# Investigating tip-of-the-tongue states in Norwegian-English bilinguals 

Effects of word frequency, cognate status and noun type in word retrieval, in relation to the bilingual profile

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## Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.Abstract1
Introduction ..... 1
What is a Bilingual? ..... 2
Monolingual Word Production ..... 4
Bilingual Language Production ..... 7
Non-Selectivity in Bilingual Language Production ..... 8
Cross-Language Activity ..... 8
Language-Specific and Language Non-Specific Selection. ..... 9
The Bilingual Activation Model (+) and the Inhibitory Control Model (ICM) ..... 10
Cognate Facilitation Effect ..... 13
Distributed Feature Model ..... 14
Adaptive Control Hypothesis ..... 14
The Bilingual Advantage ..... 16
The Bilingual Disadvantage ..... 16
The Weaker Links Hypothesis and the Competition Hypothesis ..... 17
The Tip-of-the-Tongue Phenomenon ..... 18
Blocked Phonological Retrieval. ..... 18
Word Frequency and Bilingual Word Retrieval ..... 19
Cognate Status and Bilingual TOTs ..... 19
Proper Names and Bilingual TOTs ..... 20
Competition Hypothesis vs Weaker Links Hypothesis to explain TOTs ..... 21
Bimodal Bilinguals and TOT Source ..... 22
Effects of Language Similarities ..... 23
Overview of the Current Study ..... 25
LEAP-Q Description ..... 25
Predictions for the Current Study ..... 26
Methods ..... 27
Participants ..... 27
Stimuli ..... 28
Experiment Design ..... 31
Experimental Procedure. ..... 32
LEAP-Q Modifications ..... 32
Results ..... 34
LEAP-Q Results. ..... 34
Participants ..... 34
Language background and dominance ..... 34
Language Exposure ..... 35
Language Learning and Proficiency ..... 36
Factor Analysis ..... 38
Tot Experiment Results ..... 41
Vocabulary Knowledge ..... 41
TOT Proportion Analyses ..... 43
Individual Differences Analyses ..... 46
Discussion ..... 49
Conclusion ..... 52
References ..... 54
APPENDICES ..... 60
Appendix A: Information Letter and Participant Consent Form ..... 60
Appendix B: Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q) ..... 63
Appendix C: LEAP-Q Revised Edition ..... 65
Appendix D: Full TOT Stimuli Sets ..... 68
Appendix E: Full Data Set (LEAP-Q) ..... 76

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#### Abstract

The current study aimed to explore the effects of frequency, cognate status and noun type in tip-of-the-tongue occurrences in Norwegian-English bilinguals. In what manner the bilingual profile may exert influence on the matter was of additional interest. This study also attempted to relate results to the varying approaches presented by the weaker links hypothesis and the competition hypothesis. Stimuli sets were created consisting of target words controlled for the aforementioned manipulations and randomly dispersed throughout experiment blocks. Predictions were made based on language production models and results from similar studies performed previously. Upon completing bilingual profile questionnaires (LEAP-Q), participants were tested by being given definitions aiming to induce TOTs in both languages. In order to investigate the effect of difference in language profile on our findings, the results from the LEAP-Q factor analysis were included in the mixed effects model. Correctly predicted was that participants experienced greater TOT occurrences in their non-dominant language and showed higher TOT rates for low-frequency words. Participants of lower proficiency produced more TOTs, showing English proficiency to be the only factor to predict TOTs. Controversially, results showed that more TOTs were experienced for cognate words, specifically proper nouns. Future studies are required to further dissect the underlying retrieval processes pertaining to the tip-of-the-tongue states in bilinguals.


## Introduction

The frustrating feeling of being incapable of retrieving a familiar word is experienced by all language speakers alike across all languages (Brown, 1991; Brown \& McNeill, 1966; Schwartz, 1999). This also applies to sign-language users, who experience tip-of-the-finger moments (Thompson, Emmorey, \& Gollan, 2005). However, a plethora of studies have indicated a greater occurrence of tip-of the-tongue (TOT) states in bilingual language speakers in comparison to monolingual speakers worldwide (Gollan \& Silverberg, 2001; Gollan \& Acenas, 2004; Gollan et. al., 2014). The history of each individual bilingual differs from another in a myriad of ways, largely affecting bilingual performance. Multiple additional factors have been considered to be influential to the experience and several theories have been developed in an attempt to shed light on the matter. Previous studies have indicated that aspects
such as word frequency (Gollan and Acenas, 2004), cognate status, syllable position, word length (Pureza, Soares \& Comesaña, 2016), translation priming (Gollan, Ferreira, Cera \& Flett, 2014) and word form (Gollan, Bonanni \& Montoya, 2005) may play significant roles on tip-of-the-tongue occurrences in bilinguals. The current study examines bilingual word retrieval, as well as whether factors such as language proficiency and dominance may play a role and how they may relate to key theories. The intention is to further investigate the effects that higher vs lower frequency words, cognate vs non-cognate words, and common nouns vs proper nouns may have when attempting to induce TOT states in Norwegian-English bilinguals. Additionally, the bilingual profiling of the individual participants of the study is important to take into account and will therefore be considered throughout all aspects of constraint.

## What is a Bilingual?

Currently the norm rather than the exception in the world today, bilingualism is complicated to define and highly contended by experts (Harris \& McGhee-Nelson, 1992). Being bilingual involves more than just having learned two languages from birth. It may be said that a bilingual is capable of speaking and understanding two languages or maintains the ability to use more than one language on a regular basis. Furthermore, bilinguals differ vastly from one another in multiple factors. Competence levels, proficiency and preference differ for varying subsets and registers of use in each of their languages. While some bilinguals practice one language in a larger context (dominance), others engage in both languages more equally balanced in frequency. Age of acquisition, type and amount of input received, as well as the situation in which each language is spoken, vary greatly and affect proficiency. Both first and second language domains are dynamic in nature and ever-changing throughout the life of a bilingual (Birdsong, 2014). These differences between bilinguals make the study of bilingualism a fascinating, yet challenging feat.

Previous research has often yielded inconsistent findings regarding bilingual cortical organization (e.g., Kim, Relkin, Lee \& Hirsch, 1997; Marian, Spivey \& Hirsch, 2003; Perani et al., 1998) and lexical processing (e.g., Chen, 1992; Kroll \& de Groot, 1997) as well as phonological and orthographic processing (e.g., Macnamara \& Kushnir, 1971; Doctor \& Klein, 1992; Grainger, 1993). These aspects have been found to vary significantly between individual bilinguals, depending on when and how they acquired their languages, their history of language use as well as their degrees of proficiency (Marian et al., 2007). While language self-
assessment measures have generally proved indicative of linguistic ability, these tools spanned both domain general and domain specific proficiency. For example, Delgado et al. (1999) revealed that their bilingual participants assessed their first language (L1) proficiency more accurately than their second language (L2) skills. Woodcock \& Muñoz-Sandoval (1993) found that self-ratings of (L2) reading and writing skills were more precise than self-ratings of speaking and understanding in (L2). Additional research indicated that ratings related to language dominance were highly correlated with performance on certain tasks (e.g., recognition of vocabulary and generating category) but were minimally correlated with other tasks, such as oral comprehension (Bahrick et al., 1994).

Early research employed varied methods of determining proficiency, from self-rating to reliance on the experimenter's subjective judgment (e.g., Goggin, Estrada, \& Villarreal, 1994; Talamas, Kroll, \& Dufour, 1999). Bilingual history factors such as early language exposure, current language use, speed of instruction execution and picture-naming speed have been used by researchers in order to establish language dominance (Marian et al., 2007). Previous studies have often rated bilinguals' language proficiency based on performance results from only one or two tasks (e.g., Jia et al., 2002; Flege et al., 1999) rather than a larger range of behavioral tasks. Snow \& Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) found evidence suggesting that certain variables regarding language history apply differently across performance domains, such as age of acquisition not applying as much to morphosyntax as it does to phonology. The lack of uniformity of assessment methods in previous studies prompted the requirement of a comprehensive assessment of behavioral language performance for the purpose of establishing an accurate account of the interrelation of bilinguals' self-assessments and reports (Marian et al, 2007). It was proposed that ratings of proficiency alone cannot suffice in the determination of the language status of bilinguals, and that language learning and use largely influence and shape bilinguals' competence (Grosjean, 1998).

Grosjean comprised the following index of critical factors with the intent of building an accurate bilingual profile:

1. Language history and language relationship: Age of exposure to L1 and L2, context of language acquisition, years of education in L1/L2
2. Language stability: The process of the language acquisition, language restructuring (access to L1/L2 due to context)
3. Language use: Is L1/L2 spoken at home, work, school? Daily life use of L1/L2 (watch TV, read a book, listening to the radio)
4. Language competence: L1/L2 skills in listening, reading, writing and speaking (Proficiency)
5. Language modes: Percentage of L1/L2 use in a monolingual and bilingual context (language switching experience)
6. Biographical data: Age, socio-economic and educational status, etc (Grosjean, 1998, p. 141).

This index has since been developed into a Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q) using a two-part study. The purpose of the LEAP-Q study was to develop a method of bilingual history assessment that was able to reliably predict connections between self-reported proficiency and behavioral performance (Marian et al, 2007). This study, along with the questionnaire, will be returned to in greater detail below.

## Monolingual Word Production

When investigating language processes in the mind, however, uncertainty has been aroused as to how bilinguals process their two languages compared to monolingual processes. Whether a bilingual mind is simply equivalent to two monolingual systems in one mind was a topic of contention between early researchers in the field (e.g., Kolers, 1963; McCormack, 1977; Weinreich, 1953). Prior to spoken word production in monolinguals, processes occur in the human brain which facilitate speech. Primarily, a message is conceptualized in the brain, followed by selection of relevant information prepared by the speaker with the intention of conveying an utterance (Levelt, 1989). While many of the details of this process have yet to be ascertained, it is presumed that subsequent to conceptualization, a process of formulation (word retrieval) occurs prior to articulation. A speaker selects a sub-lexical concept (lemma) containing semantic and syntactic properties from the mental lexicon in order to produce words. This process, referred to as lexicalization, includes a stage in which the selected lemmas are converted to sounds with correct pitch, loudness, rhythm and intonation, referred to as phonological encoding (Bock, 1995; Levelt, Roelofs \& Meyer, 1999; Starreveld \& La Heij, 1996).

Several studies of word production have produced evidence suggesting that the process is at least two-staged, with the first being meaning-based and the second being phonologically based (eg., Caramzza, 1997; Dell, 1986; Levelt, 1989; Levelt, Roelofs \& Meyer, 1999). Additionally, neuropsychological research affirms that different regions of the brain show activation in sequence, demonstrating that separate processes occur (Indefrey \& Levelt, 2000). Although the word production process is widely considered to be two-staged, the information flow between lemmas and lexemes and their relation to one another remains widely debated. Whether the lexeme selection process only commences once lemma selection has been entirely concluded or whether these processes interact and overlap to some degree, with simultaneously activated information in both stages before an utterance occurs, is a matter that continues to be disputed. A discrete information flow model proposed that one single item containing semantic information is selected first, before retrieval of phonological information occurs (e.g., Levelt, 1989; Levelt et al., 1999; Roelofs, 1992; Schriefers, Meyer \& Levelt, 1990). This manner of information flow suggests that seeing an image of a sheep with the intention to use information about it in an utterance, for example, would induce a selection process of competition between semantically similar concepts, such as "cow" and "goat". After elimination of the alternatives, "sheep" would then be accessed, and this stage completed before access of phonological information would ensue (Levelt, 1989). A cascading (interactive) model suggests continuous flow and an incomplete lemma selection process with multiple active alternatives even after the phonological retrieval of information has commenced (e.g., Caramazza, 1997; Dell, 1986, Harley, 1993; Peterson \& Savoy, 1998). An additional theory presents an idea of information cascading from semantic to phonological form, and then reversing, with information fed back into the semantic selection stage. This interactive feedback model advocates that "goat", "cow" and "sheep" are all still active during the selection process of phonological form (Levelt, 1991a). (See figure 2.)

## DISCRETE



INTERACTIVE


Figure 1: Depiction of information flow involving interactive feedback (Dell, 1986)


Figure 2: Depiction of discrete and cascading activation flow (Levelt, 1991a)

Certain types of speech errors observed in monolinguals also indicate a two-fold process. Fay and Cutler (1977) found that whole-word errors, for instance, consist primarily of two types: semantic substitutions and form-based substitutions. Saying "toes" instead of "fingers" or "wife" when intending "husband" are illustrations of semantically based errors, having no similarity in sound but related in syntax and meaning. Producing "equivocal" when meaning "equivalent" or "hysterical" rather than "historical" however, are examples of form-based errors, similar only in sound. It was proposed that items in the lexicon are arranged according to phonology for recognition purposes, with similar sounding words close together (Fay \& Cutler, 1977). Semantic errors were assumed to occur within a so-called decision tree while phonological errors occur during selection of the final phonological form. The authors maintained that these types of word substitutions indicated that word production and comprehension processes use the same lexicon but occur in opposite directions. They proposed that semantic and phonological processes were independent. It was argued that due to the nature of these errors, they must occur at different stages of the word retrieval process (Fay \& Cutler, 1977).

Another type of error in word retrieval and the main focus of this study is the tip-of-the-tongue (TOT) phenomenon, a noticeable temporary difficulty of lexical access (Brown \& McNeill, 1966). As mentioned, this study examines this phenomenon in Norwegian-English bilinguals, beginning by giving an account for the manner in which bilingual word production differs from monolingual production.

## Bilingual Language Production

In a bilingual's mind, word processes are fundamentally different in that bilinguals must manage two languages rather than one, comprehending and producing words in each appropriate language. Bilingual word production is a domain that has been considerably less researched than bilingual comprehension. Word recognition and word production may be governed by the same lexicon, but the initiation and demands of the lexical processes on the processing resources may constrain certain tasks differently in performance. Only more recently have psycholinguistic studies focusing on speech production expanded to the bilingual case (Kroll \& Tokowicz, 2005). Using an adopted spoken production model from Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994) later extended by Hermans (2000), Kroll and Tokowicz (2005) present three levels of representation engaged in translating a concept into spoken word. As in the monolingual domain (Levelt, 1991a), an idea is initially represented as a concept, where a language cue is represented, indicating which language is meant to be spoken. A level of lemma (semantic and syntactic information) activation proceeds which, in the case of bilinguals, requires distinct lemmas in each language due to syntactic constraints. The phonology of the word utterance is then specified, selected from a shared pool of phonological features. The assumption is that the phonological system is shared by the two languages and that common elements will activate similar representations (Poulisse \& Bongærts; Hermans, 2000; Kroll \& Tokowicz, 2005).

If representations for both languages are activated in parallel sequence, proficient bilinguals will have at least two words available for each concept. The model suggests that candidates in both languages are activated at the lemma level, with selection occurring at this level. It assumes that phonology is only activated for the purpose of intended language (Poulisse \& Bongærts; Hermans, 2000).


Figure 3: A model of bilingual language production, adapted from Poulisse and Bongarts (1994) and Hermanns (2000).

## Non-Selectivity in Bilingual Language Production

## Cross-Language Activity

In order to understand the main theories that attempt to justify the TOT occurrences in bilinguals in the current study, additional aspects of bilingual word production must be taken into account. A number of studies of bilingual word production have indicated that language activation is non-selective, meaning that although task and context specify that only one language be used, a bilingual's two languages are continuously active (e.g., Dijkstra, 2005, Marian \& Spivey, 2003 and Kroll, Bobb \& Wodniecka, 2006). Unlike word comprehension, the process of word production is initiated by a conceptual event, such as describing a picture, expressing a thought or translating a word or sentence (Kroll, 2008). Since listening and reading involve "bottom-up" processes initiated by the presentation of speech or text, questions arose as to whether properties of input may be sufficient reason for a bilingual's inability to switch off a language. If so, bilinguals should be able to switch off a language in order to select the other when the intention is word production (Kroll, 2008). Yet, even in simple tasks such as naming words, picture naming and recognizing spoken words, co-activation of a bilingual's two languages has been demonstrated (Kroll, Dijkstra, Janssen \& Schriefers, 2008).

In a study with proficient Dutch-English bilinguals using a cued naming paradigm, participants were first required to name the picture in language A or B according to which tone they heard with the picture (Kroll, et al., 2008). This condition was considered a mixed language condition. Secondly, the participants were cued with one of their two languages signaled by a tone while the other tone indicated a "no" response. It was assumed that if both languages remained active regardless of usage requirement, then performance under both blocked and mixed conditions should be similar. The aim was to demonstrate that if language planning in bilinguals was selective with activation only in one language, candidates should experience a processing cost in the mixed conditions (Kroll et al., 2008). The results revealed a language effect difference for first and second languages. Little consequence of language mixture for the second language implied that both languages were active even though only one language was required. Contrastingly, a cost effect was indicated for the first language when both languages were required to be active, proposing that the first language is ordinarily produced without significant second language influence. Surprisingly, the results also showed that under mixed conditions where both languages were required to be active, the latencies in picture-naming were greater in the first language than in the second language. These reversed results of processing advantage suggested that when the second language was active, the dominant language was inhibited. It was asserted that the results of this experiment indicated that language production in bilinguals must be largely non-selective (Kroll, 2008).

## Language-Specific and Language Non-Specific Selection

Addressing the role of the existence of lexical and sub lexical representations belonging to the language not in use, Costa (2005) compared two views of bilingual speech production: language specific and language non-specific. Two models were proposed to illustrate both theoretical views of activation flow. In language specific selection, depicted in Figure $4 a$, suggests that the only lexical nodes available for selection are the ones pertaining to the intended language, in this case, English. According to his hypothesis, lexical selection proceeds in the same manner as it would for monolingual speakers. In other words, translation equivalents from the second language would be considered irrelevant and have no impact on selection processes. Alternatively, the language non-specific hypothesis (Figure 4b) propounds that during lexical selection, activation levels of all lexical nodes are considered, regardless of the language they pertain to. The highest level of activation from lexical nodes
in both languages would then be selected, causing an element of competition in this process (Costa, 2005). The activation level of words in both languages would then directly affect the level of difficulty of selection of the target lexical node (e.g., Hermans, 2000; Hermans et al, 1998).


Figure 4 (a): Bilingual language-specific production model (Costa, 2005).
(b): Bilingual non-specific language production model (Costa, 2005).

## The Bilingual Activation Model (+) and the Inhibitory Control Model (ICM)

A central issue in bilingual production research is how bilinguals might be capable of processing in each of their languages without multiple interruptions from the other while speaking. Experiments suggest that in spite of bilinguals being fully aware of which language they are expected to produce, they are unable to fully switch off other language alternatives (e.g., Costa, Caramazza \& Sebastian-Gallés, 2000: Kroll et al., 2006). Bilinguals also appear to be capable of code-switching from one language to the other seemingly effortlessly in certain appropriate settings, raising questions as to how language production processes in a bilingual mind may differ from monolinguals processes. Several key issues present themselves when attempting to clarify these questions in point. As referred to previously, early hypotheses presumed language access to be selective, with only representations from the relevant language activated (Gerard \& Scarborough, 1989). The non-selective language access hypothesis has later asserted that word activation from both languages is continually present. The underlying
theoretical issue is whether there is competition for selection between all activated information or whether the language cue is sufficient to guide the process of selection (Kroll \& Tokowicz, 2005).

Although several language processing models address characterization of bilingual lexicon, they offer insufficient clarification as to how bilinguals manage to speak the intended language with another language present in the cognitive system. The Bilingual Interactive Activation plus model (BIA+) shown in figure 5, illustrates how bilingual word recognition may take place within a word identification system (Dijkstra \& van Heuven, 2002). It assumes that a bilingual's two languages exist in an integration lexicon with separate representations for each language that are parallel to each other. The model demonstrates that presentation of a word in one language will activate corresponding orthographic, phonological and semantic candidates in all other known languages. The BIA+ also suggests that frequency of use is reflected in the resting level activation of words and is thus dependent on the bilingual's proficiency in both of their languages. Infrequency of usage of a given word will also decrease its resting activation level. This aspect of word frequency is explored further in this study. While this model solves the issue of control by means of language nodes within the lexicon itself, it does not influence word activation (Dijkstra \& van Heuven, 2002).


Figure 5: BIA + Model (Dijkstra \& van Heuven, 2002)

Green (1998) introduced the Inhibitory Control Model (figure 6) as a proposed mechanism with the purpose to modulate the competition and control performance. Like many other
models of language production, the ICM assumes that initiated by conceptual representation, both the lexico-semantic system as well as a supervisory attentional system (SAS) are activated. The role of the SAS is to control the activation of task schemas for the purpose of language processing. Picture-naming in L1 would thus have a different task schema than picture-naming in L2, or in translation of a word from L1 to L2. The ICM proposes further that lemmas are tagged according to language membership and assumes that the task schemas both inhibit lemmas in the unintended language while activating lemmas in the appropriate language (Kroll \& Tokowicz, 2005).


Figure 6: Inhibitory Control Model. Adapted from Green (1998)

Due to the level of competition this process incurs, attentional resources are required. The inhibitory processes required to modulate must then correspond directly to the degree of lemma activation in each language. For instance, inhibitory control processes will be greater when a bilingual speaker ventures to name a picture in L2 compared to L1 due to competition modulation requirements from L1 to L2. Experiments specifically designed to generate language switching provide evidence for inhibitory control and show that bilingual switching costs (higher latencies) are greater when switching to L1 compared to L2 (Meuter \& Allport, 1999). The ICM proposes that the trials directly preceding the switch, which prompts an abundance of competition, will incur the greatest switch cost due to the measure of inhibition subsequently required. While naming pictures in L 2 , a cost will be produced due to inhibition of L1 lemmas when the intended language of the subsequent trial is L1 (Kroll \& Tokowicz, 2005). It was later suggested that the level of inhibition for one language depends directly on the speaker's level of proficiency in that language, and that speakers who have achieved a level
of high proficiency may not require inhibitory mechanisms (Costa \& Santesteban, 2004). However, the manner in which factors such as context of language use, language proficiency and language dominance modulate components of inhibitory control processes remains unidentified.

## Cognate Facilitation Effect

Depending on language overlap and the model of acquisition, the manner in which two languages are represented may differ in semantics, orthography, phonology and syntax. Some memory selections may be shared within each word identification system. Cognate words (translation equivalents sharing similar phonology, spelling, pronunciation and meaning, such as 'bus' in Spanish and English) have been shown to facilitate lexical access whether given in context or not (Dijkstra \& van Heuven, 1998). In theory, cognates presented in isolation would activate both languages and heighten ambiguity as to which language should be selected. Topdown information (task schema) would be necessarily utilized in pursuance of language selection for target output (Kroll et al., 2015).

In order to better understand models of language production, multiple studies have employed the use of cognates to constrain models depicting bilingual language processing (e.g., de Groot, Dannenburg, \& van Hell, 1994; Dijkstra, Grainger, \& van Heuven, 1999; Gerard \& Scarborough, 1989; Kroll \& Stewart, 1994). The effects demonstrated from applying cognate constraints in bilingual language studies may also present complications for monolingual language processing models, suggesting that language production models must incorporate activation in a cascading manner (e.g., Colomé, 2001; Peterson and Savoy, 1998).

In a study set out to determine whether non-selected lexical nodes activate their phonological information, Costa et al. (2000) tested Catalan-Spanish bilinguals and predicted that if this was indeed the case, bilinguals should experience shorter latencies when performing photo naming tasks with cognate words. The results supported these predictions, also finding that this difference was not present in monolinguals. Costa et al. asserted that for cognate words such as guitarra and guitar, the target lexical representation and its non-response language translation would both provide activation of phonological features. For non-cognate words, there would be separate activations of phonological representations of the target lexical node and its corresponding translation. Two proposals were advocated due to these findings: that
the flow of activation from the semantic level to the lexical level is language non-specific (language blind), and that non-response language lexical nodes spread to the phonological segments. (Costa et al., 2000).

## Distributed Feature Model

Van Hell and de Groot (1998) developed a model that assumed a word's lexical category defines the degree of sharedness of semantic representations across languages. The distributed feature model (figure 7) proposes that concrete nouns and cognates share representations across languages while abstract nouns and non-cognates are represented more distinctly. This translation equivalent overlap should also dictate translation processing times in bilingual speakers. Several studies ensued, testing recognition, lexical decision, word association and production in translation. The majority of results found that recognition and production latencies of translation equivalents were minimized when the target word pairs were concrete nouns or cognates. It was also demonstrated that word associations across languages were more similar for concrete words than abstract words, as well as for cognates as opposed to noncognates (van Hell \& de Groot, 1998; Kroll \& Tokowicz, 2005). These results are especially pertinent to this study's interest in the effect of noun type on word retrieval.


Figure 7: Distributed Feature Model. Adapted from van Hell and de Groot (1998).

## Adaptive Control Hypothesis

Studies in the neuroimaging domain suggest that while sharing the same neural tissue, requirements of selection between two languages for the purpose of production may engage
several different areas of the brain (e.g., Brown, Reynolds \& Braver, 2007; Cools \& D'Esposito, 2011; Grady, Luk, Bialystok, \& Craik, 2015). The differences in activation between L1 and L2 that have been observed most likely reflect proficiency level corresponding to each of the languages. L2 activation has proved to require increased cognitive control (Abutelabi, Cappa, \& Perani, 2005; Abutelabi \& Green, 2007).

Expanding on the hypothesis of inhibitory control, adaptive control hypothesis (figure 8) proposes that language control processes adapt themselves to the interactional context demands placed on them (Green \& Abutelabi, 2013). Essentially, adapting entails changing the parameters of neural efficiency or capacity according to the connectedness with other control processes. Bilingual speakers are presumably able to make use of adaptive control in response to the interactional context they find themselves in. Depending on the given socio-contextual situation involving either their first or second language, bilinguals would fundamentally be capable of determining in what manner language selection may ensue. Single language use, dual language use and dense code-switching are considered the three main interaction contexts that impose demands on the following categorized control processes within the realm of language production: salient cue detection, goal maintenance, conflict monitoring, interference suppression, selective response inhibition, task engagement and disengagement and opportunistic planning (Green \& Abutelabi, 2013). The authors of the hypothesis suggest language and non-language action control may be simultaneously active, but that differences between bilingual and monolingual speakers call for specified tests linked to detailed profile information regarding the speakers' use of their languages (Green \& Abutelabi, 2013).


Figure 8: Architecture of the Adaptive Control Hypothesis. Filled arrows depict internal processes of control (Green \& Abutelabi, 2013).

## The Bilingual Advantage

Many bilinguals enjoy non-cognitive benefits such as intercultural understanding and interactions, social well-being both at home and abroad, as well as political and economic advantages. Besides possessing the ability to communicate in more than one language, evidence can be found that bilinguals' "juggling" of two languages may incur cognitive benefits as well as enhanced attention performance and executive function (Kroll et al., 2015). The complex task relating to managing high levels of cross-language activation in language production inherent in bilingualism, may prove to be a feature that can be exploited rather than presenting an obstacle. At all points of language development, bilinguals have exhibited differences from monolinguals regarding switching abilities between tasks. Negotiating competition transversely to alternative responses while simultaneously managing to disregard unrelated information, also appears to be a feat bilinguals manage superior to monolinguals (Bialystock et al., 2012). Evidence from non-verbal cognitive tasks that present conflict such as the Stroop, Flanker and Simon tasks (see Blumenfeld \& Marian, 2011 for in-depth discussions) suggests that bilinguals are better capable of engaging control mechanisms than monolinguals (Abutelabi et al., 2012).

## The Bilingual Disadvantage

However, in spite of overt benefits, bilingualism also endures particular detriments. While bilinguals possess a larger vocabulary across their languages than do monolinguals, a slight inferiority to monolinguals in performance on vocabulary tests has been persistently detected (Pearson, Fernandez, \& Oller, 1993). Bilinguals have also been known to demonstrate higher picture-naming latencies in their non-dominant language as compared to their dominant language, even in tasks when performance is only expected in one language. These results have persisted over several repetitions and are also applicable to highly proficient bilinguals. (Ivanova \& Costa, 2008). Further experiments relating to bilingual word production have found that in timed verbal fluency tasks with a requirement to produce as many words as possible within a specific category (food, furniture) or with words beginning with a particular letter onset ( $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{A}, \mathrm{S}$ ), bilinguals generate fewer items than monolinguals (Bialystock, Craik, \&

Luk, 2008b). Additionally, and most pertinent to the current study, bilinguals have been shown to be more prone to the frustrating tip-of-the-tongue (TOT) experience during speech production (Brown \& McNeill, 1966; Gollan \& Acenas, 2004; Gollan \& Silverberg, 2001).

## The Weaker Links Hypothesis and the Competition Hypothesis

Two main theories have been developed with the intent to provide explanation for bilingual disadvantages. The weaker links hypothesis, also referred to as the frequency lag account, suggests that compared to monolinguals, bilinguals experience a disadvantage on speaking tasks due to lower frequency of use for each of their languages. This reduced use of language has an indirect effect on lexical retrieval (Gollan \& Silverberg, 2001; Gollan \& Acenas, 2004; Gollan, Bonanni et al., 2005). Essentially, word finding processes in each of a bilingual's languages are exercised less frequently causing bilinguals to become less adept in accessing a given word than monolinguals. Reduced access results in increased difficulty of word finding both in L2 and in L1 (Gollan \& Brown, 2006). The term weaker links refers to the bonds between the semantic and the phonological system becoming weaker over time, due to reduced frequency of use (Gollan et al., 2008).

The dual-language activation hypothesis, hereafter referred to as the competition hypothesis, centers on the processes that occur at the time of comprehension and production. This account is in line with the previously outlined ICM model and focuses mainly on the processes that arise due to simultaneous co-activation of a bilingual's two languages when only one language is intended (Herman, Bongærts, De Bot \& Schreuder, 1998). It suggests that production in the target language is hindered due to competition from language elements from the non-target language. Additionally, the competition hypothesis asserts that access to target language becomes reduced with increased prior exposure of non-target language elements, heightening their competitiveness. This is in line with the assumption that prior exposure requires inhibition of the target language (Green, 1998), which in turn requires increased effort and recovery time (for elaborated argumentation see Kroll, Bobb, \& Wodneicka, 2006; Van Assche, Duyck, \& Gollan, 2013).

A clear case for the weaker links hypothesis is that bilinguals display disadvantages especially when retrieving words with low frequency while there appears to experience minimal or no
disadvantage to the production of high-frequency words. Gollan et al. (2008) argue that weaker links should be weaker at the same point in the stage of the production system where frequency effects are the strongest in all speakers. In both bilingual comprehension and production, latencies related to language dominance in the retrieval of low-frequency words have been observed (Duyck, Vanderelst, Desmet, \& Hartsuiker, 2008, Gollan et al., 2008).

Bilinguals have been known to demonstrate difficulty in accessing low-frequency names in their L2 (Ecke, 2004). This appears to be contradictory with regard to the competition account since it does not explain why bilinguals would experience disadvantage for these words (Gollan et al., 2005, 2008). Yet, with the assumption that interference may largely affect low-frequency word retrieval, the two theories may merge to some degree. Although the weaker links hypothesis was motivated in pursuance of clarifying data the competition theory left unexplained, experts maintain that the two are in fact compatible to some extent (Gollan et al., 2008). Accommodating both views is the suggestion that while bilingual production processes may be language selective in some tasks, cross-language competition may present in others (Kroll, et al., 2006).

## The Tip-of-the-Tongue Phenomenon

## Blocked Phonological Retrieval

The tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon, knowing a word but being unable to retrieve in a given moment, is experienced by monolinguals and bilinguals alike. This experience of blocked access supports the cascading model (unrestricted, feed-forward flow of activation) in the lexicalization process. In an early study by Brown \& McNeill (1966), monolingual participants were given definitions of low frequency words, some of which induced a TOT experience in participants. While unable to produce the exact target word corresponding with the given definition, participants were occasionally able to retrieve some information about the word, such as initial sounds, stress patterns and number of syllables (Brown \& McNeill, 1966). The tip-of-the-tongue phenomenon study essentially demonstrated that while the concept stage of word production had been fully retrieved and completed as well as other semantic and phonological aspects partially accessed, the full phonological form corresponding with the concept is partially blocked, hindering complete articulation (Brown \& McNeill, 1966).

## Word Frequency and Bilingual Word Retrieval

As mentioned, the current study controlled for word frequency with the intent of examining whether low frequency words have an effect on word retrieval in bilinguals, and how this may be explained by previous theories. In a study aiming to test the weaker links hypothesis, Gollan, Montoya, Cera \& Sandoval (2008) conducted two experiments using young and old English monolinguals and bilinguals (English and Spanish) who were required to name pictures with high and low frequency words in the languages known to them. Results from the first experiment indicated that latencies in picture-naming were greater for both younger and older bilinguals than both groups of monolinguals, when producing lower than higher frequency names (Gollan et al., 2008). The second experiment showed that when speaking their nondominant language, older participants were slower in producing higher frequency names, but named pictures with lower frequency names just as quickly as the younger bilinguals. Importantly, when speaking their dominant language, older bilinguals named pictures more quickly than in their non-dominant language. It was also found that the latencies due to older age were restricted to higher frequency names (Gollan et al., 2008). These results demonstrated that cognitive mechanisms general to monolingual and bilingual speakers alike may elicit processing differences between groups. The researchers maintained that this study challenged theories of bilingual disadvantage in language production based on betweenlanguage interference (e.g., Hernandez \& Kohnert, 1999) (Gollan et al., 2008).

## Cognate Status and Bilingual TOTs

As mentioned previously, several studies have determined that bilinguals are more likely to fall into the TOT state than monolinguals (Gollan \& Silverberg, 2001, Gollan \& Acenas, 2004, Gollan \& Brown, 2006). Speech production is believed to begin with access to semantic information, followed by syntactic and phonological information.

Through observation of bilinguals and TOT interaction, Gollan and Acenas (2000, 2004) sought to gain a clearer understanding of what retrieval failure in TOTs encompasses. In one study, it was found that bilingual speakers fell into TOT states less frequently for cognate words than for non-cognate words. They reported results claiming that lexical nodes from non-target language activate phonological features (Gollan \& Acenas, 2000). It was argued that the
cognate effect occurs because the translation equivalent of the target word sends activation to the phonological components of the target word. Essentially, phonological properties of cognate words would be more available than those of non-cognate words, supporting models of language non-specific activation flow (Gollan \& Acenas, 2000). Further constraint of heightened TOT rates in bilinguals was investigated by using picture stimuli with cognate and non-cognate names with the purpose to induce TOT states in Spanish-English and TagalogEnglish bilinguals. The authors found that bilinguals experienced more TOTs than monolinguals with the exception of trials consisting of target pictures with translatable cognate names. Yet, fewer TOTs were induced when trials contained target pictures with translatable non-cognate names. Due to these results, it was maintained that cross-language interference cannot be responsible for increased TOT rates in bilinguals and that the two prevalent TOT accounts required modification in order to give account for cognate and translatability facilitation effects (Gollan \& Acenas, 2004). Although manipulated in a different manner, the current study also controlled for cognate words and intends to discuss what effect cognate status may have on Norwegian-English bilingual participants' word retrieval.

## Proper Names and Bilingual TOTs

Interestingly, further studies of TOTs have indicated that bilinguals retrieve proper names with greater ease than monolinguals (Gollan, Montoya \& Bonanni, 2005). It was assumed that if the bilingual disadvantage was driven by an increased generalized load, given that there are approximately double the number of representations in the lexical system compared with monolinguals, bilinguals should find retrieval of proper names especially difficult. Alternatively, in that proper names are essentially shared across languages, bilinguals may experience facilitation in their retrieval. In a study consisting of two parts, researchers first required bilinguals and monolinguals alike to document naturally occurring tip-of-the-tongue experiences over a period of time. Later, Spanish-English bilinguals and monolinguals were required to name pictures of objects as well as names of people according to their given descriptions. Despite proper names being more difficult to retrieve for monolinguals than object names, bilinguals experienced fewer TOTs than the monolinguals in producing proper names, yet more TOTs for the object-naming tasks. The authors concluded that since proper names have essentially identical form across languages, bilinguals experienced improved naming, suggesting that disadvantages associated with bilingualism may be limited to individual meanings being represented by multiple forms (Gollan et al., 2005).

## Competition Hypothesis vs Weaker Links Hypothesis to explain TOTs

Researchers of language processing typically adopt one of two theories dealing with bilingual disadvantage when attempting to explain the greater TOT rate observed in bilinguals, as well as other processing differences between monolinguals and bilinguals. Possibly more plausible is the account appealing to the notion of having two competing languages in the brain, the competition account. Outlined previously in this thesis, this hypothesis maintains that the bilingual lexicon contains an abundance of translation equivalent pairs, overlapping largely in near-identical meaning. As many existing language processing models claim, various information belonging to lexical representation in one language is consistently activated when bilinguals aim to produce the corresponding word in the intended language. It is imperative to consider that while language non-selectivity is generally agreed upon by researchers in the field (i.e., dual-language activation is constant and it is not possible to "switch off" other known languages), discrepancies endure as to whether or not this activation causes interference. This potential interference may occasionally elicit a TOT response due to unintended language activation (James \& Burke, 2000; Meyer \& Bock, 1992).

This theory offers two prevailing alternatives to explain higher TOT occurrence in bilinguals than monolinguals. The first is that while a bilingual speaker may have already fully accessed the correct intended response in the target language, the interference from the translation equivalent creates competition across languages, causing momentary blockage of retrieval (Hermans, Bongaerts, de Bot, \& Schreuder, 1998). The second alternative explanation suggests that dual-language activation may actually aid a bilingual speaker who would otherwise fail in accessing the target response. The activated translation equivalent would thereby induce a partial successful retrieval as opposed to a "don't know" response (Costa, Miozzo, \& Caramazza, 1999; Gollan \& Acenas, 2004; Gollan \& Silverberg, 2001). However, the competition account cannot explain why bilinguals often have TOTs for words they only know in one language. If one of the lexical representations of translation equivalents is not present, it cannot produce competition for selection (Gollan \& Acenas, 2004).

The weaker links hypothesis largely supports the latencies bilinguals exhibited in picturenaming tasks in and out of context. As mentioned previously, bilinguals' naming times for low-frequency names were delayed significantly compared to monolinguals' naming times
(Gollan et al., 2008). Thus, the word-frequency effect in TOTs observed in bilinguals supports the weaker links hypothesis. Low frequency words, which are difficult for monolinguals to access, should be difficult for bilinguals to retrieve at all. This is supported by Gollan and Brown's (2006) findings that bilinguals have fewer TOTs for very-low frequency words than monolinguals. Proper names have proven to be a word class that causes particular retrieval difficulty for monolinguals (Cohen \& Burke, 1993; Valentine, Brennan \& Brédart, 1996). Since they are generally shared across languages (e.g., Michelle Obama is called Michelle Obama both in English and Norwegian), proper names may share a single lexical representation across languages, much like cognates. Bilinguals may effectively be converted to monolinguals with regard to processing proper names and should therefore be equally successful as monolinguals, according to the weaker links hypothesis (See Gollan, Bonanni and Montoya's study summary and results further in this thesis.)

The competition and weaker links hypotheses provide different explanations for the observation of more frequent TOT occurrence in bilinguals. In regard to this domain as well, these theories may not be mutually exclusive. Applicable to both theories is the assumption of the so-called "ceiling effect" on performance. Low-frequency words begin to catch up in activation levels with high-frequency words as language use increases, resulting in decreased frequency effects (e.g., Griffin \& Bock, 1998; Oldfield \& Wingfield, 1965). The question remains whether both dual-language activation in addition to reduced frequency of use may simultaneously have an impact, potentially explaining the substantial effect bilingualism has been shown to have on TOT rates (Gollan, Ferreira, Cera \& Flett, 2014).

## Bimodal Bilinguals and TOT Source

Early studies have endorsed that partial failed retrieval for words they are sure they know is experienced by all language users, including tip-of-the-fingers (TOF) for ASL signers (Thompson et al., 2005). It was speculated that studying bilinguals who speak one language and sign another (bimodal bilinguals) may aid in clarifying TOT origin due to the lack of phonological overlap between their languages. Varying accounts of the source of TOTs (semantic and/or phonological cross-language interference and weaker links hypotheses) prompted a picture-naming study that attempted to shed more light on the matter. ASL-English bilingual participants in the experiment produced more TOTs than English monolingual
participants and equally matched the TOTs Spanish-English bilingual (unimodal) participants produced. The authors claimed that their data eliminated blocked phonological interference as the solitary source of bilingual disadvantage, endorsing semantic interference as a more likely source. Additionally, it was advocated that lower frequency of use (weaker links theory) more thoroughly substantiates TOT rates in all bilinguals alike (Pyers, Gollan \& Emmorey, 2009).

## Effects of Language Similarities

The degree of similarities between a bilingual's two languages has been shown to be of little consequence with regard to non-selectivity in cross-language activation. Co-activation has proved to persist, even in cases where two languages have different scripts (Hoshino \& Kroll, 2008) or when one language is spoken and the other signed (Morford et al, 2011). Obvious cross-language differences such as having two separate alphabets, as in Chinese and English, have not been able to demonstrate exploitation of contextual language cues that allow for language selectivity, making the problem of language selection complex (Kroll et al., 2015). As mentioned earlier, however, certain features of cross-language overlap such as cognates, likely provide a facilitatory effect on lexical access (Dijkstra et al., 1998). Given the aforementioned culmination of research indicating cognate effects in TOT states experienced by bilinguals, it may be suggested that bilinguals with two languages sharing alphabets (as well as abundance of overlapping words such as cognates) likely encounter the phenomenon to a greater extent.

In the case of the current study, relatively proficient Norwegian-English bilingual participants were used. These two languages (together with German, Dutch, Flemish, Afrikaans, Danish, Swedish and Icelandic) both belong to the Germanic branch deriving from the Indo-European language family. It is important to note that the way cognates are used in psycholinguistic studies differs from how historical linguists use the term. Historical linguistic experts throughout history have found that a substantial amount of the core vocabulary in this family of languages is considered to be cognate by way of having evolved from the same historical source or having common etymological origin. Cognates share many structural features such as morphology, syntax and phonology and the more closely languages are related, the more vocabulary items they share (Katamba, 2005). In psycholinguistics, loanwords between
languages are also included within the cognate definition, as well as loanwords from additional languages shared by the two (e.g., both languages have Latin loanwords).

Examples of modern Germanic cognates from the Germanic family:

| German | English |  | Norwegian |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Herzen | heart | hjerte |  |
| Finger | finger | finger |  |
| Hand | hand | hånd |  |
| Schule | school | skole |  |
| Sport | sport | sport |  |
| Pfeffer | pepper | pepper |  |
| Papier | paper | papir |  |

In early history, related languages not only shared vocabulary stemming from the same historical source, but also ended up borrowing from each other through language contact. For instance, subtle changes occurred in the phonology of Old English, resulting in the consonant cluster [sk] becoming obsolete. At the end of the $9^{\text {th }}$ century, however, the invasion of the Norsemen resulted in English borrowing many words containing this extinct consonant combination from North Germanic words such as skirt, sky, skin and skill, resulting in [sk] being reintroduced by the $11^{\text {th }}$ century. Multiple words which are still in use today were borrowed and integrated into the English language from Old Norse resulting from the populous settlement of Norsemen in areas of England (Katamba, 2005).

## Examples:

aloft $\quad \mathrm{ME}<\mathrm{ON}$ : $\mathrm{a}=$ on + lopt $=$ air
anger $\quad \mathrm{ME}<\mathrm{ON}$ : angr = grief, sorrow. Whence adj. angry
bag ME: bagge < ON: baggi
bang (to beat violently) ON: banga
club $\quad$ ME: clubbe, clobbe $=$ ON: klubba
die $\quad$ ME: deghen < ON: deyja
flat $\quad$ ME: flat $=$ ON: flatr
gift ME: geten < ON: geta
husband Late OE : hūsbōnda $<\mathrm{ON}$ : húsbóndi $=$ householder
ken ON: kenna (know, discern as in beyond one's ken', obsolete except in Scotland)
knife $\quad$ ME: knif < ON: knifr
leg $\quad$ ME: legge < ON: leggr
outlaw Late OE: utlag < ON: útlagi = one who is outside the law
sky $\quad$ ME: skie $=$ cloud $<$ ON: sky
(Based on Geipel, 1971)

Note: ON=Old Norse; OE=Old English; ME=Middle English

More recently, due to the increase of globalization, English has had a significant influence on many other languages (including Norwegian) through television and the film industry, business relations and social media. This has led to the escalation of lexical borrowing from English, resulting in a broadened selection of overlapping words and cognates across the English and Norwegian languages.

## Overview of the Current Study

The current study consists of two parts. First, the participants completed the bilingual questionnaire, Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q), as previously mentioned. The purpose for this was to gather pertinent details regarding the bilingual history of the study's participant group in order to evaluate how the bilingual profile may relate to the results of the second part of the study, tip-of-the-tongue experiments. The second part of the study was executed in the form of TOT experiments, first in Norwegian and then in English, to explore this particular bilingual disadvantage. The stimuli words were manipulated in three areas of interest; range in frequency, cognate and non-cognate proper nouns, cognate and noncognate common nouns dispersed randomly throughout each block of stimuli in both languages.

## LEAP-Q Description

The LEAP-Q was developed with a goal of establishing an efficient, communal questionnaire that allowed for valid and reliable assessment of bilinguals’ linguistic profiles (Marian, Blumenfeld \& Kaushanskaya, 2007). It was formulated for a target population of adolescent
and adult bilinguals and multilinguals, primarily for the assessment of first and second language (L1 and L2) proficiency of research participants. The LEAP-Q accommodates simultaneous bilinguals, late bilinguals, balanced bilinguals and unbalanced bilinguals alike, but requires a minimum of literacy skills at high school education level for at least one of their languages. This classification of participants was specified for the 5 following reasons:
a) to be representative of bilingual (and multilingual) populations most commonly assessed for the purpose of research
b) to integrate the most diverse selection of this target population
c) to allow for questionnaire completion with minimal external aid, while still yielding valid data
d) to include the most relevant documented variables for language surveys, according to accredited language experts
e) to allow for simultaneous collection of bilingual proficiency status and additional relevant evaluations

Two separate studies were conducted to substantiate the validity of the LEAP-Q. The first study addressed the internal validity of the questionnaire by implementing factor analysis and multiple regression analysis to responses given by a diverse group of bilinguals. The questionnaire was revised accordingly for the second study in which a more homogeneous selection of bilinguals was used. Correlation, factor analysis and regression analysis were employed in this study to confirm the comparison of self-reported to the standardized proficiency evaluations. Although constructed to incorporate all languages, the LEAP-Q was formulated, normed and administered in English only.

## Predictions for the Current Study

Based on the results found in previous studies outlined earlier in this introduction, predictions were as follows:

1. Regarding frequency: Participants should have higher TOT rates for lower frequency words (See Gollan et al, 2008).
2. Regarding cognate status: Participants should have lower TOT rates for cognates than non-cognates (See Gollan \& Acenas, 2004; Costa, 2000).
3. Regarding word form: Participants should have lower TOT rates for proper nouns than for common nouns (See Gollan, Montoya \& Bonanni, 2008). The Distributed Feature Model also supports this facilitation of retrieval for proper nouns, as they are always concrete nouns.
4. Regarding word form crossed with cognate status due to possible dual facilitation effect: Participants should have lower TOT occurrences over-all for cognate proper nouns (See Gollan \& Acenas, 2004; Gollan, Montoya \& Bonanni, 2008).

The weaker links theory predicts that participants would produce more TOTS in their nondominant language than in their dominant language, especially for low-frequency words. (Decreased access of words leads to weaker links.) Cognates and proper nouns, however, should elicit fewer TOTs than non-cognates and common nouns, as these representations are essentially shared between languages and therefore do not bear consequences of weakened links. Costa's non-specific language model is key to this prediction in that phonological representations from both languages are activated in the word production process.

The competition account predicts that participants with higher English proficiency and participants with more balanced use of Norwegian and English would experience more TOT occurrences due to increased competition from higher activation levels in L2. (This would necessarily assume that known words in L2 were higher for these participants, as words not known in a second language cannot provide competition.) Another view for this prediction is that "don't know" responses may become false TOT responses due to activation of competing translation equivalents. Regarding word frequency, the interference account predicts either no significant effect or fewer occurrence of TOTs for low-frequency words.

## Methods

## Participants

51 candidates between the ages of 18 and 35 years old participated in this study, all of whom were Norwegian-speaking bilinguals who considered themselves to be reasonably proficient in English as their second language. Potential candidates were excluded if it became clear that they were also proficient in a third language. This was communicated in an initial information letter that informed the potential candidates of qualifications for participation in this study.

The letter further informed requirements that candidates have normal or corrected-to-normal vision and hearing and have no diagnosed cognitive impairments or language impairments such as dyslexia or stuttering. Candidates were also informed of the procedure of personal information and data collection related to the study. A consent form followed the information letter, which each candidate signed their name to affirm that they were indeed qualified according to the criteria. All candidates were given vouchers of 150 NOK to Sørbok at UiA as incentive and token of appreciation for their cooperation. (See appendix A for consent form and information letter.)

## Stimuli

In total, 16 lists of stimuli were assembled, consisting of 10 target words each. 8 of the lists contained Norwegian words and 8 contained English words. The first set of 80 target words contained 10 of each non-cognate nouns, cognate nouns, non-cognate proper nouns and cognate proper nouns in English, and the same in Norwegian. ( 40 Norwegian and 40 English target words.) Each of the sets contained frequency rates per million ranging from 0.01 (at the lowest point) and 9.76 (at the highest point.) Databases NoWac (Norwegian words) and Subtlex (English words) were searched for the obtainment of frequency data for each individual word. For each target word, number of syllables, number of phonemes, number of letters, number of hits in the respective language database, and frequency per million were calculated and indicated, as in the following example.

Example Set (1 of 8):

|  | Examples: NOR | ENG |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| 10 Cognate common nouns (CCN) | hieroglyf | mutiny |
| Number of syllables | 4 | 3 |
| Number of phonemes | 3 | 7 |
| Number of letters | 9 | 6 |
| Number of hits in database | 101 | 269 |
| Frequency per million | 0.14 | 1.34 |
| 10 Non-cognate common nouns (NCN) | ingefær | eavesdropper |
| $\quad$ Number of syllables | 6 | 3 |
| $\quad$ Number of phonemes | 7 | 8 |
| $\quad$ Number of letters | 1227 | 11 |
| $\quad$ Number of hits in database | 1.61 | 6 |
| Frequency per million | Winston | 0.03 |
| 10 Cognate proper nouns (CPN) | 6 | 2 |


| Number of hits in database | 1772 | 139 |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Frequency per million | 2.53 | 0.69 |  |
| 10 Non-cognate proper nouns (NPN) | Karlsvogna | Dolittle |  |
| Number of syllables | 3 | 7 | 3 |
| Number of phonemes | 9 | 8 |  |
| Number of letters | 10 | 66 |  |
| Number of hits in database | 92 | 0.33 |  |
| Frequency per million | 0.13 |  |  |

Precise and coherent definitions were provided for each target word. In addition, three foils were created for each of the target words: one semantically similar, one similar in form or phonology, and one random.

Example Definitions and Foils:

## CCN

hieroglyf: Gammel, egyptisk bildeskrift (foils: helleristninger, hiragana, sanskrit) mutiny: An open rebellion against the proper authorities, especially by soldiers or sailors against their officers (foils: revolution, matinee, mutation)

## NCN

ingefar: En rot brukt som smakstilsetning i mat og drikke, ofte i frisk, tørket, malt eller syltet form. Blir også brukt til å lindre sår hals og mageproblemer (foils: anis, ginseng, lakris) eavesdropper: A secret listener to private conversations, for instance outside someone's door (foils: sleuth, earworm, auditor)

## CPN

Winston: Fornavnet til Storbritannias statsminister under andre verdenskrig. Han var kjent for å bruke begrepet "jernteppet" for å referere til delingen av Europa under den kalde krigen (foils: Chamberlain, Wilson, Windsor)
Chernobyl: The worst nuclear disaster in history, caused by an explosion at a nuclear power plant in Ukraine in 1986 (foils: Hiroshima, Chernabog, Pribyl)

NPN
Karlsvogna: Navnet på et stjernemønster som utgjør en del av stjernebildet Store Bjørn (foils: Orion, Kavalragnar, Lillebjørn)

Dolittle: The last name of the doctor in a series of children's novels who learns to talk to animals and becomes their champion around the world. (foils: Popper, Delamotte, Littleborough)

Across the sets in each constraint, average of frequency rate per million for each target word was maintained as similar as possible, as well as similar averages for number of letters per word, number of phonemes, number of syllables, and number of hits in the respective databases. (See Table 1.) When counting phonemes, British English transcription was used. The second set of target words was included as a control, to avoid the effect of the set. This set contained the same number of target words in each constraint as the first set and was kept as similar as possible to the first set in all constraints, other than using completely new words.

Table 1: Means of stimuli sets

| Set 1 Norwegian |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mean | No. Of Syllables | No. Of Phonemes | No. Of Letters | Hits in Database | Freq. Per Million |
| CCN | 3.4 | 8.2 | 8.6 | 1661 | 2.37 |
| NCN | 2.2 | 5.8 | 6.5 | 1071.1 | 1.51 |
| CPN | 2.6 | 6.4 | 7.6 | 1394.4 | 1.99 |
| NPN | 2.6 | 6.7 | 7.4 | 1056.9 | 1.54 |
| Set 2 Norwegian |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mean | No. Of Syllables | No. Of Phonemes | No. Of Letters | Hits in Database | Freq. Per Million |
| CCN | 3.2 | 7.8 | 8.4 | 1830.8 | 2.42 |
| NCN | 2.3 | 6.1 | 6.4 | 1074.9 | 1.54 |
| CPN | 2.3 | 6.4 | 7.1 | 1133.1 | 1.62 |
| NPN | 3.2 | 8.5 | 9.1 | 1066.9 | 1.52 |
| Set 1 English |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mean | No. Of Syllables | No. Of Phonemes | No. Of Letters | Hits in Database | Freq. Per Million |
| CCN | 3 | 7 | 7.4 | 376.2 | 1.87 |
| NCN | 2.7 | 6.4 | 7.2 | 438.7 | 2.13 |
| CPN | 2.2 | 6 | 7.1 | 479.7 | 2.38 |
| NPN | 2.4 | 6.2 | 6.9 | 376.9 | 1.87 |
| Set 2 English |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mean | No. Of Syllables | No. Of Phonemes | No. Of Letters | Hits in Database | Freq. Per Million |
| CCN | 2.8 | 7.1 | 8.1 | 416.6 | 2.13 |
| NCN | 3 | 6.6 | 7.6 | 409.6 | 2.03 |
| CPN | 2.1 | 5.8 | 6.5 | 502.4 | 2.46 |
| NPN | 2.3 | 6.2 | 7 | 410.2 | 2.04 |

When choosing target words for the stimuli sets, several features were taken into consideration. Single words were exclusively used as targets in order to ensure accurate frequency rate results.

Homophones were not included in order to avoid irregularities when hypothesizing about syntactic versus phonetic retrieval processes. Words with multiple synonyms were also left out to avert obscurity of the target word. For the sake of simplifying definitions for the target words, concrete nouns were favoured over abstract nouns. When selecting Norwegian and English cognates, only obviously similar target words were allowed while during selection of non-cognates, only evidently dissimilar words were authorized. Although word selection criteria allowed the use of borrowed words, very few were actually included.

Stimuli sets models were adopted from a previous master thesis (Mollestad, 2018) investigating tip-of-the-tongue states in Norwegian-English bilinguals, making multiple amendments. The words that were adopted from this previous project were clearly indicated in the set lists as 2018 next to each word, while new words were marked as 2020 . Unique definitions were created for all target words alike. Current frequency rate database results were used rather than incorporating previously gathered information from 2018.

When searching the NoWac database, results often displayed additional word forms, such as adjective or verb, as well as noun form hit count. In cases where the lemma was identical, the number of hits was added for both forms.

With the purpose of attaining "got" rather than "not", it was endeavoured to choose target words that participants most likely knew. "Trivia" words were evaded as far as possible, which proved especially challenging when selecting non-cognate proper noun targets. Whereas Mollestad admitted several Harry Potter themed target words in this set, this study sought to vary themes in order to avoid undesired effects due to dependence of participants' interest and knowledge of one specific theme. (See full sets of stimuli with definitions in Appendix D.)

## Experiment Design

For the experiment, the previously accumulated stimuli were placed into sets for each language, each of which included equal numbers of each condition (high and low frequency, cognate and non-cognate, common and proper noun) in random order. For both Norwegian and English, 4 sets were created, 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2 b . Each set contained 40 words separated into 2 blocks of 20 , with a trial number given to each word within the set. The "b" sets consisted of identical
definitions, words and foils as the " a " sets but appeared in reverse order. These were created as a reliability check to avoid order and tiredness or boredom effects.

## Experimental Procedure

Prior to testing, participants presented a signed consent form and completed a modified version of the previously introduced LEAP-Q, described as follows:

## LEAP-Q Modifications

Adjustments were made to the original language proficiency questionnaire (LEAP-Q) for the purpose of optimal relevance for the current study. The questions dealing with language background were shortened and simplified for the current study. (For example, instead of "When choosing to read a text available in all your languages, in what percentage of cases would you choose to read it in each of your languages? Assume that the original was written in another language, which is unknown to you. Your percentages should add up to $100 \%$ " became "Please list what percentage of the time you typically spend reading in each language. All your answers should add up to $100 \%$ ".) An original question requiring the participant to state a date of immigration to the United States (if applicable) was excluded due to lack of relevance. A question instructing participants to list any vision problems, hearing impairments, language disabilities and/or learning disabilities was excluded as this information was previously collected. Candidates with these issues were eliminated from the current study.

Questions 7, 8 and 9 regarding language culture and identity were added to the language background section, which the original did not include:

Q7: What cultures do you identify with (e.g., Norwegian, British, American etc.)? Please list each culture below (up to 5) and use the scale from 1-10 to rate the degree of identification, whereby $0=$ no identification, $5=$ moderate identification, $10=$ compete identification.

Q8: Do you feel that you were once better in one of your languages and that you have become less fluent? If yes, which one? At what age did you become less fluent?

Q9: In which language do you usually do the following tasks? Simple math (counting, adding), dream, express anger or affection and talk to yourself.

The original section dealing with language proficiency included a separate section of questions dealing with self-report of foreign accent. The current study adapted these questions slightly and included them in a broadened in an L1 and L2 self-reported proficiency section. In the section where questions were asked regarding participants’ immersion in each language environment, the current study added further query to workplace (not included in the original LEAP-Q) as well as requiring participants to distribute time spent in school and working environments where each language was spoken SOME of the time and ALL of the time. The sections concerning factors contributing to L1 and L2 language learning and exposure to L1 and L 2 were edited to incorporate modern elements. The section also excluded radio and added "TV/streaming" and "listening to music/media" while "independent study" was adjusted to "self-instruction (e.g., language learning videos or apps)". (See appendix B for the original LEAP-Q, and appendix C for the modified version used in this study.)

Upon completing the modified LEAP-Q, participants were each assigned one Norwegian and one English set. For example, if participant 1 was tested with Norwegian set 1a (Nor1a), they were tested with corresponding number and letter of the English set. (Eng1a). The sets were assigned in rotation to participants to endure equal numbers per set.

Some experiments were conducted live, via Microsoft Teams or Zoom, with screen/windowsharing for the digital alternatives, and some were conducted in person. In all cases, Norwegian tests were run first, followed by English tests on a separate day. At the time of testing, participants were first briefly informed of how the testing would proceed and the definition of "tip-of-the-tongue" state was clearly specified before proceeding with trial questions. The participants were reassured that the words chosen were intentionally slightly difficult. The program 'Open Sesame' was used for testing and data collection purposes, which gathered all responses into stored files. During a trial, target word definitions appeared on the participant's screen followed by the question "Do you know this word?" with options 1 (Yes), 1 (No) and 3 (TOT). If the participant answered yes, the following slide required them to say the word, before continuing with the subsequent trial. When the word was not known (2), the testing proceeded promptly. When a participant responded that the word was on the tip of their tongue, they were requested to comment on whether they knew any letters or sounds in the word or not. If yes, they were asked whether they knew in which place in the word this sound or letter was. ( $1=$ beginning, $2=$ middle, $3=$ end or 0 , don't know.) If more than one sound was known, the experimenter plotted in which sound was thought to be in which place. (e.g., $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}$ then 3 ,
2.) The following question inquired whether the participant knew how many syllables this word had or not. The final screen presented 5 options ( 3 foils and the target word in random order along with an option of "none of the above") and required the participant to indicate whether one of the options was the word they had on the tip of their tongue or not. Any additional comments or responses, (such as sudden target word retrieval after selecting TOT state but before reaching the final screen revealing the target word) were recorded by hand by the experimenter. The tests varied in duration, depending on the length of time individual participants spent on their answers, ranging from approximately 15 minutes to 40 minutes.

## Results

## LEAP-Q Results

## Participants

The 51 candidates ( 36 of whom were female) between the ages of 18 and 34 that participated in the study were relatively uniform regarding their proficiency in Norwegian, all but 1 having been born in Norway. None of the participants reported language impairments or abnormal (uncorrected) vision and all but 3 were right-handed. All participants had completed at least 12,5 years of education ranging to a maximum 23 years of schooling completed, with a majority of 35 participants having completed between 16-19 years. The levels of education reported ranged from high school to master level. 33 participants had either completed a bachelor's degree or were currently working on one, while 12 had , or were currently working on completing a master's degree. The remaining 6 listed either high school or 'other' as their highest level of education.

## Language background and dominance

3 participants considered English to be their first language whereas the remaining participants listed Norwegian as their first language. 18 of the participants indicated a $3^{\text {rd }}$ spoken language: 7 German, 4 Spanish, 3 French, 2 Danish, 1 Swedish and 1 Japanese. The participant with Japanese as a $3^{\text {rd }}$ language also had NSL (Norwegian Sign Language) as a $4^{\text {th }}$ language. In all cases, the order of language dominance corresponded to order of language acquisition.

34 of the participants reported exclusive identity to Norwegian culture. The remaining 17 participants identified to Norwegian culture to a degree of at least 7. (7 participants to a degree of 9,5 to a degree of 8 and 5 to a degree of 7 ). 1 participant identified equally at a degree of 8 with both American and Norwegian and 1 identified to British culture at a degree of 8 compared to Norwegian culture at 7. Participants reported varying additional identifications with American, British, Swiss, German, Korean, Australian, Sámi, Canadian and French cultures, ranging from degrees of 2 to 8 .

32 participants reported having once been better at one of their languages. 15 of these stated that this language was English, 6 Norwegian, 4 German, 3 French, 2 Spanish, 1 Japanese and 1 Danish. Of those who reported this experience, 2 stated that this decrease in fluency occurred between age 10 and 15,13 between age 15 and 20 while 17 reported that this decrease had occurred after the age of 20 .

All but 2 participants did simple math (counting and adding) in Norwegian and 44 dreamed in Norwegian while the remaining 7 reported English dreams. 35 participants stated that they expressed anger or affection in Norwegian, 15 spoke English for this purpose and 1 resorted to speaking German. Norwegian was the language 33 of the participants used when talking to themselves while the remaining 18 held these one-way conversations in English.

## Language Exposure

Variables pertaining to participants' language exposure are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2: Language Exposure

| Language Exposure | Norwegian |  | English |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Mean | Range | Mean | Range |
| Time exposed to language (\%) e.g., Talking, listening, reading, incl. TV, movies, <br> music | 59.6 | $30-95$ | 39.2 | $5-75$ |
| Time spent speaking language (\%) | 76.2 | $20-100$ | 19.7 | $0-80$ |
| Time spent reading language (\%) | 52.6 | $10-99$ | 46.7 | $1-90$ |
| Occurence of spoken language choice when given the choice (\%) | 82.2 | $10-100$ | 17.4 | $0-90$ |


| Extent of language exposure (0-10 scale) |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Interacting with friends | 9.1 | $4-10$ | 3.8 | $0-10$ |
| Interacting with family | 9.4 | $0-10$ | 1.1 | $0-9$ |
| Reading | 5.3 | $0-10$ | 6.9 | $1-10$ |
| Self-instruction | 1.1 | $0-10$ | 1.7 | $0-10$ |
| TV | 3.4 | $0-10$ | 8.1 | $4-10$ |
| Music/Media | 3.3 | $0-10$ | 8.0 | $4-10$ |

As shown in Table 2, exposure to Norwegian is greater than English for all factors, with choice of spoken Norwegian and time spent speaking Norwegian showing the highest means. Reading is shown to be the highest English exposure factor. The extent of language exposure for Norwegian is greatest in interaction with others while TV, music and media are shown to be the greatest sources of English exposure.

## Language Learning and Proficiency

Table 3a: Self-reported Language Mixing and Intrusion

| Language Mixing and Intrusion (Self-reported) | Mean | Range |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |
| Proficiency in language switching | 8.1 | $4-10$ |
| Intentional use of English when speaking Norwegian (1-10 scale) 46 <br> participants | 4.4 | $1-10$ |
| Intentional use of Norwegian when speaking English (1-10 scale) 46 <br> participants | 2.1 | $1-9$ |
| Accidental intrusion of Norwegian when speaking English (1-10 scale) 44 <br> participants) | 1.7 | $1-7$ |
| Accidental intrusion of English when speaking Norwegian (1-10 scale) 44 <br> participants | 3.7 | $1-8$ |

As can be seen in Table $3 a$, the majority of participants considered themselves to be proficient language switchers, with both intentional and accidental intrusion of words and sentences being significantly more frequent in English while speaking Norwegian than vice versa.

Table 3b: Language Learning and Self-Reported Proficiency

| Language Proficiency | Norwegian |  | English |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Mean | Range | Mean | Range |
| Number of years:months spent in language environment |  |  |  |  |
| In a country | 24:11 | 17:9-30:11 | 1:6 | 0:0-17:3 |
| In a family | 25:3 | 18:8-34:11 | 1:11 | 0:0-34:11 |
| In a school (spoken all the time) | 15:7 | 1:0-27:0 | 0:9 | 0:0-13:00 |
| In a school (spoken some of the time) | 5:3 | 0:0-27:0 | 6:7 | 0:0-18:1 |
| In a workplace (spoken all of the time) | 5:4 | 0:0-17:0 | 0:1 | 0:0-3:0 |
| In a workplace (spoken some of the time) | 2:1 | 0:0-12:0 | 1:5 | 0:0-10:0 |
| Contributing factors to language learning (0-10 scale) |  |  |  |  |
| Interaction with friends/colleagues | 7.7 | 0-10 | 6.1 | 0-10 |
| Interaction with family | 9.3 | 5-10 | 2.5 | 0-10 |
| Reading | 6.8 | 0-10 | 7.2 | 2-10 |
| Education | 7.5 | 2-10 | 7.6 | 1-10 |
| Self-instruction | 1.3 | 0-10 | 2.7 | 0-10 |
| TV | 3.9 | 0-10 | 7.5 | 2-10 |
| Music/Media | 3.3 | 0-10 | 6.4 | 0-10 |
| Self-reported proficiency (0-10 scale) |  |  |  |  |
| Speaking | 9.5 | 5-10 | 7.8 | 4-10 |
| Pronunciation | 9.5 | 6-10 | 7.0 | 2-10 |
| Listening | 9.8 | 6-10 | 8.5 | 6-10 |
| Reading | 9.5 | 3-10 | 8.3 | 3-10 |
| Writing | 9.1 | 5-10 | 7.8 | 5-10 |
| Grammar | 8.4 | 4-10 | 6.9 | 3-10 |
| Vocabulary | 8.7 | 6-10 | 7.2 | 4-10 |
| Spelling | 8.7 | 4-10 | 7.0 | 3-10 |
| Age milestones (years) |  |  |  |  |
| Started hearing | 0.1 | 0-3 | 7.1 | 0-14 |
| Attained speaking fluency | 4.3 | 0-16 | 13.9 | 6-23 |
| Started reading | 5.2 | 3-7 | 7.8 | 5-13 |
| Attained reading fluency | 8.1 | 5-19 | 13.2 | 7-22 |

Results from the remaining questions regarding language learning and self-reported proficiency ratings from the LEAP-Q are shown in Table $3 b$. As is shown, the means of years and months participants spent in Norwegian language environments is significantly higher than for an English language environment in general. Interaction with family, friends and colleagues is shown to be the highest contributing factor to Norwegian language learning, while education, TV and reading contribute most for learning English. The means for all aspects of English proficiency are lower than for Norwegian but nevertheless very high, with the highest ratings for listening and reading. Across all age factors, participants became fluent in Norwegian several years earlier than in English, with fluency in speaking and reading being attained latest.

## Factor Analysis

The LEAP-Q data were prepared for a factor analysis in order to investigate which groupings of variables best explained the variance in the data set. First those questions with categorial (written) answers and those showing minimal or no variation were removed from the data set. These included Norwegian proficiency variables, as there was not sufficient variation within the group of participants, as previously mentioned. (For the full list of excluded variables see Appendix E.)

A correlation matrix was made of the remaining 46 variables. The variable indicating occurrence of intentional Norwegian substitution when speaking English showed no correlations of at least 0.3 with any other variables and was therefore excluded due to insufficient co-variation (Question 8b). In cases of variables that correlated highly (>0.8), such as use of L1 related to use of L2, one was removed to avoid redundant information. In the case of language exposure, speaking, reading and choice between L1 and L2 (all of which had correlation of -0.9 or more), it is self-evident that the less one uses one language, the more one uses the other correspondingly. Due to the current project's interest in use of English as L2, data relating to Norwegian (L1) usage and proficiency was removed. Three additional variables showing at least 0.81 or higher with other variables were considered redundant and removed due to their high correlation. These variables were English grammar to spelling, contribution of Norwegian TV to music and exposure of Norwegian TV to music. (Questions $4 \mathrm{n}, 2 \mathrm{f}$ and 3 e ).

The remaining 38 variables were entered into the factor analysis. The output of the factor analysis is reported in Tables $4 a$ and $4 b$, showing which variables grouped to form 4 main factors, together accounting for nearly $50 \%$ of the variance in the data (cumulative variance). Table $4 a$ and $4 b$ also report which variables load positively and negatively onto each factor and the weight of the loading. Hence, these values indicate the degree to which variables contribute to the factor they are listed under and whether that contribution is positive or negative.

Table 4a: Factor Analysis for English Proficiency and Spoken English Proficiency

| English Proficiency | Spoken English Proficiency |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| L2 Grammar Proficiency | 0.84 | Speaking L2 | 0.68 |
| L2 Writing Proficiency | 0.82 | Age Fluent in Speaking Age L1 | 0.60 |
| L2 Reading Proficiency | 0.82 | Age Fluent in Reading L1 | 0.59 |
| L2 Vocabulary Proficiency | 0.78 | Occurrence of L2 Choice | 0.59 |
| L2 Listening Proficiency | 0.74 | L2 Exposure | 0.57 |
| L2 Speaking Proficiency | 0.71 | Contribution of Interaction w/Family L2 | 0.44 |
| L2 Pronunciation Proficiency | 0.69 | Exposure of Interaction w/Friends in L2 | 0.41 |
| Exposure to L2 Reading | 0.65 | Frequency of Accidental Word Mixing | 0.37 |
| Language Switching Proficiency | 0.60 | L2 Vocabulary | 0.33 |
| L2 Reading Contribution | 0.59 | L2 Pronunciation | 0.33 |
| L1 Contribution from School | 0.43 | L2 Reading | 0.33 |
| Frequency of Accidental Word Mixing | 0.41 | L1 Contribution of Reading | -0.37 |
| Contribution of L1 Reading | 0.41 | L1 Contribution of School | -0.40 |
| Time spend Reading L2 | 0.38 | L1 Exposure to Reading | -0.44 |
| Age Fluent in Speaking L1 | 0.36 | L1 Exposure to TV | -0.71 |
| Age Fluent in Reading L1 | 0.35 |  |  |
| Exposure of Interaction w/Friends in L2 | 0.35 |  |  |
| L2 Exposure to Music | 0.35 |  |  |
| Contribution of L2 School | 0.33 |  |  |
| Occurrence of L2 Choice | 0.31 |  |  |
| Contribution of Interaction w/Family in L2 | 0.31 |  |  |


| Exposure to L2 from TV | 0.31 |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | ---: |
| Proportion Var | $\mathbf{0 . 1 9}$ | Proportion Var | $\mathbf{0 . 1 1}$ |
| Cumulative Var | $\mathbf{0 . 1 9}$ | Cumulative Var | $\mathbf{0 . 3 0}$ |

Table 4b: Factor Analysis for Informal Learning of English and Age of English Acquisition

| Informal Learning of English |  | Age of English Acquisition |  |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | ---: |
| Contribution of TV in L2 | 0.74 | Age Fluent in Reading L2 | 0.69 |
| Contribution from Music in L2 | 0.65 | Age Started Hearing L2 | 0.65 |
| Exposure to L2 TV | 0.61 | Age Fluent in Speaking L2 | 0.62 |
| Exposure to L2 Music | 0.56 | Age Started Reading L2 | 0.61 |
| Contribution from L2 Reading | 0.49 | Contribution of Interaction w/Friends in L2 | 0.51 |
| L2 Exposure | 0.46 | Contribution of L1 Reading | 0.48 |
| Language Switching Proficiency | 0.44 | Contribution of L1 TV | 0.47 |
| Exposure of Interaction w/Friends L2 | 0.35 | Accidental Intrusion of L1 on L2 | -0.37 |
| Contribution of L2 Self-Instruction | 0.35 | Intentional L2 Substitution | -0.58 |
| L2 Reading | 0.31 |  | 0. |
| Age Fluent in Speaking L1 | -0.30 |  | $\mathbf{0 . 0 9}$ |
| Age Fluent in Reading L2 | -0.40 |  | $\mathbf{0 . 4 7}$ |
| Proportion Var | $\mathbf{0 . 0 9}$ | Proportion Var |  |
| Cumulative Var | $\mathbf{0 . 3 9}$ | Cumulative Var |  |

All of the variables listed under the English Proficiency factor are shown in elements of general English proficiency such as grammar, reading, writing and vocabulary. Lower loadings of variables such as interaction with friends and family members, and exposure to English music and TV also relate to English proficiency as a whole.

The factor of Spoken English Proficiency includes both positively and negatively loaded variable values. As would be expected, speaking English loads highest onto this factor while attaining fluency in speaking and reading Norwegian follow closely behind. Variables such as exposure to Norwegian TV and reading in Norwegian load negatively onto spoken English proficiency.

The Informal Learning of English factor is composed of variables pertaining to informal aspects of English language learning, such as contribution of and exposure to English music, TV and general exposure to English. The negative values shown here indicate age in becoming fluent in speaking and reading English. In this case, the lower the age of English fluency, the greater the influence on informal learning of English.

For Age of English Acquisition, variables such as age of attained fluency in reading and speaking English, as well as age of beginning to hear and read L2 load highly. Contribution of reading in general and English TV-watching also relate to this factor. Accidental intrusion of Norwegian while speaking English has been listed as a negatively loaded influence relating to age of English acquisition, in addition to the expected negative significance of intentional English substitution.

## Tot Experiment Results

## Vocabulary Knowledge

The data for both lists were analyzed together as they both behaved similarly. The first analysis investigated the effects of language, cognate status, noun-type and frequency on participants' vocabulary knowledge. The dependent variable was probability of the participants' known words (their vocabularies) in both of their languages, relative to all of the trials that were run. Following several language production models, retrieval entails at least two stages of processing, the first in which involves activation of meaning based representations and the second, form-based representations (e.g., Levelt et al, 1999; Caramazza, 1997; Dell, 1986). As outlined earlier, TOTs indicate successful first stage retrieval and failed full retrieval of the second stage. Hence, stage one completion is indexed by positive TOTs and "yes" responses, relative to all trials. This data includes results from answers of "yes", meaning the participant knew the target word, and TOT answers, or words included in their vocabularies that couldn't be retrieved at the moment. Answers that did not result in a true TOT were not considered part of a participant's vocabulary. This measure was calculated by coding "yes" answers and TOTs as 1 , and all other responses as 0 . Cognate status (Cognate, -0.5 vs. Non-Cognate, 0.5), Type of Noun (Common, -0.5 vs. Proper, 0.5 ) and Language (English, -0.5 vs. Norwegian. 0.5 ) were
fixed effects (centered) as well as frequency (zipf, continuous). A linear mixed-effects model was run which produced the output displayed in Table 5. (Significant effects for all tables are presented in bold script.)

Table 5: Vocabulary Knowledge Statistics

| Probability of know and +TOT relative to all trials |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|\mathrm{z}\|)$ |
|  | 1.02 | 0.13 | 7.62 | 0.00 |
| (Intercept) | $\mathbf{0 . 5 8}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 6}$ | $\mathbf{3 . 5 7}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 0}$ |
| language [en, -0.5; no, 0.5] | $\mathbf{0 . 3 1}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 6}$ | $\mathbf{1 . 9 0}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 6}$ |
| typeName [common, -0.5; proper, 0.5] | -0.01 | 0.16 | -0.09 | 0.93 |
| Cognate [cognate, -0.5; proper, 0.5] | $\mathbf{0 . 3 0}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 2}$ | $\mathbf{2 . 4 5}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 1}$ |
| frequency [continuous from -1.89 to 0.23] | -0.09 | 0.25 | -0.35 | 0.73 |
| language:frequency | -0.23 | 0.25 | -0.93 | 0.35 |
| typeName:frequency | 0.21 | 0.25 | 0.84 | 0.40 |
| Cognate:frequency | -0.33 | 0.32 | -1.01 | 0.31 |
| language:typeName | 0.02 | 0.32 | 0.05 | 0.96 |
| language:Cognate | 0.48 | 0.32 | 1.49 | 0.14 |
| typeName:Cognate | 0.84 | 0.50 | 1.69 | 0.09 |
| language:typeName:frequency | 0.44 | 0.50 | 0.88 | 0.38 |
| language:Cognate:frequency | 0.12 | 0.50 | 0.23 | 0.82 |
| typeName:Cognate:frequency | -0.26 | 0.65 | -0.40 | 0.69 |
| language:typeName:Cognate | -0.77 | 0.99 | -0.77 | 0.44 |



Figure 9: The Means of Vocabulary Knowledge Statistics

As shown in Table 5, the analysis yielded a significant effect of language and word frequency. In other words, participants knew more Norwegian words (had larger vocabularies in Norwegian) and had more knowledge of high frequency words in general across languages. Although within the parameters of being considered significant, common nouns vs proper nouns only indicate a borderline effect of showing different patterns of behaviour, meaning that participants showed no significantly greater knowledge of either proper or common nouns. The means of this measure by condition are illustrated in the graphs in Figure 9.

## TOT Proportion Analyses

Table 6 shows experiment results measuring true tip-of-the-tongue occurrences relative to known words. Positive TOTs and "yes" responses both reflect successful first stage of retrieval while positive TOTs are the only response that indicates successful first stage retrieval but failed retrieval in stage two (Gollan and Brown, 2006). To calculate the proportion that reflect failed retrieval exclusively, "don’t know" trials (28\%) and negative TOTs (3.27\%) were first discarded. The positive TOTs were coded as 1 and "yes" responses as 0 . This data was then submitted to a similar mixed effects model as above.

Table 6: Probability of positive TOT relative to "yes" responses.

| Probability of positive TOT relative to Know |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\mid \mathrm{z\mid})$ |  |  |  |
| (Intercept) | -2.69 | 0.16 | -17.01 | $<$ |  |  |  |
| language | $-\mathbf{0 . 4 3}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 9}$ | $\mathbf{- 2 . 2 4}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 3}$ |  |  |  |
| typeName | 0.20 | 0.19 | 1.06 | 0.29 |  |  |  |
| Cognate | $\mathbf{- 0 . 4 2}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 9}$ | $\mathbf{- 2 . 2 2}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 3}$ |  |  |  |
| frequency | $\mathbf{- 0 . 3 3}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 5}$ | $\mathbf{- 2 . 2 7}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 2}$ |  |  |  |
| language:frequency | 0.08 | 0.30 | 0.26 | 0.80 |  |  |  |
| typeName:frequency | 0.09 | 0.29 | 0.31 | 0.76 |  |  |  |
| Cognate:frequency | 0.06 | 0.29 | 0.20 | 0.84 |  |  |  |
| language:typeName | 0.14 | 0.38 | 0.36 | 0.72 |  |  |  |
| language:Cognate | 0.30 | 0.38 | 0.79 | 0.43 |  |  |  |
| typeName:Cognate | $\mathbf{- 1 . 0 5}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 3 8}$ | $\mathbf{- 2 . 7 5}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 1}$ |  |  |  |
| language:typeName:frequency | 0.60 | 0.59 | 1.00 | 0.32 |  |  |  |
| language:Cognate:frequency | 0.24 | 0.59 | 0.41 | 0.68 |  |  |  |
| typeName:Cognate:frequency | -0.67 | 0.59 | -1.14 | 0.25 |  |  |  |
| language:typeName:Cognate | -0.13 | 0.76 | -0.18 | 0.86 |  |  |  |
| language:typeName:Cognate:frequency | 1.71 | 1.20 | 1.43 | 0.15 |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |



Figure 10: Means of probability of positive TOTs relative to "yes" responses

Table 6 shows a significant effect of language, with participants having more TOT occurrences in English than Norwegian. There is a significant effect of frequency signifying that participants experienced greater occurrence of TOTs for low-frequency words. The results also indicate an effect of cognate status, meaning that participants actually had more TOTs for cognate words. Lastly, cognate status was shown to have interacted with noun type which is to say that participants had more TOTS for cognates when they were proper nouns. Figure 10 provides a graph depiction of means for this table.

As demonstrated in the following tables, no significant effects of sounds or sound placement in target words (Table 7), or syllable effects (Table 8) were found, meaning that there were no clear patterns of partially successful retrieval in TOT states. See Figure 11 for graph illustration of means for Table 7.

Table 7: Access to TOT Phonology Analysis

|  | Mean Phon_Correct |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr $(>\|\mathrm{z}\|)$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| (Intercept) | 1.68 | 0.12 | 14.23 | $<1 \mathrm{e}-04$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| language | 0.15 | 0.20 | 0.75 | 0.46 |  |  |  |  |  |
| typeName | -0.03 | 0.21 | -0.14 | 0.89 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Cognate | -0.08 | 0.21 | -0.39 | 0.70 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Nowac_Subtlex_Zipf | -0.18 | 0.16 | -1.09 | 0.28 |  |  |  |  |  |
| language:typeName | 0.13 | 0.41 | 0.32 | 0.75 |  |  |  |  |  |
| language:Cognate | -0.04 | 0.42 | -0.10 | 0.92 |  |  |  |  |  |
| typeName:Cognate | 0.30 | 0.42 | 0.72 | 0.47 |  |  |  |  |  |
| language:Nowac_Subtlex_Zipf | 0.14 | 0.32 | 0.43 | 0.67 |  |  |  |  |  |
| typeName:Nowac_Subtlex_Zipf | 0.07 | 0.34 | 0.20 | 0.84 |  |  |  |  |  |
| Cognate:Nowac_Subtlex_Zipf | 0.31 | 0.35 | 0.89 | 0.37 |  |  |  |  |  |
| language:typeName:Nowac_Subtlex_Zipf | -0.77 | 0.67 | -1.14 | 0.25 |  |  |  |  |  |
| language:Cognate:Nowac_Subtlex_Zipf | -0.11 | 0.69 | -0.15 | 0.88 |  |  |  |  |  |
| typeName:Cognate:Nowac_Subtlex_Zipf | 0.12 | 0.66 | 0.18 | 0.85 |  |  |  |  |  |
| language:typeName:Cognate | -0.78 | 0.84 | -0.93 | 0.35 |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 8: Access to TOT Syllables Analysis

|  | Raw counts |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $=$ cognate | $=\mathrm{EN}$ | $=$ non-Cognate | $=E N$ | $=$ cognate | $=\mathrm{NO}$ | $=$ non-Cognate | $=\mathrm{NO}$ |
|  | common | proper | common | proper | common | proper | common | proper |
| 0 | 7 | 22 | 10 | 4 | 7 | 11 | 11 | 6 |
| 1 | 6 | 9 | 4 | 6 | 5 | 11 | 3 | 5 |
| 2 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 7 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 2 |
| 3 | 11 | 6 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | 1 | 8 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 9 | 5 | 3 |





Figure 11: Means of Access to TOT Phonology Analysis

## Individual Differences Analyses

In order to investigate the effect of difference in language profile on our findings, participant individual measures for each of the 4 factors from the LEAP-Q factor analysis were included in the mixed effects model. English proficiency, spoken English proficiency, informal English learning and age of English acquisition were added as covariates to assess individual differences.

## a.) Probability of Known Words

Responses were TOT, "yes" and "don't know". 124 of the total number of responses were true TOTs. These were coded together with "yes" as 1 and "don't know" as 0 . Cognate status (cognate, -0.5 vs non-cognate, 0.5 ) was fixed effect (centered). A logistic regression was fitted to assess the likelihood of knowing words (know + TOTs). The results for these differences are shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Individual Differences- Analysis of 'know' + TOT to 'don't know' responses.

| Probability of know and +TOT relative to I don't Know |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr $\gg\|\mathrm{z}\|$ ) |
| (Intercept) | 0.87 | 0.17 | 5.04 | $<0.01$ |
| EngProficiency | $\mathbf{0 . 5 0}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 3}$ | $\mathbf{3 . 9 2}$ | $<\mathbf{0 . 0 1}$ |
| SpokenEngProficiency | $\mathbf{0 . 3 9}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 3}$ | $\mathbf{2 . 9 6}$ | $<\mathbf{0 . 0 1}$ |
| InfEngLearning | -0.15 | 0.12 | -1.25 | 0.21 |
| AoAEng | $\mathbf{0 . 2 7}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 2}$ | $\mathbf{2 . 2 3}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 3}$ |
| Cognate | 0.01 | 0.26 | 0.00 | 1.00 |
| EngProficiency:Cognate | $\mathbf{0 . 2 5}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 2}$ | $\mathbf{2 . 1 9}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 3}$ |
| SpokenEngProficiency:Cognate | 0.13 | 0.13 | 1.03 | 0.30 |
| InfEngLearning:Cognate | -0.15 | 0.11 | -1.36 | 0.17 |
| AoAEng:Cognate | -0.19 | 0.11 | -1.68 | 0.09 |



Figure 12: Individual Differences- Analysis of 'know' + TOT to 'don't know' responses

These results demonstrate significant effects of overall English proficiency and spoken English proficiency, meaning that the more proficient participants knew more words in general. Age of acquisition appears to indicate a slightly significant effect of known words, indicating that participants who learned English later knew more English words. This effect appears to be slightly stronger for cognates than for non-cognates but presents no significant interaction. A significant effect of language proficiency for non-cognates is indicated, implying that participants with higher English proficiency knew more non-cognate words than participants with lower proficiency. A graph illustration of Table 9 data can be seen in Figure 12.

## b.) Probability of TOT Occurrences

Next, to calculate the probability of TOTs relative to "yes" and TOT responses, "don't know" trials ( $32 \%$ ) and negative TOTs (when participants were in a TOT state but the target word was not the actual TOT). TOTs were then coded as 1 and "yes" responses as 0 . A logistic regression was fitted to assess the likelihood of TOTs to known words. The results are displayed in Table 10.

Table 10: Individual differences: TOTs relative to 'know' + TOT responses

| Probability of TOT relative to Know |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | Estimate | Std. Error | z value | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|z\|)$ |
| (Intercept) | -2.71 | 0.22 | -12.41 | $<2 \mathrm{e}-16$ |
| EngProficiency | $-\mathbf{0 . 4 8}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 1 7}$ | $\mathbf{- 2 . 7 5}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 1}$ |
| SpokenEngProficiency | 0.01 | 0.16 | 0.06 | 0.95 |
| InfEngLearning | -0.08 | 0.16 | -0.48 | 0.63 |
| AoAEng | 0.13 | 0.18 | 0.72 | 0.47 |
| Cognate | $-\mathbf{0 . 5 9}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 3 0}$ | $\mathbf{- 1 . 9 8}$ | $\mathbf{0 . 0 5}$ |
| EngProficiency:Cognate | -0.31 | 0.23 | -1.32 | 0.19 |
| SpokenEngProficiency:Cognate | 0.00 | 0.20 | 0.00 | 1.00 |
| InfEngLearning:Cognate | -0.02 | 0.22 | -0.07 | 0.94 |
| AoAEng:Cognate | -0.11 | 0.24 | -0.45 | 0.65 |



Figure 13: Individual differences: TOTs relative to 'know' + TOT responses

As shown in Table 10, the only significant factor that appears to predict more occurrences gathered from the given data appears to be English proficiency (inverse correlation), meaning that participants that were less proficient in English had more TOTs. Additionally, cognates were shown to have incurred a higher TOT occurrence in this analysis. Figure 13 depicts the means of these individual differences.

## Discussion

The aim of this study was to investigate whether aspects such as word frequency, cognate status and noun type may have a faciliatory effect on the tip-of-the-tongue experience in NorwegianEnglish bilinguals, as had been found previously in similar studies. The effect of factors related to participants' individual differences was an additional objective. Therefore, experiments were performed that controlled for word frequency, cognate status and noun type for both languages in a similar manner to past studies. Cognate status and noun type (proper noun and cognate) were crossed as an additional manipulation. The results from the TOT experiments were then crossed with the results of the bilingual profile questionnaire (LEAP-Q) results.

The results of the experiments of this study presented the following findings: Regarding vocabulary, (1) participants of higher English proficiency had greater knowledge of non-
cognate words, (2) participants knew more Norwegian words and frequent words. Additionally, (3a) increases in English proficiency and (3b) age of acquisition were shown to predict higher vocabulary knowledge. Regarding TOT occurrences, (4) participants had more TOTs in English than in Norwegian and (5) more TOTs were observed for low-frequency words. 6a) Participants had more TOTs for cognate words than for non-cognate words, (6b) especially for cognate proper nouns. Regarding individual differences related to TOTs, (7) English proficiency was shown to be the only factor that predicted TOTs in that participants of lower proficiency had more TOTs.

A borderline effect of noun type was indicated, meaning that proper nouns and common nouns behaved in slightly different patterns within participants' vocabularies, however with no significant differences. Analyses of TOTs showed a general effect of frequency although this effect did not appear to interact with any other factors. Although the experiments in this study checked for possible access to phonological components when participants were in TOT state (see methods section), this was not a principal interest to the main goal of this study. Results showed no significant effects of phonology, placements of sounds or syllables, meaning there were no clear patterns of partially successful retrieval, and will therefore not be discussed in further detail here. (See Tables 7 and 8.) A possible reason for the lack of significant results from this data may be that the registration of responses varied between multiple experimenters. Future studies may explore this partial access further by securing a uniform method of data registration.

While not specifically mentioned in predictions for this study, the significance indicated with regard to non-cognate words being benefitted English proficiency (1) is not unexpected and suggests that proficiency is more predictive of how many non-cognates a speaker knows. Naturally, non-cognate words in L2 are more difficult to learn as they are not in L1 or similar to L1 translation equivalents. Participants were shown to have larger vocabularies in Norwegian than in English as well as greater knowledge of high frequency words (2). Although not mentioned in predictions for this study, this result would be generally anticipated for this group of individuals with Norwegian as their first language. (See Table 3b.) Also not explicitly predicted was the effect of English proficiency (3a) found to be significant to knowledge of words. In other words, higher proficiency correctly predicted how many words participants knew. This was shown in where patterns of general and spoken English proficiency increased, as did "yes" answers as well as TOT answers. Larger vocabularies are nonetheless largely
inherent to increased proficiency in a language (Pearson, et al., 1993) and is therefore an expected result. Not expected, however, was the age of acquisition of English factor shown to correspond to greater knowledge of English (3b). This finding could potentially be explained by the possibility that learning English in school may contribute significantly to broadened English vocabulary. However, more studies with specific focus on effects of learning English in school related to vocabulary knowledge and age of acquisition would be needed in order to make legitimate hypotheses.

As predicted in support of the weaker links theory outlined previously, participants were shown to have greater TOT occurrences in their non-dominant language (4). Also predicted was the finding of higher TOT rates for low-frequency words (5), in line with the findings of similar studies (Gollan, et al., 2008; Gollan \& Brown, 2006).

The general lack of cognate effect (6a) demonstrated throughout the results section is unusual and deviates from this study's predictions based on the models and studies described earlier. Particularly surprising is the increase of TOTs for cognate words especially for proper nouns (6b), a seemingly reversed effect to the predicted increase of TOT occurrences for this crossed constraint. The patterns here are unclear and do not provide a straightforward explanation. However, when creating matching stimuli sets for this study, proper nouns proved to be problematic. As specified in the methods section, the current study employed the use of definitions to attempt inducing TOT states. Creating transparent definitions for names of cities, countries, and people that would most likely be known to participants was particularly challenging. Definitions for target words that were names of famous persons often required mention of distinguishing features to avoid confusing them for a different famous person. While a participant may have known of the target person's name (answering "yes" or TOT), their response may have resulted in "don't know" if the distinguishing feature mentioned was unfamiliar to them. For example, the following definition was given for target word (cognate, proper noun) Streep, for Meryl Streep: American actress often described as the best of her generation, most famous for roles in The Devil Wears Prada, Mamma Mia and for her role as British Prime Minister in Iron Lady. In this case, most famous movies were listed in order to separate Streep from other actresses who may also be considered "the best of her generation". While a participant may have known of Meryl Streep, they may have been answered "don't know" if they had no knowledge of the movies listed. Similarly, names of places, (particularly cities and countries) were difficult to provide definitions for without including geographical
features or specific attractions pertaining the given place which set them apart from other places of similar location. "Yes" or TOT results may thus have depended more specifically on the participants' knowledge of geography or other attractions, rather than knowledge of the name of the place. Future studies investigating effects of crossing proper nouns and cognate words in attempt to induce TOTs in bilinguals should consider using visual stimuli (e.g., photographs, maps, flags) as an alternative to word definitions. This may reduce ambiguity of target words considerably and likely produce different results from those of this study.

The finding that participants with lower English proficiency had greater TOT occurrences (7) challenges the prediction of the competition hypothesis, where higher activation levels of English words due to higher proficiency would cause greater competition and therefore more TOT occurrences. However, these results alone cannot completely rule out the competition hypothesis for this effect, given that it also predicts balanced use of L1 and L2 as potential cause for TOTs (Hermans, et al., 1998). This finding does not directly challenge nor directly support the weaker links hypothesis, in that this hypothesis focuses on language dominance and frequency of language use rather than proficiency to explain word retrieval processes for speaking (Gollan, Bonanni, \& Montoya, 2005). Since the participant group in this study was comparatively unvaried in proficiency and dominance factors (as shown in Table 3b), a socalled ceiling effect may have influenced results, increasing obscurity as to which theory the current findings may support. Future studies may aim to further pull apart these two theories by testing bilinguals with a larger range of both proficiency and dominance than the uniform group used in this study.

## Conclusion

The current study aimed to explore the effects of frequency, cognate status and noun type in tip-of-the-tongue occurrences in Norwegian-English bilinguals. Additionally, factors from the participants' bilingual profile were included, to investigate in what manner they may exert influence on the matter. This study also attempted to relate results to the varying approaches presented by the weaker links hypothesis and the competition hypothesis. As predicted and in line with similar studies, participants experienced greater TOT occurrences in their nondominant language and showed higher TOT rates for low-frequency words, in support of the weaker links hypothesis. Participants of lower proficiency produced more TOTs, showing

English proficiency to be the only factor to predict TOTs. Controversially, results showed that more TOTs were experienced for cognate words, specifically proper nouns. While the results of this study did not provide markedly novel evidence pertaining to facilitated word retrieval processes in bilinguals, challenges that were faced with when creating experiments involving cognate proper nouns, as well as testing a uniform participant group may provide valuable foundations for future studies. Generally, further research is required to continue the dissection of the underlying retrieval processes pertaining to the tip-of-the-tongue states in bilinguals.

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## APPENDICES

Appendix A: Information Letter and Participant Consent Form

## INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

## English as a second language: language processing and bilingual profile

We are looking for Native speakers of Norwegian to take part in a study investigating the relationship between bilingualism and language processing.

In order to participate in this study you need to be between 18 and 35 years of age and a Native speaker of Norwegian with no other home languages (excluding perhaps English). You should have a reasonable proficiency in English as your second language. You should have normal or corrected-to-normal vision and hearing and have no diagnosed cognitive impairments or language impairments such as dyslexia or stuttering.

This research is conducted in the Experimental Linguistics Research groups at the University of Agder, headed by Professor Linda Wheeldon (linda.r.wheeldon@uia.no), Professor Allison Wetterlin (Allison.wetterlin@uia.no).

The study is run by our Masters students Ellinor Skjerli (ellinor.skjerli@gmail.com), Karethe Nilsen (karethe.nilsen@gmail.com), Renate Gjetnes (renatg16@student.uia.no), Helene Øya (heleno15@student.uia.no), Heidi Baardsen (heidi.baardsen@gmail.com), and Yvonne Møtteberg Karlsen (yvonmk15@student.uia.no). Please contact them if you have any queries about the study.

## WHAT IS THE STUDY ABOUT?

This study is designed to investigate the use of English as a second language. We are interested in how aspects of bilingual learning and language-use relate to language processing. The study has two components:

1. A questionnaire asking questions about your language background and about how you rate your own level of proficiency in different aspects of the languages that you speak.
2. Some simple tests assessing language processing in Norwegian and English. These tests are designed to investigate word finding, sentence production and sentence comprehension.

If, after having read the information below, you agree that you are eligible, and you decide to take part in the study, you will be sent a consent form to be filled out and signed.

## VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND THE POSSIBILITY TO WITHDRAW CONSENT (OPT-OUT)

Participation in the study is voluntary. If you wish to take part, you will need to sign the declaration of consent. This will allow us to process your data. You can, at any given time and
without reason withdraw your consent. If you decide to withdraw participation in the project, you can ask that your test results and personal data be deleted, unless the data and tests have already been analysed or used in scientific publications.

So long as you can be identified in the collected data you have the right to:

- access the personal data that is being processed about you
- request that your personal data is deleted
- request that incorrect personal data about you is corrected/rectified
- receive a copy of your personal data (data portability), and
- send a complaint to the Data Protection Officer or The Norwegian Data Protection Authority regarding the processing of your personal data.

If you at a later point, wish to withdraw consent or have questions regarding the project, you can contact the principal investigator (Linda Wheeldon). Questions about the study or withdrawing consent can also be directed to the University of Agder's Data protection officer Ina Danielsen ina.danielsen@uia.no or NSD (Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS) by email personvernombudet@nsd.no or telephone: 55582117.

## WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO YOUR INFORMATION?

The study will collect and record personal information about you. However, you will never at any time be mentioned as an individual in relation to this study. The information that is recorded about you will only be used as described in the purpose of the study. Your personal data will be assigned a number code related to your name and stored on a non-networked, password protected PC. Only the laboratory directors and experimenters will have access to your data and to the key relating your data number to your name. In addition, we will record the responses you produce during the experiment, this includes key strokes and speech. These data will be also be anonymised and treated as described above.

The results derived from the pooled data will be published. In the interest of being open to the scientific community and others interested in this research we would also like, with your permission, to publish the anonymised data to an open access database. If you agree to this, please sign the consent form. The decision you make does not affect your eligibility for this study.

All information will be processed and used without your name or personal identification number, or any other information that is directly identifiable to you.

The principal investigators have the responsibility for the daily operations/running of this research project and that any information about you will be handled in a secure manner. Information about you will be anonymised or deleted a maximum of 5 years after the project end date (20.12.2021).

FINANCE In appreciation for your time and effort, you will receive a voucher for 300 NOK on completion of this study.

## Participant consent form

## English as a second language: language processing and bilingual profile

## Participant Identification Number for this study

ID\#

1) I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheetror cre adove stuay. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
2) I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason. I understand that I can withdraw my data at any time during the experiment and for the duration of one month after my completion of the study.
3) I understand that data collected during the study will be looked at by researchers from the University of Agder. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my data. Upon completion of the study, the data may be placed on an appropriate repository for data-sharing and be accessed by researchers not affiliated with the University of Agder. I understand that all my data will be stored anonymously.
4) I agree to take part in the study.

| Name of Participant (BLOCK <br> LETTERS) | Date |  | Signature |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Name of Researcher (BLOCK <br> LETTERS) | Date |  |  |

Appendix B: Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q) (Marian, Blumenfeld, \& Kaushanskaya, 2007).

(1) Please list all the languages you know in order of dominance:

| 1 Language $A$ | 2 Language $B$ | 3 Language $C$ | 4 Language $D$ | 5 Language $E$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

(2) Please list all the languages you know in order of acquisition (your native language first):

| 1 Language A | 2 Language B | 3 Language C | 4 Language D | 5 Language E |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

(3) Please list what percentage of the time you are currently and on average exposed to each language. (Your percentages should add up to 100\%):

| List language here: | Language $A$ | Language $B$ | Language $C$ | Language $D$ | Language E |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| List percentage here: |  |  |  |  |  |

(4) When choosing to read a text available in all your languages, in what percentage of cases would you choose to read it in each of your languages? Assume that the original was written in another language, which is unknown to you.
(Your percentages should add up to $100 \%$ ):

| List language here | Language $A$ | Language $B$ | Language $C$ | Language $D$ | Language $E$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| List percentage here: |  |  |  |  |  |

(5) When choosing a language to speak with a person who is equally fluent in all your languages, what percentage of time would you choose to speak each language? Please report percent of total time.
(Your percentages should add up to $100 \%$ ):

| List language here | Language $A$ | Language $B$ | Language $C$ | Language $D$ | Language E |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| List percentage here: |  |  |  |  |  |

(6) Please name the cultures with which you identify. On a scale from zero to ten, please rate the extent to which you identify with each culture. (Examples of possible cultures indude US-American, Chinese, Jewish-Orthodax, etc.):

| List cultures here | Culture A <br> (click here for scale) | Culture B <br> (click here for scale) | Culture C <br> (dick here for scale) | Culture D <br> (dick here for scale) | Culture E <br> (dick here for scale) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

(7) How many years of formal education do you have?

Please check your highest education level (or the approximate U.S. equivalent to a degree obtained in another country):
$\square$ Less than High School
$\square$ Some College
$\square$ Masters
$\square$ High School
$\square$ College
$\square$ Some Graduate
$\square \mathrm{PhD} / \mathrm{MD} / \mathrm{JD}$
$\square$ Professional Training
$\qquad$
(8) Date of immigration to the United Stales, if applicable:

If you have ever lived in another country, please provide name of country and dales of residence:
(9) Have you ever had a vision problem $\square$, hearing impairment $\square$, language disability $\square$, or learning disability $\square$ ? (Check all applicable).

If yes, please explain (including any corredions): $\qquad$

## Language: Language X

This is my (please select from scroll-down menu: First, Second, Third, elc.) language.
All questions below refer to your knowledge of Language X .
(1) Age when you....:

| began acquining <br> Language $\mathrm{X}:$ | became fluent <br> in Language $\mathrm{X}:$ | began reading <br> in Language $\mathrm{X}:$ | become fuent reading <br> in Language $\mathrm{X}:$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |

(2) Please list the number of years and months you spent in each language emvironment:

|  | Years | Months |
| :--- | :--- | :---: |
| A country where Language $X$ is spoken |  |  |
| A family where language $X$ is spoken |  |  |
| A school and/or working environment where Language $X$ is spoken |  |  |

(3) On a scale from zero to ten, please select your level of proficiency in speaking, underslanding, and reading language $X$ from the scroll-down menus:

| Speaking | (click here for scale) | Understand spoken language | (click here for scale) | Reading | (click here for scale) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

(4) On a scole from zero to ten, please select how much the following factors contributed to you leaming language $X$ :

| Inleracting with friends | (dick here for scole) | Language tapes/self instruction | (dick here for scale) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Inleracting with family | (dick here for scale) | Watching TV | (dick here for scale) |
| Reading | (dick here for scale) | Listening to the radio | (dick here for scale) |

(5) Please rate to what extent you are currently exposed to Language X in the following context:

| Inleracting with friends | (dick here for scale) | Listening to radio/music | (dick here for scale) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Inleracting with family | (dick here for scale) | Reading | (dick here for scale) |
| Walching TV | (dick here for scale) | Language-lab/self-instruction | (dick here for scale) |

(6) In your perception, how much of a foreign accent do you have in language $X$ ?
(click here for scole)
(7) Please rale how frequently others identify you as a non-native speaker based on your accent in Language X :

## Appendix C: LEAP-Q Revised Edition



## 2. LANGUAGE BACKGROUND

Participant: please answer these questions below about the different languages you speak.
Please fill in your responses in the appropriate yellow boxes, and ask the experimenter if you have any questions.
Q1 Please list all the languages you speak in order of DOMINANCE (up to 5).

| 1 |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2 |
| 3 |
| 4 |
| 5 |

Q2 Please list all the languages you speak in order of ACQUISITION (up to 5).

| 1 |  |
| ---: | :--- |
| 2 | $\square$ |
| 3 |  |
| 4 | $\square$ |
| 5 | $\square$ |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Q3 Please list what percentage of the time you are on average exposed to each language (e.g. exposure in terms of talking, listening, and reading, including TV, films and music).
(All your answers should add up to $100 \%$ )


Q4 Please list what percentage of the time you spend speaking each language.
(All your answers should add up to 100\%)


Q5 Please list what percentage of the time you typically spend reading in each language.
(All your answers should add up to 100\%)


Please make sure your answer adds up to 100\%
Q6 When choosing a language to speak, with a person who is equally fluent in all your languages, what percentage of time would you choose to speak each language? Please report percentage of total time.
(All your answers should add up to 100\%)


Q7 What cultures do you identify with (e.g., Norwegian, British, American, etc)? Please list each culture below (up to 5) and use the scale from $0-10$ to rate the degree of identification, whereby $0=$ no identification, $5=$ moderate identification, $10=$ complete identification.

| Culture | Identification |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | $\square$ |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |
|  |  |

Q8 Do you feel that you were once better in one of your languages and that you have become less fluent?


Q9 In which language do you usually do the following tasks?

| Task | Language |
| :--- | :---: |
| Simple maths (count, add) |  |
| Dream |  |
| Express anger or affection |  |
| Talk to yourself |  |

## 3. NORWEGIAN AND ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

Participant: please answer these questions below about your experience with Norwegian and English.
Please fill in your responses in the appropriate yellow boxes, and ask the experimenter if you have any questions.
Q1 Please list the number of years and months you have spent in each language environment

|  | Norwegian |  | English |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Years | Months | Years | Months |
| A country where this language is spoken |  |  |  |  |
| A family where this language is spoken |  |  |  |  |
| A school where this language is spoken ALL of the time |  |  |  |  |
| A school where this language is spoken SOME of the time |  |  |  |  |
| A workplace where this language is spoken ALL of the time |  |  |  |  |
| A workplace where this language is spoken SOME of the time |  |  |  |  |

$0=$ not a contributor, $5=$ moderate contributor and $10=$ most important contributor

|  | Norwegian | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Interacting with friends / colleagues |  |  |
| Interacting with family |  |  |
| Reading (e.g., books, magazines, online material) |  |  |
| School and education |  |  |
| Self-instruction (e.g., language learning videos or apps) |  |  |
| Watching TV / streaming |  |  |
| Listening to music/media |  |  |

Q3 Please rate to what extent you are currently (e.g. in the last month or so) exposed to each language on a scale of 0-10 whereby $0=$ never, $5=$ half of the time and $10=$ almost always.

| whereby $0=$ never, 5 = half of the time and $10=$ almost always. |
| :--- |
|  |
| Interacting with friends Norwegian English <br> Interacting with family   <br> Reading (e.g., books, magazines, online material)   <br> Self-instruction (e.g., language learning videos or apps)   <br> Watching TV / streaming   <br> Listening to music/media   |

Please rate your level of proficiency in the following aspects of each language on a scale of $0-10$ whereby: $0=$ none; $1=$ very low; 2 = low; 3 = fair; $4=$ slightly less than adequate; $5=$ adequate; $6=$ slightly more than adequate; $7=$ good; $8=$ very good; $9=$ excellent; $10=$ perfect

|  | Norwegian | English |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Proaking (general fluency) |  |  |
| Listening (understanding spoken language) |  |  |
| Reading |  |  |
| Writing |  |  |
| Grammar |  |  |
| Vocabulary |  |  |
| Spelling |  |  |

Q5 Please list the AGE (in years) you were when the following occurred for each language

| Started hearing this language on a regular basis | Norwegian | English |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Became fluent in speaking this language |  |  |
| Started learning to read in this language |  |  |
| Became fluent in reading this language |  |  |

Please rate your level of proficiency in switching between your languages when you need to, on a scale of 0-10 whereby: $0=$ none; $1=$ very low; 2 = low; $3=$ fair; $4=$ slightly less than adequate; $5=$ adequate; $6=$ slightly more than adequate; $7=$ good; $8=$ very good; $9=$ excellent; $10=$ perfect.


Q7 When you are speaking do you ever find yourself accidentally mixing words or sentences from Norwegian and English?
(a) If yes, how often does English accidentally intrude in your Norwegian on a scale of $0-10$ (whereby $0=$ never, 5 = half of the time, $10=$ all of the time)?
(b) And how often does Norwegian accidentally intrude into your English on a scale of $0-10$ (whereby $0=$ never, $5=$ half of the time, $10=$ all of the time)?

Q8 When you are speaking with a person who also knows both Norwegian and English do you ever find yourself intentionally mixing words or sentences from Norwegian and English?
intentionally mixin
(a) If yes, how often do you intentionally use English words when speaking Norwegian on a scale of 0-10 (whereby $0=$ never, $5=$ half of the time, $10=$ all of the time)?
$\square$
(b) And how often do you intentionally use Norwegian words when speaking English on a scale of 0-10 (whereby $0=$ never, $5=$ half of the time, $10=$ all of the time)?
$\square$

Appendix D: Full TOT Stimuli Sets




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Appendix E: Full Data Set (LEAP-Q)




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| 0 | 9 | $\varepsilon$ | 0 |
| 8 | 乙 | $\tau$ | 0 |
| $\downarrow$ | 0 | 0 | 0 |
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| 01 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | s | － | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| $\tau$ | $\varepsilon$ | s | 0 |
| 8 | 乙 | b | Z |
| 1 | $\varepsilon$ | $\tau$ | 0 |
| 01 | $\varepsilon$ | $\tau$ | 0 |
| ， | 0 | $\tau$ | 0 |
| $\tau$ | $L$ | $L$ | 0 |
| $L$ | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| s | 0 | $\downarrow$ | 0 |
| $\tau$ | s | s | 0 |
| $\tau$ | $\varepsilon$ | $t$ | $\varepsilon$ |
| s | 0 | 0 | s |
| $\varepsilon$ | $\varepsilon$ | ＊ | 0 |
| $\varepsilon$ | s | s | 0 |
| $\tau$ | s | b | 0 |
| $\varepsilon$ | $\tau$ | $\downarrow$ | 0 |
| $\tau$ | 乙 | $\varepsilon$ | 0 |
| 0 | ＊ | $\varepsilon$ | 0 |
| s | s | s | 01 |
| $\tau$ | $\tau$ | － | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| s | 乙 | 1 | 0 |
| 01 | $\varepsilon$ | $\varepsilon$ | 0 |
| s | $0 \cdot$ | 01 | $\varepsilon$ |
| 1 | 9 | ¢ | 0 |
| 01 | 8 | 01 | 0 |
| $\varepsilon$ | $\varepsilon$ | s | 0 |
| 0 | $\varepsilon$ | 9 | 0 |
| 0 | s | 8 | 0 |
| ¢ | 1 | $\tau$ | 0 |
| ¢ | s | s | 01 |
|  | $\varepsilon$ | 9 | 0 |
| 8 | s | t | 0 |
| 8 | $\downarrow$ | 0 | 0 |
| z | ＊ | ＊ | s |
| s | $\varepsilon$ | 0 | 0 |
| ¢ | 1 | z | 0 |
|  | s | s | 0 |
| ¢ | $L$ | 8 | 0 |
| $L$ | ＊ | ＊ | $\dagger$ |
| 0 | $\tau$ | 0 | 0 |
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