systematic thinkers tend to weigh all the considerations in a problem, work out all the loopholes, and then, after extensive reflection, venture a solution.

Self-esteem

Self-esteem is probably the most pervasive aspect of any human behavior. It could easily be claimed that no successful cognitive or affective activity can be carried out without some degree of self-esteem, self-confidence, knowledge of yourself, and self-efficacy—belief in your own capabilities to successfully perform that activity. Malinowski (1923) noted that all human beings have a need for phatic communion—defining one self and finding acceptance in expressing that self in relation to valued others.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward. Intrinsically motivated behaviors are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is fueled by the anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self. 'Typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades, and even certain types of positive feedback. Behaviors initiated solely to avoid punishment are also extrinsically motivated. Even though numerous intrinsic benefits can ultimately accrue to those who, instead, view punishment avoidance as a challenge that can build their sense of competence and self-determination.

Pronunciation:

Another reason that the myth persists that children learn second languages easier than adults is because of the child's ability to adapt the proper pronunciation of a language. It is true that the younger a child begins to learn a second language, the better their pronunciation. Adults have a more difficult time adapting the pronunciation of a foreign language, and so sound less competent than a child who has the ability to speak a second language with the proper accent.

Aging and learning ability:

Another common misconception is that as people age, their ability to learn a new skill diminishes. In actuality, people do not lose their ability to learn as they age. The only challenges

an older learner of a second language faces is the weakening of vision and hearing. The loss of hearing in particular can affect a person's ability to learn a language in the traditional classroom setting. A healthy, older adult is perfectly capable of learning a second language.

Motivation

A number of factors that affect second-language learning operate only in certain types of situations. The question of motivation for learning a second language, for instance, is not likely to arise in a natural type of setting such as with a young child. A 1- or 2-year-old needs no motivation to learn a second language; given language input, the young child will automatically learn – with learning even occurring in negative circumstances. An older child of 4 or 5 years, however, may need motivation in order to learn a second language since by that age the child may be aware of whether a language is positively or negatively regarded by others, or the child may prefer other activities.

Attitude

A negative attitude towards the target language or its speakers, or the other members of the class, may also affect one's determination and persistence to be involved in the classroom and its activities. This same negative attitude could impair memory functioning and detract from focusing on the target language.

Q13. A Universal Four-Phase Reading Programme

Phase 1: Word Familiarization

The purpose of this phase is to acquaint children with the shapes of written words and to have them become aware that different spoken words of the language have different written manifestations.

Phase 2: Word Identification

In this phase, the child learns which particular written words are associated with which particular spoken words or Objects. The difference between this phase and the preceding one is that this one requires the use of long-term memory.

Phase 3: Phrase and Sentence Identification

This phase is similar to that of the preceding word identification one, except that larger linguistic units are dealt with. Its goal is for the child to read the largest basic linguistic unit, the sentence.

Phase 4: Paragraphs, Stories, and Book Reading

The paragraph involves the largest meaningful written linguistic unit. It consists of a sequence of two or more sentences that are related to one another. A sequence of paragraphs can make a story.

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