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JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV
PUNJAB STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY, PATIALA

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SKILL ENHANCEMENT EMPLOYABILITY WISDOM ACCESSIBILITY



M.A. English
Semester – II
Course Code: MAEM23204T
Course Name: Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics and Communication Skills

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JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV
PUNJAB STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY PATIALA
(Established by Act No.19 of 2019 of Legislature of the State of Punjab)

Course Code: MAEM23204T
Course: BASICS OF LINGUISTICS, PHONETICS AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS

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Course Outcomes:

Enhanced understanding about language

Knowledge about language variation

Processes of language acquisition

Importance of pragmatics and Discourse Analysis

Production of Speech Sounds and Pronunciation

JAGAT GURU NANAK DEV
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PREFACE

Jagat Guru Nanak Dev Punjab State Open University, Patiala, established in December 2019 by Act 19 of the Legislature of State of Punjab, is the first and only Open University of the State, entrusted with the responsibility of making higher education accessible to all especially to those sections of society who do not have the means, time or opportunity to pursue regular education.

In keeping with the nature of an Open University, this University provides a flexible education system to suit every need. The time given to complete a programme is double the duration of a regular mode programme. Well-designed study material has been prepared in consultation with experts in their respective fields.

The University offers programmes which have been designed to provide relevant, skill-based and employability-enhancing education. The study material provided in this booklet is self-instructional, with self-assessment exercises, and recommendations for further readings. The syllabus has been divided in sections, and provided as units for simplification.

The Learner Support Centres/Study Centres are located in the Government and Government aided colleges of Punjab, to enable students to make use of reading facilities, and for curriculum-based counselling and practicals. We, at the University, welcome you to be a part of this institution of knowledge.

Prof. G. S. Batra,
Dean Academic Affairs

M.A. English
Semester – II
MAEM23204T: Basics Of Linguistics, Phonetics And Communication Skills

MAX. MARKS: 100
EXTERNAL: 70
INTERNAL: 30
PASS: 40%

Objective: **Credits: 5**

The primary objective of this course is to examine the features of language units at phonological, morphological and syntactic levels. Besides, the knowledge and understanding of how a language works and how we communicate, and the skills developed along the way, it will give the learners a solid foundation for a wide range of careers.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE PAPER SETTER/EXAMINER:

1. The syllabus prescribed should be strictly adhered to.
2. The question paper will consist of five sections: A, B, C, D, and E. Sections A, B, C, and D will have two questions from the respective sections of the syllabus and will carry 15marks each. The candidates will attempt one question from each section.
3. Section E will have four short answer questions covering the entire syllabus. Each question will carry 5 marks. Candidates will attempt any two questions from this section.
4. The examiner shall give a clear instruction to the candidates to attempt questions only at one place and only once. Second or subsequent attempts, unless the earlier ones have been crossed out, shall not be evaluated.
5. The duration of each paper will be three hours.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CANDIDATES:

Candidates are required to attempt any one question each from the sections A, B, C, and D of the question paper and any two short questions from Section E. They have to attempt questions only at one place and only once. Second or subsequent attempts, unless the earlier ones have been crossed out, shall not be evaluated.

Section - A

General Linguistics

What is Language?

Characteristics of

Language

Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics

Language Variation

Morphology and Word Formation

Section - B

Applied Linguistics

Introduction to Applied Linguistics

Multilingualism and Language Learning (First Language Acquisition, Second Language Acquisition)

Disabilities

Behaviourism and Language Teaching

Semantics, Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis

Section - C

Phonetics

Introduction to Phonetics
Speech Mechanism and Organs of Speech
Classification of Speech Sounds
The IPA Symbols
Transcription

Section - D

Communication Skills

Understanding Communication
Principles of Communication
Non-verbal Communication
Listening and Speaking
Reading

Suggested Readings:

1. Jones, Gimson and Ramsaran, English Pronouncing Dictionary, 14th ed. UBS.
2. Sethi, J. and P.V. Dhamija A Course in Phonetics and Spoken English, ND: Prentice Hall of India, 1990.
3. Sethi, J. and D.V. Jindal, a Handbook of Pronunciation of English Words, ND: Prentice Hallof India, 1993.
4. Bansal, R.K. and J.B. Harrison, Spoken English for India, ND: Orient Longman, 1972.
5. O'Connor, J.D. (1980). Better English Pronunciation (2nd ed.), Cambridge: CUP
6. Roach, Peter, English Phonetics and Phonology, Cambridge: CUP, 2000.
7. Jindal, D.V. and Pushpinder Syal, An Introduction to Linguistics, Prentice Hall

M.A. (English)

MAEM23204T

Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics and Communication Skills

Section A
General Linguistics

Unit 1: What is Language? Characteristics of Language

Structure

1.0 Objectives
1.1 Introduction
1.2 Definitions of Language
1.3 Origin of Language
1.4 Characteristics of Language
1.5 Human and Animal Communication
1.6 Let us Sum up
1.7 Questions
1.8 Suggested Readings

1.0 Objectives

This unit will enable you to understand the following:

- Nature of language
- Analyze definitions of language by linguists
- Theories of origin of language
- Comprehend characteristics of language
- Appreciate uniqueness of human language

1.1 Introduction

Human beings have different requirements at the individual, social, emotional, economic and cultural levels. Language is the medium for expression of human requirements. Language enables us to reflect on the essence of existence and respond to our environment. It is used to convey ideas and reflect on complex social and cultural system. Language not only serves several systems of human relationships but also gets moulded by several operations in the system.

An infant begins communication by expressing biological needs. There is a remarkable growth in usage of language as child matures into an adult. S/he learns to respond to the environment in varying words and sentences. “Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas,

emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols," observes Sapir. Language is species-specific and species-uniform. According to Sapir, language is possessed uniformly by human beings. Though the animals have communication system, it is not much developed.

In the initial stages of human civilization, signs with limited scope were used for communication. The human larynx or voice box and the longer cavity called pharynx along with muscular tongue and upright teeth have enabled human beings to produce numerous sounds. The evolved brain has further enhanced knowledge of human beings about the usage of special features like phonology, morphology and semantics.

1.2 Definitions of Language

Language is related to the ability of human beings to map sounds and meanings. Language cannot be defined in absolute terms. The characteristics of language enhance understanding about language. Leonard Bloomfield defines language as "the totality of utterances made in a speech community." Language, he observes, constitutes an array of habits for responding to situations with conventional speech sounds. It also includes responses to sounds in the form of action.

William Dwight Whitney considers language "the body of uttered an audible signs" by which thoughts are principally expressed in human society.

Edward Sapir defines language as "a purely non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols."

"A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates." Bloch and Trager, 1942

"Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which the members of a society interact in term of their local culture." G Trager, 1949

Martin Joos holds that languages can differ abitrarily. Every language, he believes, should be studied without preconceptions.

"Language is a set of (finite or infinite) sentences, each finite in length and constructed of a finite set of elements." Noam Chomsky, 1957

"Language is the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols." Hall, 1969

"Audible, articulate meaningful sounds are produced by the action of the vocal organs."Webster's

Dictionary, 1971

“Language is a system of conventional spoken or written symbols by means of which human beings as members of social group and participants in its culture communicate.” Encyclopaedia Britannica

“Languages are the principal systems of communication used by particular groups of human beings within the particular society (linguistic community) of which they are members.” Lyons, 1970

“Languageis a process of free creation; its laws and principles are fixed, but the manner in which the principles of generation are used is free and infinitely varied. Even the interpretation and use of words involves a process of free creation.” Noam Chomsky, 1983

“Language is a symbol system based on pure or arbitrary conventions infinitely extendable and modifiable according to the changing needs and conditions of the speakers.” Robins, 1985

Language is a system in which sounds join to form syllables and words. Words combine to form sentences. The formation of words is arbitrary and conventions make them part of language system.

1.3 Origin of Language

Did you ever think about the connection between activities of chewing and speaking? Mac Neilage (1998) observes “Chewing, licking and sucking are extremely widespread mammalian activities, which, in terms of casual observation, have obvious similarities with speech.” All these activities involve mouth, tongue and lips in some controlled manner. This connection, therefore, is not improbable. There are many speculations about the origin of language. Based on the merits of some speculations, a few theories about origin of language are as follows:

The Divine Source

In most of the religions, there appears to be a divine source providing language to human beings. Language, according to Hindu tradition, came from wife of Brahma (creator of the universe), Saraswati. God, in Biblical tradition, created Adam and “whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof.” Attempts to rediscover original divine language yielded conflicting results. The basic belief was that human infants who grew without hearing any language spontaneously used the original God-given language.

More than 2500 years ago, an Egyptian pharaoh named Psammetichus, tried an experiment with two newborn babies who were left in the company of goats and a mute shepherd. It was observed that children did not utter any Egyptian word but *bekos* (meaning bread), Phrygian word. Several commentators pointed out that they must have heard what the goats were saying. King James the fourth

of Scotland carried out a similar experiment. It was reported that the isolated children, with no human contact, started speaking Hebrew. These experiments do not confirm to divine source theory.

The Natural Sound Source

According to another belief, language is based on natural sounds. It is assumed that primitive words could have been imitations of the natural sounds which early human beings heard around them. Whenever the early man saw an object flying with a Kaka or cuckoo sound, he tried imitating the sound to refer to things associated with the sound. Every modern language has a few words with pronunciations that echo naturally occurring sounds. In addition to cuckoo, we have words like splash, bang, boom, rattle, buzz, his screech in the English language. We also have the forms such as Bow Wow. This kind of opinion about the origin of language is known as the Bow-Wow theory. Many words in the language are onomatopoeic, echoing natural sounds. There are soundless as well as abstract things in the world which have to be referred to in a language.

Natural cries of emotion such as pain, anger and joy are also original sounds. Presumably, Ouch is associated with pain. Interjections, such as a wow or yuck, are produced with sudden intakes of breath. These are opposite to the ordinary talk. Spoken language of human beings is produced on exhaled breath. Emotional reactions are sounds which are not otherwise used in speech production. These noises or words cannot be regarded as source sounds for language.

Another opinion about the origin of language is known as “yo- he-ho” theory. This theory believes that sounds emanate from physical effort in coordinated movements. The grunts, groans and curses early humans might have developed when they were lifting and carrying large logs of trees or lifeless mammoths developed new sounds. According to this theory, human sounds developed in a social context. This is a significant idea that may be related to the users of sounds produced by human beings. This theory also does not ascertain origins of sounds because apes/primates also have grunts and social calls. Primates do not have developed capacity to speak.

The Physical Adaptation Source

Human beings have distinct physical features that support speech production. Besides the physical changes that took place, the vocal tract of Neanderthal also got reconstructed. The partial adaptations of the system for speaking are a part of the evolutionary development of human beings. They are streamlined versions of primates. The upright teeth of human beings are helpful in making sounds such as for *v*. Human lips are flexible to make sounds like p or b. The human mouth is smaller in comparison to other primates. It can be opened and closed quickly. The mouth contains a small thick muscular tongue which shapes a wide variety of sounds in the oral cavity. The human larynx or voice

box is differently placed. Human voice box is different from the larynx of other primates such as monkeys. The upright posture, the dropped larynx and the longer pharynx above the vocal cords which acts as a resonator increases the range and clarity of the sounds produced.

The Human Brain

Human brain has two hemispheres. It controls motor movements in things like speaking and object manipulation. The left hemisphere of brain is responsible for these movements. There seems to be an evolutionary connection between the language using and tool using abilities of human beings as both these involved in the development of speaking brain. Every language has signs that require organisations and combination of sounds or signs in a specific arrangement. We have developed part of a brain that specialises in creating sounds. Human beings may have first developed the ability to name by producing a specific and consistent noise for an object. Addition of another specific noise Anna combination with the first built a complex message. Humans, over the years, have honed this message building capacity.

The Genetic Source

Human beings, as per an investigation, possess language gene. This innateness hypothesis points to the fact that there is an automatic set of development and complexity in language as a child grows. Physical adaptations of species over the time are also a source of the language. Deaf children become fluent sign language users in given circumstances. This indicates that human off springs are born with the special capacity for language.

1.4 Characteristics of Language

Means of Communication

Human beings communicate ideas, emotions, believes and feelings by the means of language. Gestures, nods, winks, horns, shorthand, mathematical symbols, Morse code, sirens, mimes, dancing, sketches and maps are a few ways to communicate but these are limited in one way or the other. All systems of communication depend on language. Language is an important form of communication between humans as it is flexible, comprehensive, perfect and extensive. Language is common to a specific civilization and culture. Human thoughts and philosophy are conveyed from one generation to the other with the medium of language. Language, being ubiquitous, is present in every activity. Just as it is important for human beings to breathe, it is also necessary for them to talk. Human beings are also called ‘talking animals’ (*Homo loquens*). Human beings are capable of sending infinite number of messages to their speech community. Language, therefore, is a store of knowledge that gets transferred

to the next generation. It also yokes the present, past and the future together.

Arbitrariness

The inherent relation between words of a language and their meanings (all the ideas communicated by these words) cannot be determined. It is only in the case of code language that a picture of an object may represent the object. Language is arbitrary as there is no reason why an adult female is called a woman in English, *istree* (Hindi), or *Zen* (Persian), *femine* (French) or *tivvi* (Punjabi). The choice of words is arbitrary. The selection of words is comparable to the christening of a newborn baby. Why a child is named Lila or Ramesh is just an arbitrary manner. This name remains associated with the child for his entire life. Hence, it becomes an important convention. Similarly, language is possesses the same quality. The choice of words selected for a particular object or idea is purely arbitrary. Once a word is selected as particular referent, it continues to be used in the same way. The arbitrary nature of language allows some changes but these changes do not normally take place frequently. Words in the language get hardly changed because the whole society has to accept these. While the arbitrary nature of language permits change, the conventionality gives stability to language.

Though there are a few onomatopoeic words that imitate sounds, it does not rule out the fact that words in a language are arbitrary. The relationship between words and their reference is entirely arbitrary.

System of systems

It is important for us to understand that language is not chaotic combination of sounds. Language is neither amorphous nor disorganised. Just as several bricks are used in an organised manner to construct a building, sounds and graphic symbols are arranged in a systematic order of meaningful units called words. Words, similarly, are arranged in the particular system to frame meaningful sentences. These systems operate at the level of phonology and syntax. The sounds of a language appear in some fixed combinations at the phonological level. For example no word starts with *zl,lr* or *bz* combination. Though there are several English words which have initial consonant cluster with three consonants example spring slash string, there are no clusters with four consonants in English. There is no word that begins with a /N/ sound or ends in an/h/sound. Words combine into sentences in accordance with the grammatical or structural rules and conventions of language. The sentence, “the hunter shot the tiger with a gun” is acceptable but “the hunter tiger a shotgun with the” is unacceptable word order. The latter sentence is unacceptable according to the conventions of language.

Language is called a system of systems because it is functions on two levels. This characteristic of language is also known as duality. The duality of language makes it a complex phenomena. Every

human child has to learn the conventions of language to converse and understand utterances of members in social group.

Primarily vocal

Language originates from vocal sounds produced by physiological articulatory mechanism in the human body. There were only vocal sounds in language in the beginning. Writing emerged later. Writing attempts to represent the vocal sounds. Writing is also a graphic representation of sounds of language. There are a number of languages which still exist in the spoken form only and have no written form. An infant learns to speak first and writing comes later. It is also quite noticeable that a human being speaks more than he writes during his lifetime. The quantum of speech hence is much larger than the quantum of written material. It is because of these reasons that speech is considered to be primary and writing is secondary.

Form of Social Behaviour

By now we know that language is learnt. An infant learns to speak the language of the community or group. Or Japanese infant, if placed in an Indian family, will easily learn to speak the Indian language. He or she learns the language of the social set up in which he or she grows. Language does become a form of social behaviour.

Symbol System

We all know that symbol denotes a concrete object or event. It stands for something relatively abstract. Many times a speaker or writer communicates with others with the help of messages in the form of symbols (in speech or writing). Any receiver of the message sharing a common code with the sender of the message decodes this message clearly. The sent message in the form of symbol is interpreted as a certain meaning. Though different languages use different symbols, language is definitely a symbol system. The cross (+), for example, is a symbol signifying great sacrifice of Jesus Christ, his suffering and death on the cross. It is also a symbol of Christian. Similarly, many words stand for objects. The symbol /teibl/ stands for a wooden board with four legs.

Productivity

The grammar and syntax of the language enables human beings to create language. Men can always produce new sentences, compose new poems or produce many kinds of literature. An infinite

number of sentences can be produced with the help of finite words and the framework of grammar off the language. This property or characteristic of language is known as productivity.

Interchangeability

For a proper communication of ideas, it is necessary to that a speaker becomes listener and vice versa. This does not impair the functioning of language. This property of language with the help of which turn taking takes place and speaker becomes a listener or vice versa is referred to as interchangeability or reciprocity.

1.5 Human and Animal Communication

Language is primarily human, species-specific and species-uniform. All human beings, except a few deaf or dumb, uniformly possess language. Human communication is quite different from animal communication. We know that language can communicate infinite set of messages but animal communication is limited.

Animals can convey to their fellow animals if they are hungry or scared. With the use of its dance, a bee can convey the distance or direction of the source of nectar. It cannot convey the quality of the honey that is lying in this direction. A bee cannot tell another bee whether anything regarding the source of honey is 10 metres to the left or 20 metres to the right.

Human language uses distinguishable discrete and identifiable symbols but animal communication system is non-discreet. Human communication system is open. Animal communication system is closed and exists in the form of symbols. Animal communication systems permit no change, modification or addition. A cock's crow or a bee's dance is the same today as it was 2000 years ago. In the case of language new words like Sputnik, laser, software, artificial intelligence and robotics have been added making language modifiable and extendable.

Human language is structurally complex having 44 sounds which can form thousands of words. These words can be arranged in two different sentences. Every sentence has its own internal structure. On the contrary there is no structural complexity in bleating of a lamb or the cry of a monkey.

Every human child has to learn language from his elders or peers in the society. Human language is non-instinctive but the process of learning plays an important role in the acquisition of language. Bees, on the other hand, acquire the skill in dancing as human beings acquire the skill to walk. Bees do not learn any geometry: their knowledge is inbuilt and inherited. It is not so in the case of human beings who have to possess an ability to learn a language.

Animal communication is limited or related to the immediate time and place. It does not have any information about the past or the future. Animals have no pattern of multi-dimensional communication. Any pet can understand the message as related to the present but it cannot communicate what happened last evening or would take place in the next few minutes. Human languages are capable of producing messages related to present, past or future common near or distant places in a multidimensional setting. This characteristic of languages is known as displacement. Displacement allows the language users to talk about things and events which are not present in the immediate environment. Animal communication totally lacks this property. A honey bee cannot tell another bee the directions or the quality of the nectar present nearby. Language user in the human world can talk about nonexistent or imaginary things like Superman, test tube babies, cyborgs, fairies, angels, aliens and Santa Claus. This property of language allows human beings to create literature fiction, fantasy or the stream of consciousness stories.

Uses of studying language

An outline of the various characteristics of language and theories of language reveal that the entire progress of humanity depends on language. Language separates humans from animals. Language is a medium of literature, science, technology, computers, cultural exchanges between social groups. It is ubiquitous, present everywhere in all human activities, thoughts, prayers, dreams, meditations and relations. All knowledge is transferred and stored in the form of language.

1.6 Let us Sum up

Language is a medium of communication. It cannot be understood in absolute terms. Just as we cannot define life, we cannot define language. Several definitions and characteristics of language enable us to understand the meaning and function of language. Language is an inseparable part of human society. From Stone Age to the 21st century, humanities and technology express their developments in the form of language. Human language is a form of social behaviour and a symbol system which is discrete, modifiable and extendable. It is structurally more complex than the animal communication system. Language is primarily vocal, arbitrary and a system of systems.

1.7 Questions

Q1. What is language?

Q2. Explain productivity of language?

Q3. Speech is primary and writing is secondary. Why?

Q4. Language is arbitrary. Discuss

Q5. How is human language different from animal communication?

1.8 Suggested Readings

Syal, Pushpinder and D.V. Jindal. *An Introduction to Linguistics: Language, Grammar and Semantics.* New Delhi: PHI Learning, 2012.

Yule, George. *The Study of Language.* Cambridge University Press, 2011.

M.A. (English)

MAEM23204T

Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics and Communication Skills

Section A
General Linguistics

Unit II: Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics

Structure

2.0 Objectives
2.1 Introduction to Linguistics
2.2 Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics
    2.2.1 Langue/Parole and Competence/Performance
    2.2.2 Linguistic Sign and Symbol
    2.2.3 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic
    2.2.4 Substance and Form
    2.2.5 Diachronic and Synchronic Approaches
2.3 Language Variation
    2.3.1 Diachronic Variations
    2.3.2. Synchronic Variations
2.4 Let us Sum up
2.5 Questions
2.6 Suggested Readings

2.0 Objectives

This unit will build your understanding about the following:

- Linguistics
- Phenomena of language
- Approaches to language
- Variation of language in society

2.1 Introduction to Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of language. It does not study any specific language but language in general. Linguists study language with the help of examples from particular languages. Their concern is to study ways in which language is organised to fulfill requirements of communication. It can be said linguistics is learning about language rather than learning a language. Just as a person who wants to learn about working of a cycle is different from the one who wants to learn cycling, linguistics investigates the mechanism of language. In order to be an efficient cyclist, one needs to learn about the mechanism of the cycle also. The working of language in human life and the mechanisms of language become important for understanding because these enable us to use the language properly.

Linguistics is an empirical and objective explanation of language. Just as the scientists or biologists examine objects under a microscope, the linguist studies the components of language. Linguists observe the occurrence of speech sounds or the way in which words begin or end. Like all other phenomena language is objective as it is observable with the senses. Language can be heard with the ear and vocal organs can be seen in movement when one reads words on a page. Linguist, like chemists and biologists, classify sounds and words on basis of similarity and difference.

Linguistics is a distinct discipline that studies the language system with depth and exhaustiveness. Descriptive linguistics emphasizes on the fundamental aspects of language. According to Robins, it is concerned with the description and analysis of the ways in which a language operates and is used by a given set of speakers at a given time. Descriptive linguistics is based on the structural approach to language. It describes language systematically at all levels, phonology, grammar and semantics. Historical linguistics studies development of language in a period and causes of such changes. It describes two or more stages in the development of language. Saussure, a linguist, distinguishes stage of development of language into synchronic and diachronic changes. Lyons observes that synchronic description is non-historical and diachronic description traces historical development of language. Comparative linguistics compares historical relationship between languages. As modern languages have developed from proto-language or a parent language, comparative and historical approach of studying language discovers relationship. Though it is difficult to reconstruct proto-language, linguists compare sound similarities and occurrence of sound.

Language possesses a hierarchical structure. Each unit has small distinguishable components that combine together to form larger units of sound. The smallest distinguishable unit is called phoneme. Phonemes combine to form morphemes. Morphemes combine to form larger words. Words combine into sentences. Several sentences connect to constitute a unified piece of speech or writing known as discourse. The levels of analysis of language are: Phonetics and Phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and discourse. Phonetics studies sounds, human speech mechanism and articulation of sounds. Phonology deals with the combination of sounds into syllables and larger units.

Morphology is a combination of sounds into minimal distinctive units of meaning called morphemes. For example a morpheme 'bat' is made up of three sounds: /b/ /ae/ and /t/. It is not possible to split the morphemes as the meaning gets remove. Morphology studies rules of formation of word, as suffixes or prefixes. It also studies the changes in words at the structural level. Such changes signify a change in tense. For the example the morphemes 'take' changes to 'took' and 'taken'.

On one hand morphology is linked to phonology and on the other hand it is connected to

semantics. Syntax is that level of language that studies phrases, clauses and sentences. It attempts to describe to function and role of an elements. For example:

(a) The **girl** likes ice cream.

(b) The old woman loved the **girl**.

In sentence (a) girl functions as a subject.

In sentence (b) it functions as an Object.

Sentences have to be grammatical and meaningful.

'Colourless green ideas sleep furiously' is a grammatical correct sentence but has no meaning.

Semantics is that level of language which deals with meaning. It analyses structure of meaning in a language. It shows inter-relationship between similar and different words. It is generally noticed that defining an object is simple but understanding the abstract meaning is difficult. Pragmatics is the extension of the study of meaning. It deals with contextual in particular situations. Discourse studies inter-sentential links. Cohesion and coherent are better understood with the help of discourse analysis.

Psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics and literary stylistics are different branches linguistics.

2.2 Fundamental Concepts in Linguistics

Some fundamental concepts in linguistics have been expounded by linguists in twentieth century. They try to understand language in a more systematic manner with the help of distinctions or dichotomies.

2.2.1 Langue/Parole and Competence/Performance

Two aspects of language studied by Saussure are Langue and Parole. Langue refers to rules and conventions of language which enable combination of sound, formation of words and sentence, pronunciation and meaning. Conventions are the product of social agreement. There is a similarity of sounds, words and meaning among native speaker of language.

Saussure observes:

> If we embrace the sum of word-images stored in the mind of all individuals we could identify the social bond that constitutes language. It is a storehouse filled by the members of a given community through their active use, a grammatical system that has a potential existence in

each brain, or more specifically, in the brains of a group of individuals.

Langue is social, set of conventions common to speakers of a language. Langue is abstract. Particular conventions in the minds of speakers of societies create the language.

Parole refers to sounds produced by individual speakers or writer. It is the physical manifestation of the abstract langue. Individual performance is equivalent to parole. Parole is concrete and makes use of physiological mechanism such as speech organs while uttering words and sentences. Langue is the legislative side of language or the law of language. Just as law maintains order, langue retains the social order and homogeneity of the language. It is relatively fixed and does not change with each individual. Parole is the executive aspect of language. It uses the law or langue for individual ends. It executes langue through individual acts of speaking and writing.

According to Saussure, langue is well-defined and can be studied. Parole is heterogeneous, unpredictable mass of speech acts that cannot be studied. Collective approval and psychological associations of signs and images seated in brain constitute langue. Parole is constituted by individual acts of speaking vary and cannot be accurately represented.

American Linguist Noam Chomsky made a similar distinction by using the terms competence and performance. A native speaker's knowledge about his language and mastery of the system of rules is referred to as competence. On the contrary, performance is the production of actual sentences in use in real life situation. Linguistic competence is speaker's knowledge of structure of language. It is a set of principles used by speaker for performance. It is a kind of code that is decoded in an individual performance. The internal grammar and ability to understand infinite number of utterances is a speaker's competence. Competence is free from interference of lapses of attention and slips of memory. Performance reflects many such lapses. Competence is ideal and gives coherent picture of language. It is difficult to get a coherent record of performance.

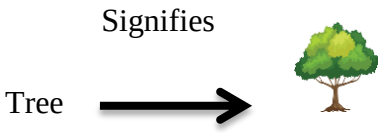
Saussure (1916) observe: "Speech has both an individual and a social side, and we cannot conceive of one without the other." Therefore, langue and parole enable a systematic understanding of the language.

2.2.2 Linguistic Sign and Symbol

Sign is a physical marker which carries information. It gives direct, brief and precise information. It contains more information. It is opposed to symbol which is merely and indignation. For example: the gesture of waving one's hand is a sign, but can be interpreted variously as symbolic of farewell or dismissal. Entire culture consists of sign that have special significance. The study of operation of signs

in culture and society is called semiotics.

"The linguistic sign consists of two parts. The signifier and the signified or the word which signifies and the object that is signified as



But the word 'tree' does not signify the actual object that is, the tree. If it did, the word for this object in all languages would have been the same, i.e. 'tree'. But we know that this object is called by different names in different languages. This means that the word 'tree' does not represent the actual object in real life. It represents the concept or the image or the object that we have in our minds. We see an object in the real world and form a concept of it in our minds. We invent a word consisting of some sound-images which we then use to represent the concept that exists in our minds. There is no logical reason why we choose a certain combination of sounds to represent the concept. So we say that the relationship between the sounds (& words) and the concept they signify is an arbitrary one.

Let us therefore modify the earlier diagram regarding sign in the following manner:



Signs exist in relation to each other and enter into complex relationship to constitute system of language. A symbol is a sign that signifies several concepts on the basis of primary relationship between signifier and signified.

2.2.3 Syntagmatic and Paradigmatic

Language is structured. It is a system of systems. Sounds are interrelated to form phonological system. Words connect to form morphological system. Word classes combine to form syntactic system. Robins compares structure of language to an orchestra. Specific roles of orchestra players relate the members in and orchestra as a whole and also as smaller group within the orchestra. (e.g. group of violinists, group of bass players). Without changing the Quality of orchestra, each member performs his function by virtue of his place in relation to other players. Every member is a part of the whole and constitutes system. Every element in language combines to build up a structure. Several sounds combine in particular order according to certain rule. The relationship between these similar elements and belong

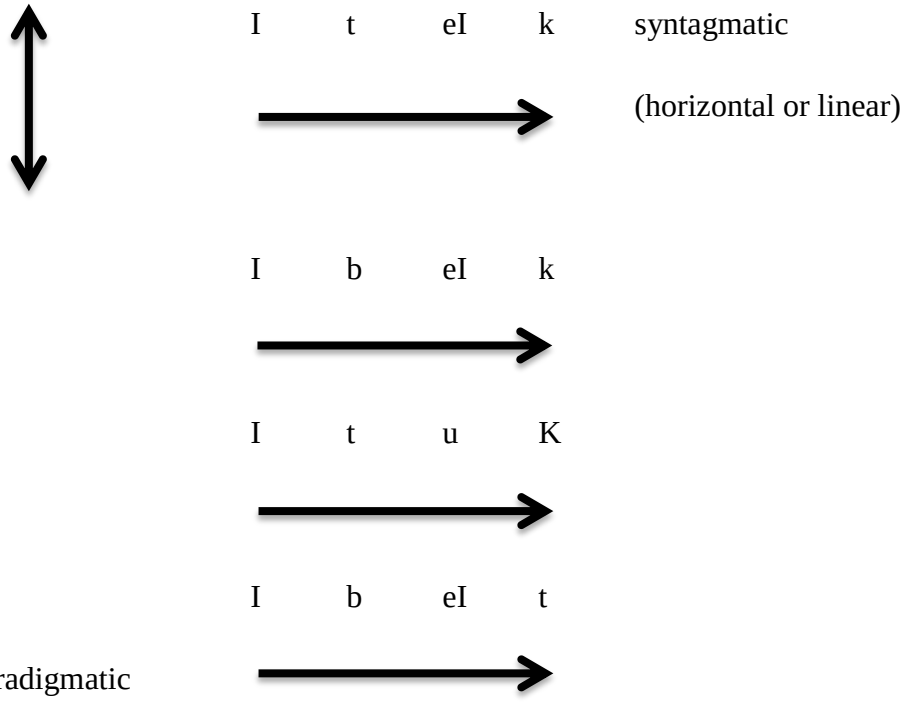
to the same class in known as paradigmatic relationship. In addition to the similarity and class of the elements, a particular sequence is followed. Three elements that follow one another in a particular sequence are related in a syntagmatic relationship. This is a linear order by which a word or sentence is built up.

Paradigmatic relationship = between elements in a class or system,

Only one can operate at a time.

Syntagmatic relationship = between elements in a linear sequence, structural

Or to illustrate with an example:



In the paradigmatic relationship, /t/ can be replaced by /b/, /eI/ can be replaced by /u/, /k/ can be replaced by /t/. Each can be replaced by another element from within the same system and class. A consonant cannot be put in place of the vowel or vice versa. Rules of selection and combination operate on basis of Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic relationships. These relationships are intersecting threads that build up the fabric of language. We can construct a large number of combinations with a limited number of elements.

The	boy	went	to school
A	boy	went	to school

The	boy	went	home
The	boy	ran	home
The	girl	went	to school
A	girl	ran	home

Selection (paradigmatic) and combination (syntagmatic) processes enable us to construct different sentences.

2.2.4 Substance and Form

The sounds and symbols that are used for speaking and writing are known as substance of the language. They have no meaning in isolation. They acquire meaning in a particular order. Cluster of sound is noise and has no meaning. When sounds get together to produce meaning, they are referred to as form. Substance and form impart quality to language.

2.2.5 Diachronic and Synchronic Approaches

'Chronos' stands for 'time. Diachronic and synchronic approaches study language. Language is an accumulation of linguistic activities of a language community in a specific period. The diachronic approach traces the historical development of language and records changes that have taken place at successive points in time. The synchronic approaches see language as a whole at one particular time.

2.3 Language Variation

Language manifests human behavior. It cannot remain fixed for all times. As language cannot be static, change takes place. Many a times these changes go unnoticed and gain prominence over paired of time. Change in language is a slow process. These changes in language are also linked to major political and social events. Wars, invasions and upheavals bring drastic changes in the life style and language of communities. Language remains in a state of continuous transition because of cultural transmission from one generation to another. Every generation learns language of the previous generation and finds new way of using the language. Variations in language are studied along two dimensions: Diachronic (or historical) and synchronic (at a particular period of time). There is a difference in the English used by Chaucer, by Milton and by T.S. Eliot. There is a remarkable difference between old English (Anglo-Saxon), Middle English and Modern English. These three varieties illustrate the changes in English during the course of history. Such changes are considered to be diachronic variations. Synchronic variations in language are changes in a given period of time.

2.3.1 Diachronic Variations

(a) Spelling: Several conventions result in variety of English spelling. Example, Mouse is native spelling, Mice is a French spelling. This has been made possible by the fact that in old French (s) became (c).Under French influence, old English spellings change.

Example: myhte (might,) wys (wise)

Dropping of the final *e* in many words, spellings in Modern English changed.

(b) Silent Letters in Old English (OE).

Old English	Modern English
Cnight	Knight (K Silent)

(c)Syntax: Old English has undisciplined pattern of prose. Modern English has different construction of sentence of more logical. It gives more importance to word order.

(d) Extension: A number of words in English have under gone extension. Example, journey originally meant a "day's walk/ride", and a journal was a periodical that appeared "every day". In present times, journey is a week journey and journal is half yearly or quarterly journal.

(e) Transition: Proper names got converted to common words.

Example, the word 'boycott' is derived from Captain Charles C. Boycott. He was a land agent of Lord Erne's estate, who was so treated in an attempt to get rents reduced. The word 'dunce'originated from name of a medieval writer, Duns Scot us who fell into disrepute.

(f) Euphemism: This kind of word change enables to disguise the real nature of an unpleasant idea by giving it an inoffensive name. Example, bathroom or restroom for "toilet", stout for "fat", visually challenged for blind.

(g) Change in Meaning: The meaning of a word may be changed because of repeated use in particular context. The meaning changes because the object it stood for has changed. Example, originally 'pen' stood for feather; feathers were later used for writing. Thus pen acquired a new meaning.

(h) Metathesis: Change in order of letters in a word.

Old English	Middle English
Brid	bird

2.3.2. Synchronic Variations

These are categorised as following:

- Varieties due to language contact
- Varieties of dialect
- Varieties of register

(a)Varieties due to language contact:

i) When a language comes in contact with another language, in gives rise to new variety of language. This new variety of language continues to co-exist along with original languages. Sociolinguistics lables these variety as 'transplanted', nativized' or 'indigenized'. These variety included Indian English and British English.

Indian English	British English
Bed tea	Morning tea
Hill station	hill resort
Bus stop	bus station
Cousin brother/sister	cousin
Biodata	curriculum vitae

Indian English also includes hybrid compounds like policewallah and brahminhood.

ii) Pidgin Language: this is a special language with very limited vocabulary and structure. Pidgin language is used for trade purposes. It is used by people who have no language in common. Example, fish traders of Indian and Sri Lanka, inhabitants of West Indies and Pacific Islands.

Pidgin language is also known as *bazaar* language. Example, 'I go go market' (Cameroon pidgin). 'I chowchow' for 'I eat' (Chinese pidgin), 'plenty man' for 'many men' (Melanesian pidgin).

iii) Creole: When pidgin language is used for a long period by a community, it develops its on vocabulary and structures. This developed language is known as Creole. Creole is the product of two different languages originally used by the speaker. Due to wide range of communicative functions, pidgin is restructured as Creole. Example, 'zozo' for 'bird', 'fingafoot' for 'toe', 'pikin' for 'child'.

iv) Esperanto: this is a theoretical language used by people all over the world. Attempts to evolve a

world language based on vocabulary and codes of important languages in the world are going on. However, the attempts have not been successful.

(b)Varieties of Dialect: Language can vary according to the user. The variety of language determined by a speaker's social and geographical background is called a dialect. British English has numerous dialects. Example, the Lancashire dialect, the Scottish dialect, the Yorkshire dialect. Dialectical variations of language are also a consequence of social hierarchy and social class. In London, aristocrats use one variety of English and the lower class uses another variety. The Received Pronunciation (RP)is the dialect of the upper class society of England. Religion and caste, at times, conditions the dialects. Example, there is dialectal difference generated by caste in the Namboodri (the highest Hindu Brahmin of Kerala)

Phonological level differences

	RP	General American
Last	/Ia :st/	/læst/
Dance	/da : ns/	/dæns/
Missile	/'mısdıl/	/'mısıl/
Class	/kla:s/	/klæs/
Vitamin	/vıtəmın/	vaıtəmın/

Differences at the level of syntax

Us	British
Different than	different from
Check that out	check up on that
To talk with some body	to talk to somebody

Lexical differences

Gas	Petrol
Candy	Chocolate
Elevator	Lift

Jelly	Jam

Morphology

Dive-dove	Dive-dived
(past)	(past)

Graphology (spelling)

Program	Programme
Color	colour
Realize	realise

Sociolect: Social Dialect is used by members of particular group of a speech community. It is concern with speaker in towns and cities.

Diglossia: Many times a speech community uses two dialects. One dialect is used for special, prestigious or formal occasions. This prestigious dialect is called the high language. Another form of dialect used for informal purposes is referred to as lower language. The high and low languages are not allowed to intermingle. Two forms of the same dialect are known as diglossia.

Idiolect: Differences of speech between individual in a given dialect create an idiolect. No two speakers of a language speak alike. The term idiolect indicates idiosyncrasies of an individual speaker.Example, Uriah Heep in Dicken's David Copperfield repeatedly uses the word 'umble'. This is idiolect of the character.

Accent: We all speak with an accent. A few speakers have distinct or easily recognizable type of accent. Accent is restricted to the description of pronunciation. It is different from dialect which is used to describe grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of a language.

Slang: Slang is a colloquial speech. It consists of word and phrases for everyday terms used by young speaker and other groups. The word *bucks* (for dollar or money) is a slang expression.

Jargon: Jargon is special technical vocabulary specific to an area of work. Jargon maintains connections among member of a professional group(insiders). This exclusive vocabulary is essential for professionals.

(c)Varieties of Register

The variation of language that arises because of the individual's use of language depending upon the situation is called register. Register can be formal, informal, casual, frozen and static. The language used by a person in office, at home, in a party and with friends varies according to the situation. This register of language can be classified according to:

i. Field of discourse

Register of science, register of law, register journalism are variations of language according to discourse.

Example, Register of science: Equal volumes of all gases, under similar conditions of temperature and pressure, contain equal number of molecules.

Register of religion: O lord our heavenly Father! We pray to thee to have mercy on thy people.

ii. Mode of discourse

The medium, spoken or written, determines the variation of language. Telephonic conversation,mobile massage, radio, television or newspaper illustrate different modes of language.

Example (Taken from Strevens)

Frozen style: Those seeking an interview should make their way at once to the upper floor by way of the staircase.

Formal style: Interview seekers should go up the stairs at once.

Casual: time you all went upstairs, now.

Intimate: Up you go, chaps.

Martin Joos (1961) give five registers of language, viz., frozen, formal, consultative, casual, and intimate.

2.4 Let us Sum up

Langue and parole, sign and symbol, substance and form, syntagmatic and paradigmatic, synchronic and diachronic approach enable us to understand language in a better way. The same individual can make use of different variety of language depending on the situation. The study of language variation is essential for developing communicative ability of learners. The word formation

processes enable learners to make use of appropriate words while communicating.

2.5 Questions

1. Define langue and differentiate between langue and parole?
2. What are diachronic changes?
3. What is Register?
4. What is the difference between register and jargon?

2.6 Suggested Readings

- Syal, Pushpinder and D.V. Jindal.*An Introduction to Linguistics: Language, Grammar and Semantics.* New Delhi: PHI Learning, 2012.
- Yule, George. *The Study of Language*. Cambridge University Press, 2011.

M.A. (English)

MAEM23204T

Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics and Communication Skills

Section A
General Linguistics

Unit III: Morphology and Word Formation

Structure

3.0 Objectives
3.1 Introduction to Morphology
3.2 Segmentation
3.3 Free and Bound Morphemes
3.4 Morphological Analysis of Words
3.5 Word Formation
3.6 Let us Sum up
3.7 Questions
3.8 Suggested Readings

3.0 Objectives

- To understand units of writing
- To know about determinate and indeterminate words
- To study relationship between morph, allomorph and morpheme
- To analyze words morphologically
- To know myriad ways to form words and improve communication skills

3.1 Introduction to Morphology

Morphology is the study of word structure and word formation. The word morphology originates from Greek word 'morph' which means form or shape and 'ology', study of something. According to Bauer, morphology is the study of the form of words. McCharty states that area of grammar involving morphemes is called morphology. Aronoff calls morphology a mental system that deals with internal structure of words. Leiber believes that morphology is about word formation processes and ways of coining new words. Hence, morphology studies both structure of words and processes of word formation.

Word and sentence are two important units in the writing systems of a language. Word, unit of language that is spoken or written, is constituted by smaller elements. The word 'lovely' is made of two units: 'love' and 'ly'. These minimal units cannot be sub-divided into any meaningful units. The minimal meaningful unit is referred to as a morpheme. The word **unconditional** has three morphemes. The word **carpet** is a single morpheme. The units **car** and **pet** are independent morphemes but the word

carpet has no relation with meanings of **car** and **pet**. **Carpet** is a minimal meaningful unit.

3.2 Segmentation

Systematic study of morphemes and combination of words is known as Morphology. Morpheme is short segment of language that meets three criteria:

1. It is a word or a part of a word that has meaning.
2. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning or without meaningless remainders.
3. It recurs in differing verbal environments with a relatively stable meaning.

Example:- The Police reopened the investigation.

The word reopen consists of three morphemes- open (minimal unit of meaning), re- (meaning again), -ed (indicating past tense).

In the word tourists, there are three morphemes. Tour is one minimal unit of meaning, another unit is –ist (marking 'person who does something') and –s (indicating plural) is a unit of grammatical function. Many words can be divided into segments. Examples:

girls	girl-s
cleaning	clean-ing
asked	ask-ed
unkind	un-kind
mangoes	mango-es
triweekly	tri-week-ly

These segments are determinate. But there can also be several words which cannot be segmented. Such segments are indeterminate. Partially determinate segments also exist. Examples: children, went sang, better, worst. When a word is segmented into parts, each part is called a morph. Each morph represents a morpheme. The terms morpheme and morph are comparable to Saussure's terms form and substance. Morphemes are represented between braces. The word **went** cannot be segmented into morphs. It represents combination of two morphemes: **go** and **past**. When a particular morpheme is represented by different morphs in different environments, it is called an allomorph (‘allo’ means closely related). The plural morpheme is English (a combination of noun morpheme to form a plural) is represented as tree allomorphs /s/,/z/,/Iz/ in different environments.

Examples: Plural morpheme, {e(s)}

/Iz/ buses, vases, bushes

/s/ maps, rats, caps

/ z/ bags, boys

Another allomorph of plural in English is zero-morph. Examples: plural of sheep is sheep+ϕ. Similarly, the present tense morpheme has three allomorphs /s/,/z/,/Iz/. Examples: Packs/s/, digs/z/, washes /Iz/. The past tense morpheme {-e(d)} has three phonologically conditioned allomorphs /t/,/d/ and /Id/.

Examples: Past morpheme {-e(d)}

/t/ booked

/d/ loved

/Id/ wanted

The term morph refers to a shape. Morph is a minimal phonetic form that has meaning. Morphs belonging to same morpheme are called allomorphs of that morpheme. The relationship of morph, allomorph and morpheme is similar to that of phone, allophone and phoneme. Through this relationship one can understand the grammatical similarity and the functional difference in a word.

Examples:

Caught = {catch}+{ed}

worse = {bad}+ {er}

3.3 Free and Bound Morphemes

There are two types of morphemes: free morphemes and bound morphemes. Free morphemes are nouns, adjectives, verbs.

Free morphemes stand on their own as independent words. Bound morphemes cannot stand alone and are attached to another form. Example, *re-*, *-ist*, *-ed*, *-s.*

	Undressed			***carelessness***	
Un-	*dress*	*-ed*	*care*	*-less*	*-ness*
Prefix	stem	suffix	stem	suffix	suffix
(bound)	(free)	(bound)	(free)	(bound)	(bound)

When free morpheme is used with bound morpheme, the basic word in known as stem. In many

word *re-* is not a bound morpheme. Example, receive, reduce and repeat.

Free morphemes can be classified as lexical morphemes and functional morphemes. Lexical morphemes carry content. These are set of noun, adjective and verbs. Example, girl, man, tiger, look, follow, break.

Functional morphemes consist of functional word such as conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns. Example, and, but, when, because, on, near, above, in, that.

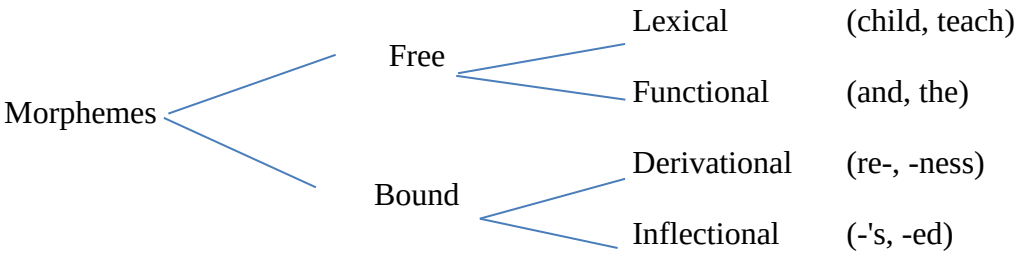
Bound morphemes can be divided to types. These are derivational morphemes and inflectional morphemes. Addition of a derivational morpheme forms a new word. The addition of derivational morpheme *-ness* to the adjective *good* forms a new word (noun) *goodness*. Inflectional morphemes do not produce new words but indicate the grammatical function of a word. They indicate number, tense, comparison and possessive form of the lexical item.

Inflectional Morphemes

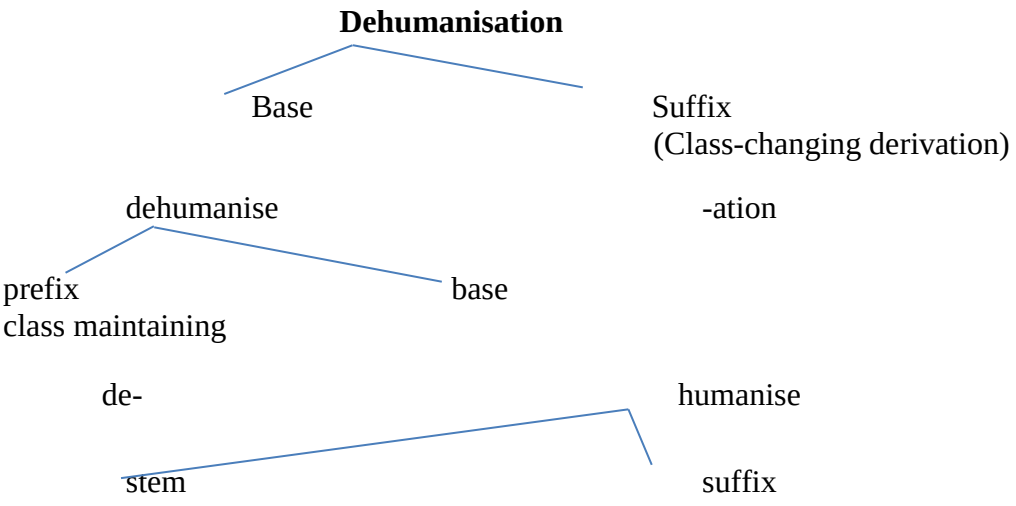
Noun + *-'s, -s*

Verb + *-s, -ing, -ed, -en*

Adjective + *-est, -er*

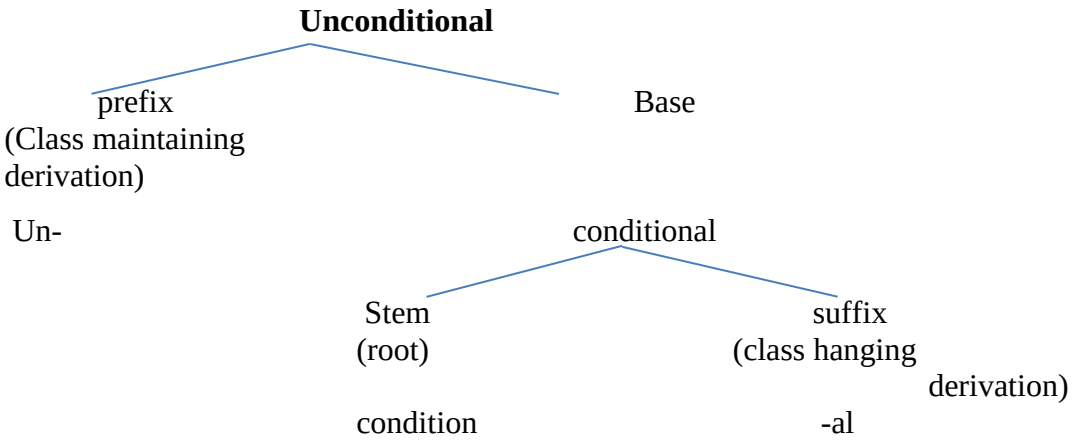


3.4 Morphological Analysis of Words



(root) (class changing derivation)
human

-ise



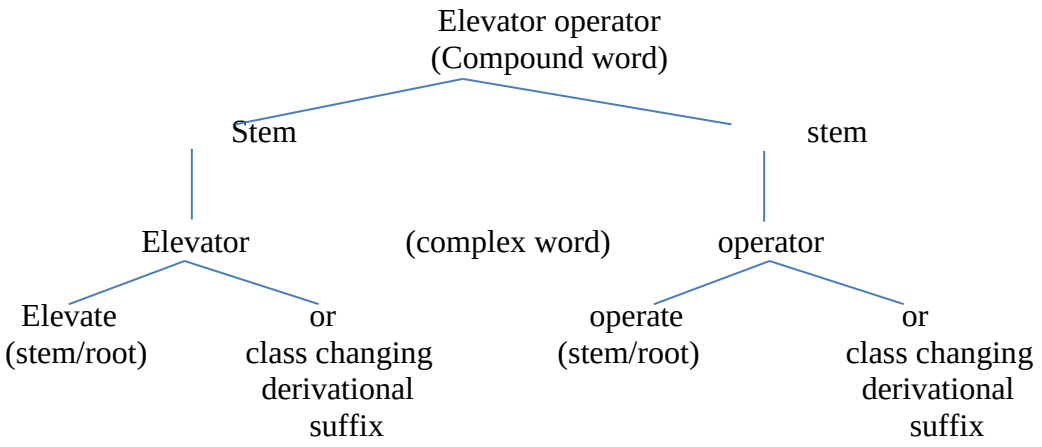
Structure of Word

Based on the morpheme constituents, words can be categorised as simple, compound and complex.

Simple words consist of single free morpheme followed, or not, by inflectional suffix. Examples: play, plays

Complex words consist of a base and derivational affix. Examples: goodness, determination, enlightenment, respectively

Compound words consist of two or more free stems which are independent words. Examples: elevator-operator



3.5 Word Formation

New words regularly emerge in language due to word formation processes. Following are the word formation processes.

Etymology: The study of origin and history of a word is known as etymology. Many words originate in other languages like Greek, Latin and French. A close look at the etymology of technical words reveals that new words can enter language in many different ways. There has been constant evolution of new words and new uses of old words that reassures vitality and creativity of language.

Coinage: New words in language are also based on person or a place. These are called eponyms. Example, hoover, sandwich, jeans, Fahrenheit. A few words are formed after the invention or commercial products. Example, aspirin, nylon, Vaseline, Xerox, Kleenex and Teflon.

Borrowing: A special type of word formation in language take place through borrowing. Many words are borrowed from other languages. Example, croissant (French), dope (Dutch), lilac (Persian), piano (Italian), pretzel (German), sofa (Arabic), tattoo (Tahitian), tycoon (Japanese), yogurt (Turkish) and zebra (Bantu).

Compounding: A few words combine through the process of compounding to form new words. Common English compounds are bookcase, doorknob, fingerprint, sunburn, textbook, wallpaper, wastebasket and waterbed.

Blending: The Beginning of one word is joint to the end of other word to form a new word. This process is known as blending.

Smoke / fog smog; motor/hotel motel; television/broadcast telecast; breakfast/lunch brunch.

Clipping: When a word of more than one syllable is reduced to shorter form, the process of word formation known as clipping. Example, flu (influenza), perm (permanent wave), phone (telephone), chem (chemistry), examination (exam).

Backformation: A special type of reduction process to form new word is known as backformation. Example, the noun *television* can be reduced to *televise* which is a verb. Donate (from donation), emote (from emotion) enthuse (from enthusiasm).

Conversion: When a noun is used as a verb without any reduction but a change in the function of the word, it is known conversion. Example, Bottle, butter chair and vacation have can be used as noun and verb.

This is a bottle. Noun

We bottled the home brew last night. Verb

Acronyms: Initial letter of a set of other word get together to form a new word known as acronym. Example, laser ('light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation'), radar ('radio detecting and ranging') and zip ('zone improvement plan')

Derivation: Many words are formed by the process of derivation. Prefixes and suffixes are attached to form a new word.

Prefixes and suffixes:

Use of Prefixes: Prefixes are used to coin new words of various types:

(a) Negative Prefixes:

Prefix	**Base word**	**New word**
Im-	possible/mortal	impossible/immortal
In-	evitable	inevitable
	Sensitive	insensitive
Un-	stable	unstable
	Like	unlike

(b) Prefixes of number:

Mono-	syllabic	monosyllabic
	Logue	monologue
Uni-	lateral	unilateral
	Cellular	unicellular
Bi-	lingual	bilingual
	Lateral	bilateral

(c) Prefixes of time and order:

Re-	evaluate	re-evaluate

	Examine	re-examine
Ante-	chamber	antechamber
Fore-	knowledge	fore-knowledge
	Tell	foretell
Pre-	natal	prenatal
	Mature	premature

(d) Prefixes of location:

Sub-	way	subway
	Terranean	subterranean
Inter-/intra-	national	international
	Class	interclass
Trans-	plant	transplant
	Migration	transmigration

(e) Prefixes of degree or size:

Super-	man	superman
	Natural	supernatural
Out-	run	outrun
	Live	outlive
Under-	state	understate
	Cooked	undercooked

(f) Prefixes of attitude:

Pro-	congress	pro-congress
	Democracy	pro-democracy
Anti-	hindu	anti-hindu

	Social	anti-social
Co-	operate	cooperate
	Sponsor	cosponsor

(g) Other prefixes

Auto-	biography	autobiography
	Start	auto-start
Neo-	rich	neo-rich
	Classical	neoclassical
Semi-	circle	semi-circle
	Nude	semi-nude

(h) Class-changing prefixes

Prefix	**Word**	**Class**	**New Word**	**Class**
Be-	head	noun	behead	verb
	Friend	noun	befriend	verb
En-	able	adjective	enable	verb
	Trust	noun	entrust	verb
a-	Float	verb	afloat	adjective
	Head	noun	ahead	adjective

Use of Suffixes

(a) Class-maintaining suffixes

Suffix	Word	Class	New Word	Class
-ship	friend	noun	friendship	noun
-hood	boy	noun	boyhood	noun
Ite	hindu	adjective	hinduite	adjective

(b) Class-changing suffixes

(i) Noun to adjective

-ian	India	noun	Indian	adjective
-ese	China	noun	Chinese	adjective
-ful	Beauty	noun	beautiful	adjective
-less	harm	noun	harmless	adjective

(ii) Adjectives to noun

-ity	able	adjective	ability	noun
-ness	happy	adjective	happiness	noun
-ry	brave	adjective	bravery	noun

(iii) Nouns to verbs

-ify	fort	noun	fortify	verb
-en	length	noun	lengthen	verb
-le	top	noun	topple	verb

(iv) verbs to nouns

-er	drive	verb	driver	noun
-ment	govern	verb	government	noun
-age	drain	verb	drainage	noun
-ant	pollute	verb	pollutant	noun

(v) Verbs to adverb

-ily	sleep	verb	sleepily	adverb
-fully	play	verb	playfully	adverb

.(vi) Adjectives to adverbs

-ly	nice	adjective	nicely	adverb
-wards	back	adjective	backwards	adverb

3.6 Let us Sum up

Morphological analysis of words enables us to infer the meaning and learn new words easily. The process of affixation reveals the flexibility and productivity of language. Understanding of morphology familiarizes us with effective and precise way of using language. Morphological competence improves writing skills and is essential for determining proficiency in ESL or EFL.

3.7 Questions

1. What are morpheme?
2. Expain Segmentation.
3. Explain any two word formation processes?
4. Use the process of affixation to form more words from the word period, crime, good, beauty.

3.8 Suggested Readings

Aronoff, M. Fudeman.K. *What is Morphology.* UK: Willey Blackwell Publishing, 2011.

Booiji, G. *The Grammar of Words.* New York: Oxford University Press, 2003.

Fasold, R. and Connor-Linton, J. *An Introduction to Language and Linguistics.* New York: Cambridge Press, 2016.

M.A. (English)

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Basics of Linguistics, Phonetics and Communication Skills

Section B
Applied Linguistics

UNIT 3: APPLIED LINGUISTICS

Structure
Unit - I

1.0 Objectives:

Understand Communicative Competence

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Unit-1

Linguistics

Introduction Linguistics

Linguistics is the scientific study of language, including its form, meaning, and use. It encompasses a range of subfields, including phonetics, phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, as well as the social and cultural aspects of language. The goal of linguistics is to understand the nature of language and how it is used to communicate meaning.

Linguistics is an interdisciplinary field that studies human language, its structure and use, and its place in society. It involves analyzing and describing the sounds, words, and grammar of a language, as well as the meaning conveyed by language and the social and cultural factors that influence its use.

Linguists use a variety of methods and tools, including observation, experimentation, and analysis of language data, to gain insights into the workings of language. They may study the sounds of language (phonetics and phonology), the meaning conveyed by words and sentences (semantics), the ways in which words and sentences are put together to form larger units of meaning (syntax), and the ways in which language is used in context (pragmatics).

Linguistics has a range of applications, including the development of natural language processing technology, the creation of language education programs, and the resolution of communication problems related to language differences. Linguists also play a role in language documentation and preservation, as well as in language policy and planning. In addition, linguistic knowledge can inform our understanding of the human mind and the nature of human cognition more broadly.

The scope of linguistics is broad and encompasses a range of subfields, including:

- Phonetics: The study of the physical properties of speech sounds and their production, transmission, and reception.
- Phonology: The study of the abstract, mental representations of speech sounds and the rules governing their combination in a language.
- Morphology: The study of the internal structure of words and how they are formed from smaller units of meaning.
- Syntax: The study of the rules governing the arrangement of words and phrases to form sentences.

- Semantics: The study of meaning in language, including the meaning of individual words, the meaning of sentences, and the meaning of longer discourse.
- Pragmatics: The study of how language is used in context, including the study of non-linguistic factors that influence language use, such as social and cultural factors.
- Historical Linguistics: The study of the history and development of language over time.
- Sociolinguistics: The study of the social and cultural factors that influence language use and variation, including the relationship between language and power, identity, and culture.
- Psycholinguistics: The study of the mental processes involved in producing and comprehending language, including the relationship between language and thought.
- Computational Linguistics: The study of the computational processes involved in language, including the development of natural language processing technology.

The scope of linguistics is constantly expanding as new discoveries are made and new areas of inquiry are explored. As a result, the field of linguistics is both dynamic and interdisciplinary, drawing on insights from fields such as anthropology, psychology, cognitive science, and computer science.



Applied Linguistics

Applied Linguistics is a subfield of Linguistics that focuses on the practical applications of linguistic theory and research to real-world problems. It involves the study of language in its various forms, including oral, written, and signed, and the ways in which it is used in various contexts such as education, technology, and communication. The goal of applied linguistics is to provide solutions to language-related problems in

various settings, including language teaching and learning, language planning and policy, and the development of language technologies.

The Scope of Applied Linguistics

The scope of Applied Linguistics is broad and covers a range of topics and areas of study, including:

- Second Language Acquisition - the study of how people learn a second or foreign language, including the factors that influence language acquisition and the processes involved.
- Language Teaching and Learning - the study of how languages are taught and learned in various educational settings, including the development of teaching methods, materials, and technologies.
- Language Testing and Assessment - the study of how language proficiency is measured, including the development of language tests and the evaluation of language teaching programs.
- Sociolinguistics - the study of the social aspects of language, including language variation and change, language and identity, and language in society.
- Discourse Analysis - the study of language in use, including the analysis of spoken and written discourse, conversation analysis, and the study of discourse genres.
- Pragmatics - the study of language use in context, including the analysis of speech acts, deixis, and reference.
- Corpus Linguistics - the study of large collections of written and spoken language data, including the development of language corpora and the use of corpus data for language research.
- Computational Linguistics - the study of natural language processing, including the development of language technologies such as machine translation and speech recognition.

These are just a few of the many areas of study within the scope of Applied Linguistics, and the field continues to evolve as new developments and technologies emerge.

Major Contributors in the field of Linguistics

There are many prominent researchers and their contributions to the field of Applied Linguistics. Some of the most influential ones include:

- Michael Halliday - Known for his systemic functional linguistic theory and the development of the social semiotic approach to language study.
- Rod Ellis - His work on the process-product paradigm in language teaching and the study of second language acquisition.

- Stephen Krashen - His theories on second language acquisition, including the Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis.
- Jim Cummins - Known for his research on bilingual education and the development of the concept of cognitive academic language proficiency.
- Noam Chomsky - One of the founders of modern linguistics, his work on the Universal Grammar theory and its implications for language teaching.
- J. David Edwards - His work on the sociolinguistics of language education and language planning.
- Deborah Tannen - Known for her research on gender and language, discourse analysis, and the study of interpersonal communication.
- David Crystal - An expert on the English language, his research encompasses a wide range of topics including the history of English, English as a global language, and language technology.

Practical Applications of Applied Linguistics:

Applied Linguistics has many practical applications in a variety of settings, including:

- Language Education - the development of language teaching materials, the design of language courses, and the assessment of language proficiency.
- Language Planning and Policy - the analysis of language use in society and the development of language policies, including multilingualism and language revitalization initiatives.
- Translation and Interpretation - the development of translation and interpretation technologies and the study of translation and interpretation practices.
- Language and Technology - the development of language technologies such as machine translation, speech recognition, and natural language processing.
- Speech and Language Therapy - the assessment and treatment of speech and language disorders, including the development of speech and language therapy programs.
- Bilingual Education - the design and implementation of bilingual education programs and the study of the effects of bilingualism on cognitive development.
- Linguistic and Cultural Diversity - the study of language and cultural diversity and the promotion of multilingualism, including the analysis of language use in multicultural societies.

These are just a few examples of the practical applications of Applied Linguistics, and the field continues to play an important role in addressing language-related problems in a variety of settings.

Commonly used key terms in Applied Linguistics

1. Second language acquisition - the process of learning a second or foreign language, including the factors that influence language acquisition and the stages of language development.

2. Pragmatics - the study of language use in context, including the analysis of speech acts, deixis, and reference.
3. Discourse analysis - the study of language in use, including the analysis of spoken and written discourse, conversation analysis, and the study of discourse genres.
4. Sociolinguistics - the study of the social aspects of language, including language variation and change, language and identity, and language in society.
5. Corpus linguistics - the study of large collections of written and spoken language data, including the development of language corpora and the use of corpus data for language research.
6. Universal Grammar - a theory in linguistic that suggests that all languages have a common underlying structure and that this structure is innate to humans.
7. Input hypothesis - a theory of second language acquisition proposed by Noam Chomsky, which states that language acquisition is driven by the amount and type of language input that a learner receives.
8. Speech act - an action performed by speaking, such as making a request, giving a command, or expressing gratitude.
9. Code-switching - the alternating use of two or more languages or language varieties in a single conversation or speech act.

Reflections

A case study.

A study of second language acquisition in adult immigrants. The candidate should involve the following steps:

Recruitment of participants: Participants who are adult immigrants to a new country who are learning the language of their new country.

Data collection: Collect data on the participants' language background, education, and motivation for learning the new language, as well as the methods they are using to learn the language.

Data analysis: Analyze the data to identify patterns and trends in the participants' language acquisition, including the factors that influence their language development and the stages of language development.

Comparison with theory: Compare the results of the study with existing theories of second language acquisition, such as the input hypothesis and the universal grammar theory, to determine how well the theories explain the participants' language acquisition.

Recommendations: Based on the results of the study, make recommendations for language teaching programs and materials that can help adult immigrants acquire the new language more effectively.

Language and Society

There is a strong link between language and society. The two have a strong bond with one another. Language serves many purposes in society, and society also uses language for these purposes. The other one will be impacted if one disappears.

Language is a tool for interact with another human. So, language can‘t separate with human. Through language we can related and interact with other human and created communicative in the community Sociolinguistics is the study of the connection between language and society and the way people use language in different social situations. It asks the question, how does language affect the social nature of human beings, and how does social interaction shape language.

It ranges greatly in depth and detail, from the study of dialects across a given region to the analysis of the way men and women speak to each other in certain situations. The basic premise of sociolinguistics is that language is variable and ever-changing. As a result, language is not uniform or constant. & other, it is varied and inconsistent for both the individual user and within and among groups of speakers who use the same language. People adjust the way they talk to their social situation. In individual, for instance, will speak differently to a child than he or she will to their college professor. This social situational variation is sometimes called register and depends not only on the occasion and relationship between the participants, but also on the participants‘ region, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, age, and gender.

Sociolinguistics

Difference between sociolinguistics and the sociology of language.

Sociolinguistics is a subfield of linguistics that studies the relationship between language and society. It explores how language is used in different social contexts and how social factors influence language use, language change, and language attitudes.

The sociology of language, on the other hand, is a subfield of sociology that examines the social uses and functions of language, including its role in creating and maintaining social identities and relationships. The sociology of language also considers the ways in which language and power are related, as well as how language is used to create and reproduce social inequalities.

In summary, both fields overlap in their focus on the relationship between language and society, but sociolinguistics has a more linguistic focus, while the sociology of language has a more sociological focus.

Linguistics is the scientific study of language, including its structure, form, and use. It encompasses a wide range of subfields, including phonetics, phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Linguists study the fundamental properties of language and the ways in which languages change over time.

Sociolinguistics, on the other hand, is the study of the relationship between language and society. It explores how language is used in different social contexts and how social factors, such as class, ethnicity, gender, and age, influence language use, language change, and language attitudes. Sociolinguists also study the ways in which language affects and is affected by social power and social inequality.

In summary, while linguistics is concerned with the properties of language itself, sociolinguistics focuses on the ways in which language is shaped and influenced by social factors.

Language and society are closely interrelated and influence each other in many ways. Some key aspects of the relationship between language and society include:

- Social structure: Language reflects the social structure of a society, including the relationships between different social groups and the values and attitudes of those groups.
- Power and control: Language can be used to maintain power and control, for example, by using language to exclude certain groups from participating in social and economic activities.
- Identity: Language is a key aspect of personal and cultural identity, and the use of language can reflect an individual's social and cultural background.
- Communication: Language is a primary means of communication within society, and the choice of language used in communication can reflect social and cultural differences.
- Language change: Language changes over time in response to social and cultural changes, and the changes in language can reflect changes in the values and attitudes of a society.
- Bilingualism and multilingualism: Many societies are multilingual, and the use of different languages in a society can reflect social, cultural, and political differences.

These are just a few examples of the many ways in which language and society are interrelated, and the relationship between language and society is a key area of study in sociolinguistics, a subfield of Applied Linguistics.

Language is greatly influenced by the society in which it is used. Some ways in which society affects language include:

- Social norms and attitudes: Society sets norms for language use, such as what is considered acceptable or taboo, and attitudes towards different languages and dialects.

- Sociolinguistic variation: Society influences the variety of languages and dialects that are used, with different social groups using different varieties of language.
- Historical and cultural influences: Historical events and cultural practices can influence the development and use of language, including the influence of language contact, colonization, and globalization.
- Technology and media: Advances in technology and the spread of media can have a major impact on language use, affecting the way that people communicate and access information.
- Education: Education is a major factor in language development and use, as children learn the norms and attitudes of their society through the language used in schools and other educational institutions.
- Political and economic factors: Political and economic factors can also play a role in shaping language use, for example, through language policies that promote or restrict the use of certain languages.

There are many prominent theorists in the field of language and society, also known as sociolinguistics. Here are some of the key figures and their contributions to the field:

- William Labov: A pioneering sociolinguist who is best known for his work on language variation and change, including the study of regional dialects and the social and linguistic factors that influence speech patterns.
- Erving Goffman: A Canadian sociologist who is best known for his work on the social construction of identity and the role of language in shaping identity and social interactions.
- Deborah Tannen: An American sociolinguist who is best known for her research on gender and language, including the study of how gender influences language use and the ways in which language reinforces gender stereotypes.
- Pierre Bourdieu: A French sociologist who is best known for his work on the relationship between language and power, including the study of the ways in which language is used to maintain social and cultural hierarchies.
- Michelle Rampton: A sociolinguist who is best known for her work on language and identity, including the study of the ways in which language is used to signal membership in particular social groups and the role of language in shaping personal and cultural identity.

Linguistic competence and communicative competence

Linguistic competence refers to a speaker's implicit knowledge of the rules and structures of their language, including grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. It is a speaker's inherent ability to understand and produce language, without necessarily being aware of the specific rules they are using.

Communicative competence, on the other hand, refers to the ability to use language effectively for communication purposes. It includes not only linguistic competence but also knowledge of the social and cultural conventions that govern language use, as well as the ability to use language appropriately in different social and cultural contexts.

In other words, linguistic competence is the knowledge of the rules of a language, while communicative competence is the ability to use that knowledge to communicate effectively in a given context. A speaker may have high linguistic competence but low communicative competence if they lack the ability to use language effectively for communicative purposes.

Chomsky's Concept of Linguistic competence

Noam Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence refers to an individual's innate, unconscious knowledge of the grammar of a language, which allows them to produce and understand an unlimited number of sentences in that language. Chomsky argued that linguistic competence is innate and universal, meaning that all humans are born with an innate ability to learn any language to which they are exposed.

According to Chomsky, linguistic competence is different from linguistic performance, which refers to the actual use of language in real-life communication. He argued that linguistic performance is influenced by various factors, such as memory limitations, distractions, and individual differences, while linguistic competence is a fixed and unchanging aspect of an individual's mind.

Chomsky's theory of linguistic competence has been highly influential in the field of linguistics and has shaped the study of language acquisition, syntax, and language development. It has also been the subject of much debate and criticism, with some scholars arguing that linguistic competence is not innate and universal, but rather is shaped by social and cultural factors.

Dell Hymes' Concept of Communicative Competence

Dell Hymes' concept of communicative competence refers to the knowledge and abilities that a speaker must possess in order to use language effectively for communication in a particular social context. According to Hymes, communicative competence goes beyond linguistic competence, which focuses solely on a speaker's knowledge of the rules and structures of a language, and includes an understanding of the cultural and social norms that govern language use.

Hymes identified four key elements of communicative competence: (1) linguistic competence, which involves knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary of a language, (2) sociolinguistic competence, which includes understanding of the social and cultural norms that govern language use, (3) strategic competence, which involves the ability to use language effectively to accomplish communicative goals, and (4) discourse

competence, which involves the ability to understand and produce connected speech or writing in a given context.

Hymes' concept of communicative competence has been highly influential in the field of sociolinguistics, particularly in the study of language use and language attitudes. It has also been adopted by other scholars who have expanded and modified the original concept, taking into account factors such as power, identity, and language variation.

Variation in Language

Variation in language refers to differences in the way language is used by different speakers or in different contexts. There are several types of variation in language, including:

Dialectal variation: Refers to differences in the way a language is spoken in different geographic regions or by different social groups. Dialectal variation may involve differences in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and usage.

Social variation: Refers to differences in language use that are related to social factors such as age, gender, class, ethnicity, and occupation. Social variation may involve differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, as well as differences in the use of language in different social contexts.

Historical variation: Refers to changes in a language over time. Historical variation may involve changes in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and usage.

I diolectal variation: Refers to differences in language use that are specific to individual speakers. Idiolectal variation may involve differences in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and usage, as well as differences in the ways speakers use language for communicative purposes.

Language variation is a normal and expected aspect of language use and is often studied in the fields of sociolinguistics and linguistics. The study of language variation helps to understand the ways in which social and cultural factors influence language use and how languages change over time.

Pidgin and Creole

Pidgin and Creole are terms used to describe specific types of languages that have developed in certain historical contexts.

A pidgin is a simplified form of language that arises as a means of communication between groups of people who do not share a common language. Pidgins are typically developed for trade or other practical purposes, and they typically have a reduced grammar and vocabulary, often borrowed from one or more dominant languages.

A creole, on the other hand, is a language that has developed from a pidgin and has become the native language of a speech community. Creoles typically have a more complex grammar and vocabulary than the original pidgin, and they often incorporate elements of the languages of the groups that formed the pidgin.

Both pidgins and creoles are important examples of how languages can emerge and evolve in response to social and cultural factors, and they are often studied in the field of sociolinguistics. Pidgins and creoles also often play an important role in the cultural identity of the communities that use them, and they can serve as a symbol of resistance to colonialism and oppression.

Code Mixing and Code Switching:

Code-switching and code-mixing are terms used to describe the practice of alternating between two or more languages, dialects, or varieties of a language in a single conversation or communicative event.

Code-switching refers to the practice of switching from one language or dialect to another in a systematic and context-appropriate manner. This type of language alternation is often used by bilingual or multilingual speakers to indicate a change in topic, audience, or social context.

Code-mixing, on the other hand, refers to the practice of alternating between languages or dialects within a single sentence or utterance, rather than switching to a completely different language. Code-mixing may involve mixing words, phrases, or grammatical structures from different languages, and it often results in the creation of hybrid forms that are specific to the speakers who use them.

Both code-switching and code-mixing are common in multilingual communities, and they are often influenced by social, cultural, and historical factors. They are also the subject of much research in the fields of sociolinguistics and linguistics, as they provide insights into the ways that languages are used and the relationships between different languages and dialects.

Multilingualism and Language Learning

Multilingualism refers to the ability to use and understand more than one language. This can refer to individuals who are fluent in multiple languages or to societies where multiple languages are used and spoken. Language learning, on the other hand, refers to the process of acquiring knowledge and mastery of a language, whether as a first or additional language. This can involve learning the grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and other aspects of a language in a structured or informal setting.

Multilingualism and language learning are closely related, as many multilingual individuals have acquired their language abilities through language learning. In a multilingual society, language learning may also be a way for individuals to maintain their linguistic heritage or gain access to new cultural and economic opportunities.

Both multilingualism and language learning have been the subject of much research in the fields of sociolinguistics and linguistics, as they have implications for a wide range of social and cultural issues, including identity, education, and globalization. They also have practical applications, such as in language education, translation and interpretation, and language technology. People have never been more internationally mobile. Nor has information spread so widely, as communication technologies have brought groups from various language and cultural backgrounds in contact. This has changed the ethnolinguistic characteristics of many regions. These phenomena have resulted in multilingualism both at the societal level (that is, the use of multiple languages in society), and at the personal level as individuals increasingly communicate in more than one language (Cenoz, 2013). The demographic changes have led to _superdiversity‘ (Vertovec, 2007), a term that refers to the interplay of a variety of factors related to social, cultural, and linguistic diversity, which triggers transformation in societies (Meissner & Vertovec, 2015). In the field of education, the impact of superdiversity is visible in classrooms where each day teachers encounter a variety of home languages, and where they may teach several institutional languages. In Europe (the focus of the authors‘ work in this volume) the national languages of the nation-states have often become the dominant institutional languages, and thus figure predominantly in language policies. Other languages, such as some minority or migrant languages, are given little space in schools, and are generally valued mainly for their functional benefits (Lo Bianco, 2014).

This language hierarchy illustrates the status of different languages within education systems. Ellis, Gogolin, and Clyne (2011) claim that languages occupy different positions within the (implicit) language hierarchy of a given nationstate, and that its analysis offers a useful lens through which to examine the different statuses of languages. In their analysis, national languages tend to be at the top of the language hierarchy pyramid, followed by foreign languages taught at schools. The role of English as a foreign language needs to be highlighted, as English is by far the most commonly taught language in Europe from primary school onwards. It is also increasingly used to teach academic content, as seen by the growing numbers of CLIL programmes (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in compulsory education (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015). At the bottom of the pyramid are community languages such as autochthonous minority languages, immigrant languages, and immigrant ethnolects. Ellis et al. (2011) conclude that such hierarchies, visible in language ideologies, policies, and national curricula, reflect a _monolingual mindset‘ of nation-states. The language ideologies are an inheritance of the creation of nation-states in the nineteenth century in Europe (Gogolin, 2002; Spotti & Kroon, 2017) and led to monolingual education systems to foster _unity through homogeneity‘, an ideology that is still strong in most European countries (Horner, 2009; Cooke & Simpson, 2012). It has severe consequences for multilingual students less fluent in the institutional languages, as it influences their learning processes, academic achievements, and the ways students with minority background are perceived.

Research studies demonstrate cognitive and linguistic effects of bilingualism (e.g. Bialystok, 2017). Yet international assessment studies show that children with a migrant background and low socioeconomic status underachieve, compared to children who grow up speaking the national language(s) or high-status languages (OECD, 2015). According to Tajmel (2010), the lack of attention paid in schools to the language competences of these children, and the possible mismatch between 2school languages and home languages, is related to the monoglossic ideologies underpinning curricula. Thus, multilingual students risk a more limited access to the curriculum due to the combination of language dominance and monolingual standards. Furthermore, monolingual assessment practices mean that students‘ understanding (developed through institutional languages) and skills are measured in the institutional language(s) in which students may be less proficient (Shohamy, 2011; De Backer, De Cooman, Slembrouck and Van Avermaet, in this volume). According to Scarino (2014) and SpenceBrown (2014), there is now an urgent need to _unlearn monolingualism‘ and align teaching and learning practices at schools, and the language practices of the changing populations they serve.

Languages lie at the heart of teaching and learning processes. They shape the ways in which students communicate with each other, express themselves, engage with concepts, make sense of their world, think, and learn (Halliday, 1993).

There are several theories of multilingualism that describe how people acquire and use multiple languages. Some of the most prominent ones are:

- Linguistic Interdependence Theory: This theory suggests that the use of two or more languages influences each other and leads to language transfer and language interference.
- Accommodation Theory: This theory suggests that individuals adapt their communication style to their interlocutor in order to build rapport and maintain social relationships.
- Sociolinguistic Theory: This theory views language as a social construct and multilingualism as a social and cultural phenomenon influenced by social, economic, and political factors.
- Cognitive Linguistic Theory: This theory suggests that multilingualism leads to cognitive benefits, such as enhanced executive control and problem-solving abilities.
- Bilingualism as a Resource Theory: This theory views multilingualism as a valuable resource that can enhance personal, social, and professional opportunities.

Benefits of multilingualism:

Multilingualism offers several benefits in language teaching, including:

- Improved Cognitive Skills: Studies have shown that multilingual individuals have enhanced executive function and problem-solving skills.

- Better Cultural Awareness: Learning multiple languages can increase understanding and appreciation of different cultures and communities.
- Improved Communication Skills: Knowing more than one language can enhance communication skills, allowing individuals to effectively communicate with a wider range of people.
- Increased Career Opportunities: In today's globalized world, being multilingual can increase job opportunities and earning potential.
- Improved Memory: Learning multiple languages has been shown to improve memory and cognitive flexibility.
- Enhanced Academic Performance: Students who are multilingual tend to perform better academically, as language learning can improve critical thinking, reading, and writing skills.
- Greater Cultural Competence: By learning multiple languages, individuals can develop greater cultural competence and empathy, and be more sensitive to diversity and multiculturalism.
- Incorporating multilingualism into language teaching can help students develop a range of skills and abilities that will benefit them both academically and in life.
- These theories offer different perspectives on multilingualism and highlight the various social, cultural, linguistic, and cognitive aspects of multilingualism.

There are several drawbacks of multilingualism, including:

- Cognitive overload: Learning multiple languages can put a strain on an individual's cognitive abilities, leading to confusion and decreased proficiency in all languages.
- Communication difficulties: People who are multilingual may struggle to communicate effectively with monolingual individuals.
- Language interference: Speaking multiple languages can lead to linguistic interference, where a person unintentionally uses elements of one language while speaking another.
- Sociolinguistic challenges: Multilingual individuals may face challenges in fitting into a specific linguistic or cultural community, leading to feelings of isolation or marginalization.
- Difficulty in maintaining proficiency: Maintaining proficiency in multiple languages requires significant time and effort, and some people may struggle to keep their skills sharp.
- However, these drawbacks can be mitigated through appropriate language education and language use, and the benefits of multilingualism often outweigh the challenges. First Language Acquisition

First language acquisition refers to the process by which children learn their first language. It occurs naturally and spontaneously in most children, typically starting from birth and continuing through early childhood. This process is influenced by various factors such as exposure to language, innate language ability, and social interaction. Children's language development progresses in stages, from babbling and first words to

more complex sentences and conversation. The acquisition of a first language lays the foundation for future language learning and is crucial for cognitive, social, and emotional development.

Children ability to communicate.

- Small babies: children babble and coo and cry and vocally and nonvocally send messages and receive messages.
- End of first year: children start to imitate words and speech sounds and about this time use their first words.
- 18 months: their vocabulary in terms of words has increased and are beginning to use 2-word 3-word utterances (known as ―telegraphic utterances‖).
- 3 years: Children can comprehend an incredible quantity of linguistic input, they chatter nonstop
- School age: Children start to internalize increasingly complex structures, expand their vocabulary and sharpen their communication skills and they also learn the social functions of their language.

Three Positions in First Language Acquisition

- Behavioristic Position
- Nativist Position
- Functional Position

Behavioristic Approach

Characteristics:

- Children come into this world with a *tabula rasa* (a clean slate bearing no preconceived notions about the world or about language) and that these children are then shaped by the environment and slowly conditioned through various schedules of reinforcement.
- Language is a fundamental part of total human behavior.
- This approach focused on the immediately perceptible aspects of linguistic behavior-the publicly observable responses-and the relationships or associations between those responses and events in the world surrounding them.
- A behaviorist might consider effective language behavior to be the production of correct responses to stimuli. If a particular response is reinforced, it then becomes habitual, or conditioned.
- This is true of their comprehension as well as production responses.
- The behaviorist view *imitation* and *practice* as primary processes in language development.

- *Imitation*: Word for word repetition of all or part of someone else‘s utterance.
  e.g. Mother: Would you like some bread and peanut butter? Katie: Some bread and peanut butter
- Practice: Repetitive manipulation of form.
  e.g. Michel I can handle it. Hannah can handle it. We can handle it

- Children‟s imitation is selective and based on what they are currently learning.

B. F. Skinner

- One of the best-known attempts to construct a behavioristic model of linguistic behavior was embodied in B.F. Skinner's classic, *Verbal Behavior* (1957).
- Skinner was commonly known for his experiments with animal behavior, but he also gained recognition for his contributions to education through teaching machines and programmed learning.
- Skinner's theory of verbal behavior was an extension of his general theory of learning by **operant conditioning**.

Operant Conditioning:

- Operant conditioning is the use of consequences to modify the occurrence and form of behavior.
- It refers to conditioning in which the organism (in this case, a human being) produces a response, or *operant* (a sentence or utterance), without necessarily observable stimuli.
- This operant is maintained (learned) by reinforcement (e.g. a positive verbal or nonverbal response from another person).
- If a child says ―want milk‖ and a parent gives the child some milk, the operant is reinforced and, over repeated instances, is conditioned.

- According to Skinner, verbal behavior, like other behavior, is controlled by its consequences.
  - When consequences are rewarding, behavior is maintained and is increased in strength and perhaps frequency.
  - When consequences are punishing, or when there is a total lack of reinforcement, the behavior is weakened and eventually extinguished.

- Skinner's theories attracted a number of critics (Noam Chomsky) but it also had people

who defended it (Kenneth MacCorquodale).

Chomsky‟s Criticisms:

- Chomsky argues that the behaviourist theory fails to recognize what has come to be called „the logical problem of language acquisition‟.
- This logical problem refers to the fact that children come to know more about the structure of their language than they could reasonably be expected to learn on the basis of the samples of language which they hear.
- Children do not learn and reproduce a large set of sentences, but they routinely create new sentences that they have never learnt before.
- They internalize rules rather than strings of words (e.g. it breaked /mommy goed).
- The language the child is exposed to in the environment is full of confusing information. (e.g. false starts, incomplete sentences, or slips of the tongue)
- Children are not systematically corrected or instructed on language points. Parental corrections are inconsistent or even non-existent.
- When parents do correct, they tend to focus on meaning and truth values and not on language itself.

- Today virtually no one would agree that Skinner's model of verbal behavior adequately accounts for the capacity to acquire language, for language development itself, for the abstract nature of language, or for a theory of meaning.

It would appear that this position with its emphasis on empirical observation and the scientific method only began to explain the miracle of language acquisition. It left untouched genetic and interactionist domains that could be explored only by approaches that probed more deeply.

Nativist Approach

- The term nativist is derived from the fundamental assertion that language acquisition is innately determined, that we are born with a genetic capacity that predisposes us to a systematic perception of the language around us, resulting in the construction of an internalized system of language.
- Noam Chomsky claims that children are biologically programmed for language and that language develops in the child in just the same way that other biological functions develop.
- Children are born with a special ability to discover for themselves the underlying rules of a language system.
- The environment makes a basic contribution in this case - the availability of people who speak to

the child. The child, or rather, the child's biological endowment, will do the rest.

The Language Acquisition Device (LAD):

- LAD is the imaginary ―black box‖ which exists somewhere in the brain.
- It is thought to contain all and *only* the principles which are universal to all human languages.
- For the LAD to work, the child needs access only to samples of a natural language. These language samples serve as a trigger to activate the device.
- Once it is activated, the child is able to discover the structure of the language to be learned by matching the innate knowledge of basic grammatical relationships to the structures of the particular language in the environment.

- More recently, Chomsky and his followers no longer use the term LAD, but refers to the child‟s innate endowment as *Universal Grammar* (UG)

McNeill (1966) described LAD as consisting of four innate linguistic properties:

- the ability to distinguish speech sounds from other sounds in the environment;
- the ability to organize linguistic data into various classes that can later be reformed;
- knowledge that only a certain kind of linguistic system is possible and that other kinds are not;
- the ability to engage in constant evaluation of the developing linguistic system so as to construct the simplest possible system out of the available linguistic input.

One practical contribution of nativist theories is the kind of discoveries that have been made about how the system of child language works:

- Research has shown that the child's language, at any given point, is a legitimate system in its own right.
- The child's linguistic development is not a process of developing fewer and fewer "incorrect" structures, not a language in which earlier stages have more "mistakes" than later stages.
- Rather, the child's language at any stage is systematic in that the child is constantly forming hypotheses on the basis of the input received and then testing those hypotheses in speech (and comprehension).
- As the child's language develops, those hypotheses are continually revised, reshaped, or sometimes abandoned.

- Chomsky drew attention to the fact that children seem to develop language in similar ways and on a similar schedule.
- Environmental differences may be associated with some variation in the rate of acquisition.
- Before generative linguistics came into vogue, Jean Berko (1958) demonstrated that children learn language not as a series of separate discrete items, but as an integrated system.
- Using a simple nonsense-word test, Berko discovered that English-speaking children as young as four years of age applied rules for the formation of plural, present progressive, past tense, third singular, and possessives.

- She found, for example,
  - if a child saw one "wug" he could easily talk about two "wugs;'
  - or if he were presented with a person who knows how to "gling," the child could talk about a person who "glinged" yesterday, or sometimes who "glang."

The three most important contributions of the nativist framework to our understanding of the first language acquisition:

1. Freedom from the restrictions of the so-called ―scientific method‖ to explore the unseen, unobservable, underlying, abstract linguistic structures being developed in the child;
2. Systematic description of the child‟s linguistic repertoire as either rule- governed or operating out of parallel distributed processing capacities;
3. The construction of a number of potential properties of Universal Grammar.

Functional Approach

More recently, with an increase in constructivist approaches to the study of language, there has been a shift in patterns of research. The shift has not been so much away from the generative/cognitive side of the continuum, but perhaps better described as a move even more deeply into the essence of language.

Two emphases have emerged:

a. Researchers began to see that language was one manifestation of the cognitive and affective ability to deal with the world, with others, and with the self.

b. Moreover, the generative rules that were proposed under the nativistic framework were abstract, formal, explicit, and quite logical, yet they dealt specifically with the **forms** of language and not

with the deeper **functional** levels of meaning constructed from social interaction.

**Forms:* Morphemes, words, sentences, and the rules that govern them. *Functions:* The meaningful, interactive purposes, within a social (pragmatic) context, that we accomplish with the forms.

Cognition and Language Development

- The first social constructivist emphasis of the functional perspective was on Cognition and Language Development

- Dan Slobin (1971; 1986), among others, demonstrated that in all languages, semantic learning depends on cognitive development and that sequences of development are determined more by semantic complexity than by structural complexity.

There are two major pacesetters to language development, involved with the poles of functions and forms:

1. *On the functional level*, development is paced by the growth of conceptual and communicative capacities, operating in conjunction with innate schemas of cognition;
2. *On the formal level,* development is paced by the growth of perceptual and information-processing capacities, operating in conjunction with innate schemas of grammar. (In simple terms: what children know will determine what they learn about the code for both speaking and understanding messages.)

Child language researchers began to tackle the formulation of the rules of the **functions** of language and the relationships of the **forms** of language to those functions.

In recent years it has become quite clear that language functioning extends well beyond cognitive thought and memory structure.

Social Interaction & Language Development

- The second social constructivist emphasis of the functional perspective was on Social Interaction & Language Development

- Some research (Berko Gleason, 1988; Lock, 1991) looked at the interaction between the child's language acquisition and the learning of how social systems operate in human behavior.
- Other investigations of child language centered on the function of language in discourse.
- Since language is used for interactive communication, it is only fitting that one study the communicative functions of language: What do children know and learn about talking with others? about connected pieces of discourse (relations between sentences)? the interaction between hearer and speaker? conversational cues? Within such a perspective, the very heart of language-its communicative and pragmatic function-is being tackled in all its variability.
- This kind of research renewed interest in the performance level of language.
- Overt responses, such as hesitations, pauses, backtracking and other conversational cues, that were carefully observed by structuralists and hastily weeded out as ―performance variables‖ by generative linguists, have now returned to the forefront.

Issues in First Language Acquisition

Competence and Performance

- ***Competence*** refers to one‟s underlying knowledge of a system, event, or fact. It is the no observable ability to do something, to perform something.
- *Competence & language*: it is one's underlying knowledge of the system of a language-its rules of grammar, its vocabulary, all the pieces of a language and how those pieces fit together.
- ***Performance*** is the overtly observable and concrete manifestation or realization of competence. It is the actual production (speaking, writing) or the comprehension (listening, reading) of linguistic events.

Comprehension and Production

- These two aspects should not be confused with the competence/performance distinction; they are aspects of both performance and competence.
- In child language, most observational and research evidence points to the general superiority of comprehension over production: children seem to understand "more" than they actually produce.
- Even adults understand more vocabulary than they ever use in speech, and also perceive more syntactic variation than they actually produce.

Nature or Nurture?

- Nativists claim that a child is born with an innate knowledge of a predisposition toward language, and that this innate property (the LAD or UG) is universal in all human beings.
- Environmental factors cannot by any means be ignored.
- For years psychologists and educators have been embroiled in the "nature- nurture" controversy:
    - What are those behaviors that "nature" provides innately, in some sort of predetermined biological timetable?
    - and what are those behaviors that are, by environmental exposure - by "nurture,‖ by teaching - learned and internalized?
- Language acquisition is universal; every child acquires language. But how are the efficiency and success of that learning determined by the environment the child is in? or by the child's individual construction of linguistic reality in interaction with others?
- An interesting line of research on innateness was pursued by Derek Bickerton (1981), who found evidence, across a number of languages, of common patterns of linguistic and cognitive development.
- He proposed that human beings are "bio-programmed" to proceed from stage to stage. Like flowering plants, people are innately programmed to "release" certain properties of language at certain developmental ages. Just as we cannot make a geranium bloom before its "time," so human beings will "bloom" in predetermined, preprogrammed steps.

Universals

- It is a controversial area of study: the claim that language is universally acquired in the same manner, and that the deep structure of language at its deepest level may be common to all languages.
- Research on Universal Grammar continues to this day.
- One of the keys to such inquiry lies in research on child language acquisition across many different languages in order to determine the commonalities.
- *Areas of study:* word order, morphological marking tone, agreement (e.g., of subject and verb), reduced reference (e.g., pronouns, ellipsis) nouns and noun classes, verbs and verb classes, predication, negation, and question formation.

Systematicity and Variability

- One of the assumptions of a good deal of current research on child language is the systematicity of the process of acquisition.
- From pivot grammar … to full sentences of almost indeterminate length, children exhibit a remarkable ability to infer the phonological, structural, lexical, and semantic system of language.
- But in the midst of all this systematicity, there is an equally remarkable amount of variability in the process of learning.
- Researchers do not agree on how to define various "stages" of language acquisition, even in English.
- In both first and second language acquisition, the problem of variability is being carefully addressed by researchers.
- One of the major current research problems is to account for all this variability.

Language and Thought

- For years researchers have examined the relationship between language and cognition.

- Behaviorists think that cognition is too mentalistic to be studied by the scientific method.

- Piaget (1972) gives an opposing position. He claimed that cognitive development is at the very center of the human organism and that language is dependent upon and springs from cognitive development.

- Vygotsky (1962, 1978) claimed that social interaction, through language, is a prerequisite to cognitive development.

- Thought and language were seen as two distinct cognitive operations that grow together. (Schinkle-Llano 1993)

- One of the champions of the position that language affects thought was Benjamin Whorf, who with Edward Sapir formed the well-known Sapir Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity-namely, that each language imposes on its speaker a particular "world view."

- The issue at stake in child language acquisition is to determine how thought affects language, how language affects thought, and how linguists can best describe and account for the interaction of the two.

Imitation

- It is a common informal observation that children are good imitators. So we might think that imitation is one of the important strategies a child uses in the acquisition of language.
- This is not inaccurate on a global level. Indeed, research has shown that **echoing** is a particularly important strategy in early language learning and an important aspect of early phonological acquisition.
- There are two types of imitation:
    - Surface structure imitation: where a person repeats or mimics the surface strings, attending to a phonological code rather than a semantic code.
    - Deep structure imitation: where a person concentrates on language as a meaningful and communicative tool. (Brown, 2002, pp. 38-39)

Practice:

- Do children practice their language? If so, how? What is the role of the **frequency** of hearing and producing items in the acquisition of those items?
- A behavioristic view would claim that practice – repetition and association – is the key to the formation of habits by operant conditioning.
- Practice is usually thought of as referring to speaking only. But one can also think in terms of comprehension practice (the frequency of linguistic input to the child).
- Is the acquisition of particular words or structures directly attributable to their frequency in the child's linguistic environment?
- Brown and Hanlon (1970) found that the frequency of occurrence of a linguistic item in the speech of the mothers was a strong predictor of the order of emergence of those items in their children "speech.

Input

- The role of input in the child's acquisition of language is undeniably crucial. Whatever one's position is on the innateness of language, the speech that young children hear is primarily the speech heard in the home, and much of that speech is parental speech or the speech of older siblings.
- Children react very consistently to the deep structure and the communicative function of language, and they do not react overtly to expansions and grammatical corrections. Such input is largely ignored unless there is some truth or falsity that the child can attend to.
- What many researchers have showed is that in the long run, children will, after consistent, repeated models in meaningful contexts, eventually transfer correct forms to their own speech and thus correct past mistakes.

Discourse

- A subfield of research that is occupying the attention of an increase number of child language researchers, especially in an era of social constructivist research, is the area of **conversational** or **discourse** analysis.
- While parental input is a significant part of the child's development of conversational rules, it is only one aspect, as the child also interacts with peers and, of course, with other adults.

- While it used to be generally held that mere *exposure* to language is sufficient to set the child's language generating machinery in motion, it is now clear that, in order for successful first language acquisition to take place, *interaction*, rather than exposure, is required. Children do not learn language from overhearing the conversations of others or from listening to the radio and must, instead, acquire it in the context of being spoken to.
- While conversation is a universal human activity performed routinely in the course of daily living, the means by which children learn to take part in conversation appear to be very complex.

- How do children learn discourse rules? What are the key features children attend to? How do they detect pragmatic or intended meaning? How are gender roles acquired? These and other questions about the acquisition of discourse ability are slowly being answered in the research.

Several theories and issues in child language have been explored in this chapter with the purpose of both briefly characterizing the current state of child language research and of highlighting a few of the key concepts that emerge in the formation of an understanding of how babies learn to talk and eventually become sophisticated linguistic beings.

In the Classroom: Gouin and Berlitz – The First Reformers

According to (Brown, 2002), Francois Gouin and Charles Berlitz were the first two reformers of ―modern‖ language teaching. Their perspective observations about language teaching helped set the stage for the development of language teaching methodologies.

Francois Gouin:

See (Brown, 2002, pp. 43-44)

- The Series Method was created, a method that taught learners directly (without translation) and conceptually (without grammatical rules and explanations) a ―series‖ of connected sentences that are easy to understand. For instance,

I stretch out my arm. I take hold of the handle. I turn the handle. I open the door. I pull the door.

- Nevertheless, this approach to language learning was short-lived and, only a generation later, gave place to the Direct Method, posited by Charles Berlitz.

Charles Berlitz – The Direct Method

Overview

- The Berlitz Method is a variation of the Direct Method.
- The basic tenet of Berlitz's method was that second language learning is similar to first language learning. In this light, there should be lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation, and little if any analysis of grammatical rules and syntactic structures.
- The *direct method*, sometimes also called *natural method*, is a method that refrains from using the learners' native language and just uses the target language.
- The direct method operates on the idea that second language learning must be an imitation of first language learning, as this is the natural way humans learn any language - a child never relies on another language to learn its first language, and thus the mother tongue is not necessary to learn a foreign language.
- This method places great stress on correct pronunciation and the target language from outset. It advocates teaching of oral skills at the expense of every traditional aim of language teaching.
- According to this method, printed language and text must be kept away from second language learner for as long as possible, just as a first language learner does not use printed word until he has good grasp of speech.
- So, learning of writing and spelling should be delayed until after the printed word has been introduced
- Grammar and translation should also be avoided because this would involve the application of the

learner's first language.

- All above items must be avoided because they hinder the acquisition of a good oral proficiency

Characteristics:

Richard and Rodgers (1986) summarized the principles of the Direct Method:

- Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the target language
- Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught
- Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
- Grammar was taught inductively.
- New teaching points were introduced orally.
- Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary was taught by association of ideas.
- Both speech and listening comprehensions are taught.
- Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized.

History:

- The Direct Method enjoyed considerable popularity at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th.
- It was most widely accepted in private language schools were students were highly motivated and were native-speaking teachers could be employed. Today, Berlitz language schools are thriving in every country of the world.
- However, it was difficult to apply in public education, mainly because of the constraints of budget, time, classroom size, and teacher background.
- By the end of the first quarter of the 20th century, the use of this method had declined both in Europe and the US. Most language curricula returned back to the Grammar Translation Method or to a ―reading approach‖ that emphasized reading skills in foreign languages.
- Yet, after a period of decline, in the middle of the 20th century, this method has been revived, leading to the emergence of the Audiolingual Method.

Second Language Acquisition

Language is the method of expressing ideas and emotions in the form of signs and symbols. These signs and symbols are used to encode and decode the information. There are many languages spoken in the

world. The first language learned by a baby is his or her mother tongue. It is the language, which he or she listens to from his or her birth. Any other language learned or acquired is known as the second language. Second language acquisition, or SLA, has two meanings. In a general sense it is a term to describe learning a second language. More specifically, it is the name of the theory of the process by which we acquire - or pick up - a second language. This is mainly a subconscious process which happens while we focus on communication. It can be compared with second language learning, which describes how formal language education helps us learn language through more conscious processes. Implications for the language classroom include the ideas that the teacher can create contexts for communication which facilitate acquisition, that there is a natural order of acquisition of language, that there are affective filters which inhibit acquisition, especially for adults, and that comprehensible input is very important.

Second Language Acquisition

The definition of second language acquisition and learning is learning and acquisition of a second language once the mother tongue or first language acquisition is established. It is the systematic study of how people learn a language other than their mother tongue. Second language acquisition or SLA is the process of learning other languages in addition to the native language. For instance, a child who speaks Hindi as the mother tongue starts learning English when he starts going to school. English is learned by the process of second language acquisition. In fact, a young child can learn a second language faster than an adult can learn the same language.

Second Language Learning

Language learning refers to the formal learning of a language in the classroom. On the other hand, language acquisition means acquiring the language with little or no formal training or learning. If you go to a foreign land where people speak a different language Second Language Acquisition from your native language, you need to acquire that foreign language. It can be done with little formal learning of the language through your everyday interaction with the native peoples in the market place, work place, parks or anywhere else. This is true for learning spoken language.

Language Acquisition and Language Learning

Learners acquire language through a subconscious process during which they are unaware of grammatical rules. This happens especially when they acquire their first language. They repeat what is said to them and get a feel for what is and what is not correct. In order to acquire a language, they need a source of natural communication, which is usually the mother, the father, or the caregiver. Language learning, on the other hand, is the result of direct instruction in the rules of language. Language learning is not an age-appropriate activity for very young children as learning presupposes that learners have a conscious knowledge of the new language and can talk about that knowledge. They usually have a basic knowledge of the grammar.

Acquisition:

- unconscious process
- does not presuppose teaching.
- Second Language Acquisition:
- the child controls the pace.

Learning:

- intentional process
- presupposes teaching.
- the teacher controls the pace.

History of Second Language Theories and Approach

Behaviourist Theory

According to the behaviorist perspective of the 1950s and 1960s, language learning is viewed as the development of habits based on the concepts of stimulus and response. If the desired result is attained, people's responses to environmental stimuli will be reinforced.

Through constant reinforcement, a certain stimulus will consistently evoke the same reaction, which will eventually turn into a habit. We already have a set of standard replies in our mother tongue that we can use when learning a second language. Therefore, replacing existing habits with a set of new ones is a key component of the L2 learning process. The problem is that the old L1 habits get in the way of this process, either facilitating it or impeding development. Learning will be simple if the L2's structural similarities to the L1's are great. However, learning will be Second Language Acquisition: challenging if structures are experienced differently in the L1 and the L2. The consequences of this method for teaching had two different effects.

First, by repeatedly imitating and using the same structures, language would be learned (it was strongly believed that practise makes perfect). Second, teachers should concentrate their lessons on areas where L1 and L2 diverge. In order to identify regions of difference, researchers also set out to compare pairs of languages. This process was known as contrast analysis (CA).

Behaviorist Learning Theory

Theories of how habits form were generally learning theories. When a certain stimulus and a specific response were consistently associated, a habit was established. The study of languages was approached using these approaches. Children were supposed to acquire their first language (L1) by mimicking adult speech and having their attempts to use language either praised or corrected. SLA was also thought to be capable of proceeding similarly. The learner recognised the stimulus-response association that made up the L2 habits

through imitation and reinforcement. When the task was divided into a number of stimulus-response links that could be methodically performed and mastered one at a time, L2 learning was most successful.

Language creativity is criticised because youngsters don't learn and repeat a vast number of sentences; instead, they make up fresh sentences that they have never heard before. Only because they internalise rules rather than lists of words is this feasible. (For instance, Mummy went; it broke.)

Monitor Model Theory

The Monitor Model is a theory of second language acquisition developed by Stephen Krashen. The theory proposes that there are two ways that a person can learn a second language: acquisition and learning. According to the model, acquisition is an unconscious process, similar to the way a child acquires their first language, while learning is a conscious process, where rules and vocabulary are studied and memorized.

The "monitor" in the model refers to the conscious application of language rules, which is used to edit and improve communication when necessary. The monitor is only used when the person has enough time to think about what they want to say, when they are focused on accuracy, and when they have the linguistic knowledge needed to make the necessary corrections.

The theory also suggests that a language-rich environment, where the target language is used for meaningful communication, is the most effective way for language acquisition to occur. Krashen also stresses the importance of reducing anxiety in language learners, as a relaxed state of mind is more conducive to acquisition.

Natural order Hypothesis

According to the Natural Order Hypothesis, humans learn linguistic norms in a predictable order, with some coming early and others later (Krashen 1985). This "natural" order of acquisition is thought to emerge from the acquired system operating without any external influences.

Grammar with awareness, or the Monitor. The so-called "morpheme investigations" are the main source of proof supporting the Natural Order Hypothesis (Dulay and Burt 1974)

Krashen also asserted that the evolution of the negative, the auxiliary system, inquiries, and inflections in English followed a "natural" order. Finally, Krashen's support for the Natural Order Hypothesis is mostly based on morpheme studies, which have received criticism for a number of reasons and which, by concentrating on final form, reveal little about acquisitional sequences.

The Input Hypothesis

According to this theory, there is only one way that people may learn to speak a language: via obtaining "comprehensible input," or by comprehending messages...

By comprehending input containing the number i+1, we advance from level I where we currently are, to level i+1, the next level in the natural order (Krashen 1985). Krashen's suggestion that speaking not be taught directly or very quickly in language classes is a crucial component of the Input Hypothesis. Once the acquirer has accumulated enough understandable input (i+1), speech will "emerge." The path to acquisition is through comprehensible input, and when the input is comprehensible, knowledge about the grammar of the target language is readily available.

Evidence: the silent period, when students are ostensibly improving their listening comprehension of the target language. According to Krashen, they are using the "comprehensible input" they are given. Speech starts to develop once competence has been established.

The Natural Approach

Communication competence, also known as functional language ability, results through exposure to a language in contexts where its meanings are understood. Not as they are presented or encountered, rules, patterns, vocabulary, and other language forms are gradually ingrained in the learner's repertoire as a result of exposure to understandable information.

Krashen asserted that the required grammar is automatically provided if the input is comprehended and there is enough of it. Speaking is an outcome of acquisition rather than its origin.

Communication in a second language cannot be taught directly; rather, it "emerges" as a result of competence development through intelligible information. Speaking is not important for learning a second language, according to Krashen. According to him, the speaker's output just serves as an additional source of understandable input. According to some experts, simply comprehending new forms is insufficient; learners also need the chance to create them. According to Swain (1985), "comprehensible output" is crucial. Talking can help students learn.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The Affective Filter Hypothesis states that second-language learners may not use understandable input if a "mental wall" stops them from fully benefiting from it (Krashen 1985). When the affective filter is "down," input passes through and becomes acquired competence; when the filter is "up," the input is blocked and does not pass through the LAD. In accordance with Krashen, acquirers must be receptive to information; otherwise, even though the learner may comprehend what is seen and read, the input will not reach the LAD. When the acquirer lacks motivation, confidence, or is worried about failing, this happens. When the acquirer is unconcerned and committed to joining the group speaking the target language, the filter is down. On fundamental tenets like the necessity of transitioning from grammar-based to communicatively oriented

language instruction, the significance of affective factors in language learning, and the significance of acquisitional sequences in the development of second languages, many researchers concur with Krashen.

The rationalism/ cognitive approach (the 1960s-1970s):

By taking a logical approach, cognitive psychologists seek to understand the deeper causes and patterns of human behaviour. To find explanations for human behaviour, they used the reasoning, logic, extrapolation, and inference skills. They argued that meaningfulness, comprehension, and knowledge were crucial pieces of information for psychological research. Language acquisition is predisposed to humans from birth, according to the theory that it is innately determined (LAD: language acquisition device). According to Chomsky, natural languages are governed by extremely complicated and abstract principles that are not immediately apparent in actual utterances (surface structure). The youngster would not be able to learn these rules if he or she was entirely dependent on the information provided in the input. The infant must therefore have a set of innate principles that direct language processing. These ideas make up Universal Grammar, the linguistic traits and procedures that all speakers of natural languages and all language learners have in common. The process of a child's language acquisition does not involve the production of ever-fewer erroneous structures. Instead, a kid's language is systematic at any age because it involves the child constantly formulating hypotheses based on the data it receives and then testing those ideas. These theories are continuously changed, moulded, and occasionally abandoned as the child's linguistic skills advance. Following in the footsteps of the 1980s and 1990s, new connections have been made with cognitive science (the role of consciousness), neuropsychology (brain modularity, the left hemisphere is linked to logical, analytical thought, and mathematical and linear information processing), and other fields. In addition, sociocultural frameworks have substantially improved our understanding of the many dimensions of second language learning. The right hemisphere perceives and remembers visual, tactile, and aural images.

Constructivism: (the 1980s-200)

Constructivists argue that all human beings construct their own vision of reality, and therefore multiple contrasting ways knowing and describing are equally legitimate.

Cognitive factors of second language acquisition

Intelligence:

It is abundantly obvious that L2 students who score above average on formal IQ tests typically perform well in L2 learning. Gardner (1983) identified five additional forms of intelligence in addition to the traditional definition and measurement of intelligence in terms of linguistic and logical-mathematical abilities (IQ). These additional forms of intelligence include: (3) spatial intelligence (to navigate an environment), (4) musical intelligence (to recognise and create pitch and rhythmic patterns), (5) bodily-kinesthetic intelligence (athletic prowess), and (6) interpersonal intelligence (to comprehend others, how they f Gardner's broad definition of

intelligence makes it easier to identify a connection between intelligence and second language acquisition. For instance, musical intelligence may help to explain why some learners perceive and produce a language's intonation patterns with relative ease.

The process of communication obviously benefits from interpersonal competence.

Language aptitude

(Is there really a gift for language learning that comes along with general intelligence?) Many subskills are seen to be indicators of L2 learning performance, including: 1) The capacity for phonetic coding, 2) the awareness of grammar, 3) the capacity for memory, and 4) the capacity for inductive language. A separate.

Key concepts in second language acquisition

- Input: The language exposure a learner receives in the target language.
- Interlanguage: The learner's developing language system that is distinct from both their native language and the target language.
- Affective Filter Hypothesis: Emotional states can influence language acquisition by raising or lowering a learner's willingness to take risks and engage with the target language.
- Errors: Deviations from the target language that are natural and expected in the language acquisition process.
- Transfer: The influence of a learner's first language on their second language acquisition.
- Motivation: A learner's level of interest, desire, and drive to learn a second language.
- Task-based Language Teaching: An approach that focuses on using language to complete meaningful tasks and achieve real-life objectives.
- Output: The language that learners produce in response to input and their own internal processing.
- Social Context: The social environment in which language acquisition takes place, including the relationships and power dynamics among interlocutors.
- Multiple Intelligences: The idea that individuals have multiple ways of processing and understanding information, including linguistic and interpersonal intelligences.

Language and Cognition

Language and cognition are interrelated concepts that play a significant role in human communication and thought. Language is a system of symbols, signs, or sounds that people use to convey information and ideas to one another. It enables us to express thoughts, ideas, and emotions, and to exchange information with others.

Cognition, on the other hand, refers to the mental processes involved in acquiring, storing, processing, and using information. These processes include perception, attention, memory, reasoning, and problem-

solving. The relationship between language and cognition is complex and bidirectional, as language influences and is influenced by cognitive processes.

For example, our ability to use language influences how we perceive and categorize information in our environment. Conversely, our understanding of the world influences the way we use language to express our thoughts and ideas. Overall, language and cognition are key components of human communication and thought, and they interact and influence each other in many ways.

Key concepts in language and cognition

- Attention: The ability to focus on relevant information and ignore irrelevant information is critical in language learning.
- Memory: Language learners need to store new vocabulary, grammar rules, and pronunciation in their long-term memory.
- Schema theory: Schema theory suggests that prior knowledge and experiences influence the way language is processed and acquired.
- Input and Output: The balance between the input (language exposure) and output (language production) is crucial for language learning.
- Motivation: Motivation is a key factor in language learning and can influence the learner's attention, memory, and language processing.
- Metacognition: Metacognition refers to an awareness and understanding of one's own cognitive processes and their impact on language learning.
- Transfer: Transfer refers to the influence of an individual's first language on their second language learning and vice versa.
- Interlanguage: Interlanguage is a term used to describe the intermediate stage of language learning, characterized by language forms that are unique to the learner.
- Error Analysis: Error analysis is the systematic study of language learner errors to understand the underlying cognitive and linguistic processes involved in language acquisition.
- These concepts highlight the complex interplay between language and cognition in language learning, and the importance of considering both cognitive and linguistic factors in language instruction and assessment.

Key theorists in Cognition and Language

There have been many influential theorists in the field of language and cognition. Here are a few of the most prominent:

- Noam Chomsky: Chomsky is one of the most influential linguists of the 20th century. He proposed the theory of Universal Grammar, which suggests that all human beings have an innate capacity for language.
- Lev Vygotsky: Vygotsky was a Russian psychologist who proposed the theory of socio-cultural development. He argued that language and thought are intertwined and that language plays a crucial role in cognitive development.
- Jean Piaget: Piaget was a Swiss psychologist who developed a theory of cognitive development. He argued that children actively construct their understanding of the world through their experiences and interactions with others.
- Steven Pinker: Pinker is a contemporary psychologist and linguist who has written extensively on language and cognition. He is known for his work on the evolutionary psychology of language and the nature vs. nurture debate in language development.
- Lera Boroditsky: Boroditsky is a cognitive psychologist who has studied the ways in which language and culture shape thought and perception.

These theorists have made significant contributions to our understanding of the interplay between language and cognition, and their work continues to shape the field today.

Concepts of Cognition and Language

Cognition and language are two closely related concepts in the field of psychology and cognitive science. Cognition refers to the mental processes involved in acquiring, processing, and using information. These processes include perception, attention, memory, problem-solving, and decision-making.

Language, on the other hand, is a complex system of communication that allows us to express and share information, ideas, and emotions. It is a symbolic system that consists of sounds, words, grammar, and meaning.

Language is closely tied to cognition because it plays a critical role in shaping and organizing our thoughts and experiences. It allows us to categorize and label objects and events, to reason and make inferences, and to communicate and share information with others.

The relationship between cognition and language is complex and bidirectional. On one hand, language can influence cognition, shaping our thoughts and experiences in specific ways. On the other hand, cognition can also influence language, allowing us to use language more effectively and to communicate in new and creative ways.

In summary, cognition refers to the mental processes involved in acquiring, processing, and using information, while language is a complex system of communication that allows us to express and share

information, ideas, and emotions. The relationship between cognition and language is complex and bidirectional, with each influencing the other.

The Cognitive Neuroscience movement

The cognitive neuroscience movement is an interdisciplinary field that aims to understand the relationship between the brain and human cognition. It combines insights from neuroscience, psychology, computer science, and other disciplines to study the neural mechanisms underlying mental processes such as perception, attention, memory, language, emotion, and decision-making.

The cognitive neuroscience movement emerged in the late 20th century and has since become a rapidly growing field of research, with numerous advances in our understanding of the brain and its functions. Researchers in this field use techniques such as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), electroencephalography (EEG), and transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) to study the brain, and they integrate findings from these techniques with computational models of brain function to better understand the underlying mechanisms of cognitive processes.

One of the key contributions of the cognitive neuroscience movement has been to challenge the traditional separation between the study of the mind and the study of the brain. The field has shown that the workings of the mind can be understood in terms of the activity of specific brain regions and the interactions between them.

The cognitive neuroscience movement has also had a significant impact on the field of psychology, leading to the development of new theories and treatments for a range of psychological disorders, including depression, anxiety, and schizophrenia. Additionally, the field has contributed to the advancement of artificial intelligence and robotics, helping to develop machines that can better understand and interact with humans.

In summary, the cognitive neuroscience movement is a rapidly growing field that combines insights from multiple disciplines to study the relationship between the brain and human cognition. It has made significant contributions to our understanding of the brain and its functions, and has had a profound impact on many fields, including psychology, medicine, and artificial intelligence.

Connectionism

Connectionism is a paradigm in the field of artificial intelligence and cognitive science that proposes that the mind is a network of simple, interconnected processing units. It is based on the idea that complex cognitive processes, such as perception, memory, and language, can emerge from the interactions of many simple processing units.

The basic idea behind connectionism is that these processing units are connected by pathways or "weights" that determine the strength of their interactions. The strength of these connections can change through learning and experience, allowing the system to adapt and improve over time.

One of the key features of connectionism is that it emphasizes the distributed nature of mental processes. In other words, different parts of the brain contribute to different aspects of cognition, and these contributions are not fixed or static, but instead depend on the current task and the current state of the system.

Connectionism has been influential in the development of artificial neural networks, which are computer programs that simulate the structure and function of the brain. These networks have been used to model a wide range of cognitive processes, from simple sensory processing to complex decision-making.

In summary, connectionism is a paradigm in artificial intelligence and cognitive science that proposes that the mind is a network of simple, interconnected processing units. It emphasizes the distributed nature of mental processes and has been influential in the development of artificial neural networks.

Disabilities

Language learning can be challenging for individuals with disabilities, as some disabilities may affect an individual's ability to process and understand language. However, with appropriate support and accommodations, many individuals with disabilities can learn to communicate effectively using language.

Some disabilities that may affect language learning include:

Developmental disabilities: These disabilities, such as autism spectrum disorder, intellectual disability, and developmental delay, can impact an individual's ability to understand and use language.

Speech and language disorders: These disabilities, such as stuttering, articulation disorders, and language disorders, can impact an individual's ability to produce speech sounds or to use language in a meaningful way.

Hearing loss: Hearing loss can impact an individual's ability to hear and understand spoken language, making it more difficult for them to learn a new language.

Visual impairments: Visual impairments can impact an individual's ability to see and understand written language, making it more difficult for them to learn to read and write in a new language.

Despite these challenges, many individuals with disabilities can still learn a new language with the right support and accommodations. These can include:

Adaptive technology: Assistive technology, such as hearing aids or text-to-speech software, can help individuals with disabilities to access and understand language.

Multisensory approaches: Multisensory approaches, such as using visual aids or hands-on activities, can help individuals with disabilities to engage with and understand language.

Modifications to instructional materials: Modifying instructional materials, such as using larger text or simplifying language, can help individuals with disabilities to access and understand language.

In conclusion, while language learning can be challenging for individuals with disabilities, with appropriate support and accommodations, many can still learn to communicate effectively using language.

Types of Learning Disabilities

Learning disabilities are neurological conditions that affect an individual's ability to process and understand information. There are several different types of learning disabilities, including:

- **Dyslexia:** A specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to read, write, and spell.
  Dyslexia is a specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to read, write, and spell. It is a neurobiological disorder that interferes with an individual's ability to process language, making it difficult for them to decode words and understand written text.
  Symptoms of dyslexia can vary, but common signs include difficulty with reading, writing, and spelling, as well as difficulties with phonological processing (the ability to break words down into sounds) and phonemic awareness (the ability to manipulate sounds in words). Individuals with dyslexia may also have trouble with tasks that require them to recall information from memory, such as remembering lists or following instructions.
  It is important to note that dyslexia is not related to intelligence and that individuals with dyslexia can have average or above-average intelligence. Dyslexia is also not related to vision problems or a lack of motivation, and it cannot be cured. However, with the right support and accommodations, individuals with dyslexia can learn to read, write, and spell effectively.
  Treatment for dyslexia typically involves specialized educational interventions and accommodations, such as individualized reading instruction, use of assistive technology, and modifications to instructional materials. In some cases, medications may also be used to address related symptoms, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).
  In conclusion, dyslexia is a specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to read, write, and spell. It is a neurobiological disorder that is not related to intelligence, vision problems, or a lack of motivation, but with the right support and accommodations, individuals with dyslexia can learn to read, write, and spell effectively.
- **Dyscalculia:** A specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to understand and perform mathematical calculations.

Dyscalculia is a specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to understand and perform mathematical calculations. It is a neurobiological disorder that interferes with an individual's ability to process mathematical information and make sense of numbers, making it difficult for them to perform even basic arithmetic operations.

Symptoms of dyscalculia can vary, but common signs include difficulty with basic arithmetic, such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division; difficulties with understanding mathematical concepts and symbols; and difficulties with solving mathematical problems, even when given a step-by-step procedure. Individuals with dyscalculia may also have trouble with tasks that require them to recall mathematical information from memory, such as remembering mathematical facts or formulas.

It is important to note that dyscalculia is not related to intelligence and that individuals with dyscalculia can have average or above-average intelligence. Dyscalculia is also not related to a lack of motivation or effort, and it cannot be cured. However, with the right support and accommodations, individuals with dyscalculia can learn to perform mathematical calculations effectively.

Treatment for dyscalculia typically involves specialized educational interventions and accommodations, such as individualized math instruction, use of assistive technology, and modifications to instructional materials. In some cases, medications may also be used to address related symptoms, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).

In conclusion, dyscalculia is a specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to understand and perform mathematical calculations. It is a neurobiological disorder that is not related to intelligence or a lack of motivation or effort, but with the right support and accommodations, individuals with dyscalculia can learn to perform mathematical calculations effectively.

- **Dysgraphia:** A specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to write, including difficulties with handwriting, spelling, and organizing written ideas.

Dysgraphia is a specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to write. It is a neurobiological disorder that interferes with an individual's ability to translate their thoughts into written words, making it difficult for them to produce written work that is legible, organized, and grammatically correct.

Symptoms of dysgraphia can vary, but common signs include difficulties with writing legibly, such as inconsistent letter formation, incorrect spacing between letters and words, and difficulty with proper letter sizing; difficulties with organizing written work, such as poor paragraph structure, poor spelling, and poor grammar; and difficulties with fine motor control, such as difficulty with holding a pencil or difficulty with maintaining a consistent writing speed.

It is important to note that dysgraphia is not related to intelligence and that individuals with dysgraphia can have average or above-average intelligence. Dysgraphia is also not related to a lack of motivation

or effort, and it cannot be cured. However, with the right support and accommodations, individuals with dysgraphia can learn to write effectively.

Treatment for dysgraphia typically involves specialized educational interventions and accommodations, such as individualized writing instruction, use of assistive technology, and modifications to instructional materials. In some cases, medications may also be used to address related symptoms, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).

In conclusion, dysgraphia is a specific learning disability that affects an individual's ability to write. It is a neurobiological disorder that is not related to intelligence or a lack of motivation or effort, but with the right support and accommodations, individuals with dysgraphia can learn to write effectively.

- **ADHD (Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder):** A neurodevelopmental disorder that affects an individual's ability to focus, control impulsive behaviors, and pay attention.

  Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by symptoms of inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsiveness that can interfere with daily functioning. It is one of the most commonly diagnosed behavioral disorders in children, and it can also affect adults.

  Symptoms of ADHD in children can include difficulty paying attention, forgetfulness, easily distractibility, difficulty following through on instructions, constant fidgeting or squirming, excessive talking, and impulsive behavior. In adults, symptoms may include restlessness, impulsiveness, forgetfulness, and difficulty organizing and completing tasks.

  ADHD is thought to be caused by a combination of genetic and environmental factors, including brain development and function, and exposure to toxins and other environmental factors. It is typically diagnosed by a mental health professional using criteria established by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5).

  Treatment for ADHD typically involves a combination of medication and behavioral therapy. Medications commonly used to treat ADHD include stimulants, such as Ritalin and Adderall, and non-stimulant medications, such as Strattera. Behavioral therapy may include individual or family therapy, parent training, and skills training.

  In conclusion, ADHD is a neurodevelopmental disorder characterized by symptoms of inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsiveness that can interfere with daily functioning. It is a complex condition caused by a combination of genetic and environmental factors, and it is typically treated with a combination of medication and behavioral therapy.

- Auditory Processing Disorder: A condition that affects an individual's ability to process and understand auditory information, such as speech and other sounds.

Auditory Processing Disorder (APD) is a condition that affects an individual's ability to process auditory information, even though they have normal hearing abilities. APD can make it difficult for individuals to understand speech, especially in noisy or distracting environments, or to follow complex auditory instructions.

The symptoms of APD can be similar to those of other conditions, such as ADHD or language-based learning disorders, making it important to get an accurate diagnosis. APD can be diagnosed through a variety of tests that measure different aspects of auditory processing, such as speech perception, sound localization, and temporal processing.

Treatment for APD typically involves a combination of strategies, including auditory training, speech and language therapy, and educational interventions. Auditory training may involve listening to sounds that are gradually made more complex and challenging, while speech and language therapy may focus on improving language and communication skills. Educational interventions may involve modifying the learning environment, such as reducing background noise or providing extra time for tests.

In conclusion, Auditory Processing Disorder (APD) is a condition that affects an individual's ability to process auditory information even though they have normal hearing abilities. It can make it difficult to understand speech and follow complex auditory instructions. APD is diagnosed through tests that measure different aspects of auditory processing, and treatment typically involves a combination of auditory training, speech and language therapy, and educational interventions.

- **Visual Processing Disorder:** A condition that affects an individual's ability to process and understand visual information, such as what they see in a book or on a computer screen.

Visual Processing Disorder (VPD), also known as Visual Perception Disorder, is a condition that affects an individual's ability to process and understand visual information. It can result in difficulties with tasks such as reading, writing, and recognizing objects.

Symptoms of VPD can include difficulty with visual discrimination, visual memory, visual spatial relationships, and visual-motor coordination. Individuals with VPD may also have difficulty with visual closure, where they have difficulty recognizing an object if parts of it are missing or if it is partially obscured.

VPD can be diagnosed through a comprehensive evaluation by an optometrist or neuro-optometrist, who will use tests to evaluate visual skills, including visual acuity, eye tracking, and visual memory.

Treatment for VPD typically involves a combination of vision therapy, which is a type of physical therapy for the eyes, and educational interventions. Vision therapy may involve exercises to improve eye movements, visual attention, and visual processing, while educational interventions may

involve modifications to the learning environment, such as the use of visual aids or additional time for tests.

In conclusion, Visual Processing Disorder (VPD) is a condition that affects an individual's ability to process and understand visual information, resulting in difficulties with tasks such as reading, writing, and recognizing objects. It can be diagnosed through a comprehensive evaluation, and treatment typically involves a combination of vision therapy and educational interventions.

- **Nonverbal Learning Disability:** A condition that affects an individual's ability to understand nonverbal cues, such as body language and facial expressions.

Nonverbal Learning Disability (NLD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder that affects an individual's ability to understand and process nonverbal information, such as body language, facial expressions, and gestures. It can also result in difficulties with spatial perception, coordination, and social interaction.

Individuals with NLD may have difficulty with tasks such as reading social cues, recognizing sarcasm or irony, and navigating unfamiliar environments. They may also struggle with math and fine motor skills, and they may have difficulty expressing their emotions and needs in a socially appropriate way.

Diagnosis of NLD typically involves a comprehensive evaluation by a neurologist, psychologist, or developmental pediatrician, who will use standardized tests and behavioral observations to evaluate the individual's strengths and weaknesses.

Treatment for NLD typically involves a combination of strategies, including speech and language therapy, social skills training, and educational interventions. Speech and language therapy may focus on improving communication skills, while social skills training may focus on teaching appropriate social behaviors and coping strategies. Educational interventions may involve modifications to the learning environment, such as the use of visual aids or additional time for tests.

In conclusion, Nonverbal Learning Disability (NLD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder that affects an individual's ability to understand and process nonverbal information and results in difficulties with social interaction, spatial perception, coordination, and expression of emotions. It is diagnosed through a comprehensive evaluation, and treatment typically involves a combination of speech and language therapy, social skills training, and educational interventions.

Questions to reflect your learning.

[1] What is the relationship between language and thought? How does our language influence the way we think and understand the world?

[2] What is the role of language in socialization? How does language help us to develop our identities and form relationships with others?

[3] What is language acquisition, and how does it occur? How do children learn to speak, and what factors influence this process?

[4] How does language change over time? What are some of the historical, social, and linguistic factors that contribute to language change?

[5] What is the relationship between language and power? How is language used to maintain or challenge power structures, and what are the implications of this for society?

[6] What is the relationship between language and culture? How does language reflect cultural values, beliefs, and practices, and how does it help to transmit cultural knowledge from one generation to the next?

[7] What is the relationship between language and identity? How does language reflect and shape our identities, and how do our identities shape the way we use language?

[8] What is the role of linguistics in language education? How can a better understanding of linguistics help us to develop more effective language teaching and learning strategies?

[9] What are the stages of first language acquisition, and what happens at each stage?

[10] What is the role of interaction and exposure in first language acquisition? How does the input that children receive influence the development of their language?

[11] What is the influence of nature versus nurture in first language acquisition? How do genetics and environment interact to shape language development?

[12] What is the relationship between first language acquisition and cognitive development? How does language acquisition support and shape other aspects of development, such as attention, memory, and problem-solving?

[13] What is the impact of bilingualism and multilingualism on first language acquisition? How does exposure to multiple languages influence the way that children learn and use language?

[14] What are the implications of first language acquisition for language teaching and learning? How can our understanding of first language acquisition inform language teaching practices and policies?

[15] What is the role of play in first language acquisition? How does play support the development of language and other skills, such as social interaction, imagination, and creativity?

[16] What is the impact of technology on first language acquisition? How does the use of digital media and devices shape the way that children learn and use language, and what are the implications of this for language development?

[17] What are the key factors that influence second language acquisition, such as age, motivation, and the language learning environment?

[18] What is the relationship between first language acquisition and second language acquisition? How do the skills and knowledge that we develop in our first language influence the way that we learn and use a second language?

[19] What are the different theories of second language acquisition, and what are the strengths and weaknesses of each theory?

[20] What is the role of interaction and input in second language acquisition? How does the quality and quantity of input that second language learners receive influence their language development?

[21] What is the impact of technology on second language acquisition? How does the use of digital media and devices support or hinder language learning, and what are the implications of this for language teaching and learning?

[22] What are the challenges and benefits of bilingualism and multilingualism for second language acquisition? How does being able to speak multiple languages shape our lives and our perspectives on the world?

[23] What is the role of motivation in second language acquisition? How does motivation influence the way that we approach language learning, and what strategies can be used to sustain motivation over time?

[24] What is the relationship between second language acquisition and identity? How does learning a second language shape our sense of self and our relationships with others, and what are the implications of this for language education?

[25] What is the role of attention and memory in language learning? How do these cognitive processes support and shape the development of language abilities?

[26] What is the impact of metacognition on language learning? How does being aware of one's own learning and monitoring one's progress influence the way that we approach language learning?

[27] What is the relationship between language learning and problem-solving? How do language learners use their problem-solving skills to navigate the complexities of language and build their competence in a new language?

[28] What is the role of executive function in language learning? How do the cognitive skills involved in planning, attention, and working memory support language development?

[29] What is the impact of language exposure on cognitive development? How does exposure to language

shape other aspects of development, such as attention, memory, and problem-solving?

[30] What is the relationship between language and thought? How do our language abilities shape the way that we think and perceive the world?

[31] "What is the impact of bilingualism and multilingualism on cognition? How does being able to speak multiple languages influence other aspects of cognitive development, such as attention, memory, and problem-solving?

[32] What is the role of experience and exposure in cognitive development? How does the nature of our experiences and the input that we receive shape our cognitive abilities and the way that we think and learn??

[33] What are the challenges and barriers that individuals with disabilities face in language learning, and how can these be addressed to support their language development?

[34] What is the impact of specific learning disabilities, such as dyslexia or ADHD, on language learning? How can these be addressed in language education and what support can be provided to help individuals with these disabilities succeed in language learning?

[35] What is the role of technology in supporting language learning for individuals with disabilities? How can digital tools and resources be used to improve access and support for language learners with disabilities?

[36] What is the relationship between language learning and socialization for individuals with disabilities? How does language proficiency impact social and emotional development, and what strategies can be used to support the social and emotional well-being of language learners with disabilities?

[37] What are the best practices for accommodating the needs of language learners with disabilities in language education? How can language teachers and program designers support the success of these learners in the language classroom?

[38] What is the role of family and community in supporting language learning for individuals with disabilities? How can parents, caregivers, and community organizations work together to provide the resources and support needed for language development?

[39] What is the impact of language learning on employment and economic outcomes for individuals with disabilities? How can language proficiency help to improve employment opportunities and support economic independence for individuals with disabilities?

Unit-II

Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion and coherence are two important concepts in written and spoken language that refer to the relationships between words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs in a text.

Cohesion refers to the ways in which individual elements in a text are connected to each other to create a unified and coherent whole. This can be achieved through the use of linguistic devices such as reference words, conjunctions, and transitional expressions. Cohesion helps to ensure that a text is easily understandable, and that its meaning is clear to the reader or listener.

Coherence, on the other hand, refers to the overall organization and structure of a text. It involves the arrangement of ideas, information, and arguments in a logical and meaningful manner, so that the text is easy to follow and makes sense as a whole. A text that is coherent is typically well-organized, with a clear beginning, middle, and end, and a well-supported argument or point of view.

Both cohesion and coherence are important in written and spoken language as they help to ensure that a text is clear, meaningful, and easy to understand. They also help to create a sense of unity and flow in the text, making it more engaging and enjoyable to read or listen to. In academic writing, coherence and cohesion are crucial to ensure that the writer's argument is well-supported and that the text is accessible to the intended audience.

Cohesion and coherence in academic writing:

The terms cohesion and coherence are related to making the sense of language in the text/discourse analysis. Cohesion and coherence have significant role in the interpretation of message, and in the negotiation of meaning in the discourse. A good academic writing requires a good combination of cohesive ties and coherent features in the text. The paragraphs below attempt to introduce cohesion and coherence, and their role in communicating messages in the text.

Cohesion:

Cohesion, like other semantic relations such as synonymy, antonymy, polysemy, is the relationship of meaning of one item with another item/s in the text or discourse. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), ―Cohesion refers to the relations of meaning that exist within the text, and is expressed through the stratal organization of the text… It occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the text is dependent on that of another‖ (p 4). Taboada (2004) defines cohesion as ‗the internal hanging together of the text'. To Yule (2008) ‗Cohesion is the tie and connection that exist within the text'. It is the part of the system of a language; a type of intra-sentence relation of an item with either the preceding or following item/s in the text. In communication process, cohesion gives insights into how the writer structures what he/she wants to convey.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) view that cohesion is expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary in the text. It is therefore, there can be two types of cohesion: grammatical cohesion, and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is the cohesive tie that is expressed through the grammatical system of a language such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Followings are the illustrative examples that show the cohesive tie in italics in each:

(i) Wow, how beautiful flower vessel! How much does it cost? [reference]

(ii) You are going to attend the party? If so, what about these agenda? [substitution]

(iii) We can buy those apples if we need to (buy those apples). [ellipsis]

(iv) He passed the exam. However, he did not obtain A plus. [conjunction]

Lexical cohesion, on the other hand, is ‗the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p 274). Lexical cohesion can be realized in reiteration (using the same, or semantically related vocabulary such as repetition, synonym, superordinate, general word) and in collocation (co-occurrence of lexical items). Followings are the examples showing cohesive tie in italics.

(i) **Reiteration:** I have *a puppy*. *The puppy* is black. [Repetition]

I have *a puppy*. *The pup* is black. [Synonym]
I have *a puppy*. *The animal* is black. [Superordinate]

I have *a puppy*. *The baby* dog is black. [General word]

(ii) **Collocation:** With their hammer-nail relation, the boys won the match.

Coherence:

A text is formed not only with the structured string of words, but also with the contextual occurrence of the sentences. Coherence, generally, is the contextual appearance of the utterances in the text. More specifically, it is the contextual fitness of in the text that contributes in understanding the meaning or message. According to Taboada (2004), ―Coherence is the hanging together of the text with relation to its context of situation or culture‖ (p. 158). Yule (2008) views, ―Coherence is everything fitting together well, and it is not something that exists in words or structures, but something that exists in people‖ (p 126). Coherence is the result of the interpretation of the meaning of the text, and it depends on the relation between the audience and the text (Tanskanen, 2006). It is therefore, the coherence of a text can be perceived only if the receiver's background knowledge is sufficient enough to interpret the linkage of messages in the discourse. The examples below show the coherent, and non-coherent texts:

(i) A text with coherence: A: Did you bring the car?
B: Yes, I brought it yesterday.

(ii) A text with no coherence: A: Where did you go last week?

B: That sounds good. My brother paints it.

Coherence and cohesion for communication:

We have discussed that cohesion is the intra-text connectedness of the items, and coherence is the appropriateness of the contextual occurrence of the text so as to make the sense of the message conveyed. In cohesion, the surface elements appear connectedly, whereas in coherence, the elements of knowledge or sense appear to form conceptual connectivity.

Some researchers such as Morgan and Sellner (1980), Carrell (1982) claim that cohesion is not sufficient enough to make a text connected or appear a unified whole. It is because a highly cohesive text with lots of connections and ties may cause difficulty in the interpretation of the message as Yule (2008, p 126) presents the following example:

My father bought a Lincoln convertible. The car driven by the police was red. That color does not suit her. She consists of three letters.

Coherence, on the other hand, has important role for creating unity between or among the propositional units in the text. Without coherence, a set of utterances cannot form a text, no matter, how many cohesive ties appear between the utterances. To show a text with no cohesive ties, but perfectly coherent, Widdowson (1978) presents following example (as cited in Yule 2008, p 127):

A: That‘s the telephone. B: I‘m in bath.

However, in spite of the fact is that the importance of cohesion, in contrast to coherence, may have been criticized; many researchers (such as Hasan, 1984, Tanskanen, 2006, Hover, 1997) view that the contribution of cohesion to unity cannot be challenged. Tanskanen (2006) claims that although coherence without cohesion might be possible, it may actually be quite uncommon to find a coherent text having no cohesive links in real language data. Hasan (1984) insists, ―The perceived coherence depends upon the interaction of cohesive devices called cohesive harmony; the denser the cohesive harmony of a text, the more coherent it will be judged‖ (as cited in Tanskanen, 2006, p 20). The role of cohesive ties in a text is that they predispose the readers to find the coherence, and ultimately to interpret the message. As Tanskanen (2006) states, cohesion and coherence are independent, but are intertwined so as to create more comprehensible texts.

Maintaining Coherence and Cohesion

Coherence refers to maintaining a clear focus within paragraphs, making connections between

paragraphs, and connecting each paragraph to a central claim or thesis. Here are some ways to create coherence**:**

- Arrange paragraphs in a logical order
- End each paragraph with a sentence that not only wraps up the content of that paragraph but also anticipates the content of the next paragraph
- Begin each paragraph with a sentence that not only forecasts the content of the paragraph but also links to the thesis for the paper.
- Create cohesion/maintain connections between sentences

Cohesion means the connections between sentences. You can accomplish cohesion in three ways:

- by using pronouns that have clear antecedents,
- by using transition words or phrases that connect to what has gone before (e.g., moreover, furthermore, afterwards, nevertheless, in conclusion, therefore, indeed), and by using the known information to introduce new information (e.g., ―The results of Reef Check 1997, the first comprehensive survey of the earth‘s coral reefs, will be released today. The survey ‖), which is known as the given-new contract.

The Given-New Contract:

Readers comprehend a text more easily when the writer organizes the content to introduce new information only in the context of given information (i.e., information that is old, familiar, previously introduced or commonly understood). The strategy of presenting given information before new information can be applied at many levels of the text, but this handout focuses on the sentence level.

The topic of a single paragraph is often introduced explicitly by the first sentence (e.g., "This report describes recent research on automobile suspension systems."). The topic, recent research on automobile suspension systems, appears at the end of the introductory sentence because it is new to this text. However, once the topic has been introduced, it becomes given information. New information can be added to the same topic in additional sentences. In these sentences, the topic should appear early in the sentence as the subject, and the new information should appear at the end of the sentence.

Conclusion:

Academic writing is a style of formal writing used in the universities, colleges; or in publications. In addition to who, why, and what aspects (that are related to audience, purpose, and content of writing respectively); how aspect, that is concerned with organization, style, presentation, and flow of ideas; is more crucial in academic writing. For helping the readers in constructing meanings from the text, cohesion and coherence have significant role as they create a text such that it has contextual adjustment of ideas connectedly

in orderly sequence.

Both cohesion and coherence contribute for maintaining unity in the paragraphs in academic writing. It is coherence-the contextual fitness of the sentences-that is more significant for making sense of the text for the readers. However, a text with cohesive ties and coherence is more comfortable for the readers to comprehend and interpret the message of the writer.

Behaviorism and Language Learning

Introduction

Human beings learn every now and then. According to Cambridge Advanced Dictionary (2003), learning can be defined as an activity of obtaining knowledge. We human usually learn or gain knowledge either in a conscious way or subconscious way. Learning is not necessary must be conducted in a formal way such as tutorial, class or lecture; however, we also learn when we having a conversation with others or be it listening to the radio. ―Learning is a relatively permanent change in a behavioral tendency and is the result of reinforced practice‖ (1963, cited in Kimble and Garmezy, 1987, p.6). There are actually a few theories been used to describe how knowledge or language is acquired namely Behaviourism, Innatism and Interactionism.

For the first part of this assignment will explain these theories' various approaches and principles. Then, this paper will focus on the pedagogical implications of each theory in teaching English as a Second Language. Part two will focus on examining the underlying learning theories which could have influenced the teaching-learning activities from a textbook. By the end of this paper, students will be able to differentiate learning theories and adopt the most suitable ones into his/her teaching career.

Behaviourism is the earliest language learning theory which is propounded by J.B. Watson (1878-1957) in 1913. This theory is supported and believed by some behaviourists who are Skinner, Pavlov and Thorndike; also, profoundly developed the theory of behaviourism on learning.

Behaviourism focuses on observable behaviours which are changed as the symptoms of learning. According to Brown (1987: 17), the behaviouristic approach focuses on the immediately perceptible aspects of linguistic behaviour – the publicly observable responses. Learning only occurs when there are changes in behaviour and observable as an evidence of changing. Feeling and mental process are not accepted in Skinner's human behaviour's theory; however, he still accepted the existence of mind. Behaviourists consider learning a language as a set of mechanical habits which are formed through a process of imitation and repetition. Humans learn a language through repeating the same form and text until it becomes a habit. Children imitate the sounds and patterns which they hear around (Lightbown & Spada: 1999). So, it was proposed that learners would repeat words they heard and tried to use it in their conversation until it became a regular basis in life. Behaviourists therefore think that learning a language especially second language (L2) should be learnt through extensive drill and practice.

Besides that, behaviourists also justified that learning a new language is learning a new set of habit. According to Ellis (1990), learning could be effected by manipulating the environment to provide the required experience. This lead to the theory formation of habit is related to the environment where learning process actually takes place. These habits formation and the environment are recognized as Stimulus-Response (S-R) by Pavlov and Skinner. In 1950s, school of psychology successfully prevailed S-R in the form of behaviourism to ensure the connection between both elements. Behaviourists might consider effective language behaviour to be the production of correct responses to stimuli (Brown: 1987). According to the theory, behaviour happens in casual, associative chains; all learning is thus characterized as associative learning, or habit formation, brought about by the repeated association of a stilmulus with a response Hadley (1993, cited in Hilgard 1962, p.45). So, its best known proponent, B.F. Skinner used rats conclude that conditioning has a 3-state procedure: stilmulus, response and reinforcement. From here, Skinner presumed that human learning and animal learning are parallel; thus, L2 learning is also similar as other kind of learning can be explained by the same laws as well as principles.

Every process of learning has to be followed by reinforcement. All learning is the establishment of habits as the results of reinforcement and reward (Demirezen: 1988). In behaviourism, there are two different types of reinforcement. The first one is positive reinforcement, where the response or behaviour is strengthened and positively augmented by praise or reward. For instance, when a student answer a question correct and the teacher award him/her a star, then the student will try to answer another question because he/she is more confident and motivated. In contrast, the second reinforcement is negative reinforcement. If a student been scolded by his/her teacher after got the answer wrong, he/she would tend not to give answer by the next Q & A session because it would make him/her feel embarrassed. In short, positive reinforcement helps learners develop correct habits.

Furthermore, Behaviourist learning theory also claimed that old habits interfere with the acquisition of new ones. Learning of the L2 would be facilitated since all the learners had to do was to transfer L1 habits (Ellis: 1990). That means errors in first language learning (L1) are the result of interference in L2. It has to be avoided and prevent L1 interference happened as well as corrected on the spot if they do occur.

One of the examples of extensively drilling in learning is Audio Lingual Method which is an American method. It is function as a structural approach designed to develop oral communication fluency in L2. Audio Lingual Method is focuses on accuracy (pronunciation and intonation), mistakes should be avoided and corrected immediately if it happened. Ellis (1990: 23) wrote: ―for learning to be effective habits had to become automatic.‖ In short, language learning‘s pattern has to be ―over-learnt‖ and the content based on common day‘s dialogues as well as expression. If follow by the positive reinforcement which will help students to

develop correct habits. By then, learning the structures of the language is more emphasized if compare to the vocabulary.

Innatism

In 1959, Noam Chomsky published _Review of Verbal Behaviour‘ to critically criticize Skinner‘s theory of Behaviourism. Innatists claimed that linguistic knowledge is an abstract nature no solely on the set of mechanical habits (imitation and repetition). According to Ellis (1990), new grammatical forms were not acquired through imitation and not stamped in through practice. Language is too complex and occurs too rapidly for it to be learned through imitation. In other words, competence could not be achieved simply to performance due to insufficient of input to enable the child to discover the _hidden‘ rules (Ellis: 1990). For Chomsky, children are not necessary to be taught because they will learn in terms of walking at about same age; meanwhile, the environments contribute the most in learning. Chomsky and other linguists argued that children are credited with a special ability to discover the underlying rules of a language system within themselves. This innate and special ability is called Language Acquisition Device (LAD) or _a little black box‘ and Universal Grammar (UG) which exist in the brain. The LAD contains a set of abstract principles common to all languages which enables the child to produce infinite variety of sentences and construct grammatical sentences. UG was claimed to help children to extract the rules of their language and to avoid grammatical errors (Fromkin, Rodman, Hyams 2007). Therefore, a child has to listen and learn grammar to trigger the LAD or UG which then enables the child to discover the rules of the language. In short, human beings acquire and adapt language in any environment along with input of language or linguistic knowledge.

Monitor Model

In 1982, Stephen Krashen, who have had a great influence on language learning and acquisition by stimulated the _Monitor Model‘. The Monitor Model consists of five hypotheses which are The Input Hypothesis, The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, The Monitor Hypothesis, The Natural Order Hypothesis and The Affective Filter Hypothesis.

The first hypothesis is Input Hypothesis. This hypothesis claimed that language acquisition takes place through comprehension input (CI). Comprehensible input is available when students or learners are able to understand messages and their attention is focused on meaning. Besides that, comprehensible input will only occur if the inputs‘ forms and structures pitch one level above the level of student (CI = i + 1). Whatever it pitches one level above learner‘s current level competence, both comprehension and acquisition will occur. Learners will not benefit anything in learning if the input has no element of challenge; however, they will not acquire the knowledge if the input is too difficult. Acquisition leads to the result of comprehensible input and not production or quantity. Comprehensible Input does not have to be fine-tuned and reading is crucial to language acquisition*.

The second hypothesis is Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis. This hypothesis explained that adults have two distinct and independent ways to develop knowledge of a second language – learning and acquisition. In Krashen‘s view, a learner learns second language whereas a child picks up or acquires his/her mother tongue (first language). Learning is a conscious process with attention to form and error correction. In contrast, acquisition is a subconscious process when a learner is engaged in meaningful communication and focus is on meaning. Both acquired and learned knowledge are separately; therefore, learned knowledge cannot be converted into acquired knowledge. If learner acquires knowledge by naturally, the knowledge will be able to use spontaneously.

The third hypothesis is Monitor Hypothesis. Krashen developed this hypothesis and urged that acquired knowledge is responsible for fluency and intuitive judgements about correctness. On the other hand, learnt knowledge can be put to conscious use through the Monitor. A learner will use the monitor through learnt knowledge to correct and check what they say is grammatically. This monitor operates only under three circumstances when there is sufficient time to self-correct, the focus is on form and knowledge of the rules being applied (Hadley: 1993). The fourth hypothesis is Natural Order Hypothesis where grammatical structures are acquired in a natural and predictable order. It shows the evidence whenever the focus is on communication.

The last hypothesis is Affective Filter Hypothesis. Affect refers to things as motives, needs, attitures, and emotional states (Lightbown & Spada 1999).This hypothesis is connected to the motivation factor. Cook (1993, cited in Krashen 1985, p.3) claims that in order for a learner to success in acquiring knowledge, CI is a necessary but not sufficient due to a ‗mental block‘ that prevents acquirers from utilizing the CI input they receive for language acquisition This mental block is called affective filter. The affective filter is low when the learner‘s motivation and self-confidence is high as well as low anxiety; therefore, more input is available for acquisition. On the other hand, the affective filter is high when learner‘s motivation and self-confidence are low. In short, the success of acquisition is controlled by the affective filter.

Interactionism

Krashen claimed that every human has a natural innate mechanism to learn a language along with comprehensible input (CI). However, Krashen‘s CI came under challenge by few Applied Linguists namely Evelyn Hatch, Teresa Pica and Michael Long. Michael Long agrees with Krashen that CI is important for language acquisition but how input is made comprehensible (Lightbown & Spada: 1999). Language develops as a result when interaction occurs between children and other speakers. Every learner has to converse and communicate with others in order to adapt what they have learnt which shows their competence and understanding. Therefore, a learner will develop his/her language ability when they take part in spontaneous interactions rather than straight drills (Nunen 1991).

Correspondingly, Language acquisition is an outcome of interaction between the learner‘s mental abilities and the linguistic environment (Rozzana: n.d.). Native speaker provides language input to language learner; meanwhile, language learner produces the language as the product of output through communication. In fact, interactional modifications usually take place when native speaker modify their speech in order to make their speech comprehensible. It is supported by Long (p.342) that modification is the vital and widely used method of making input comprehensible. Learners will be promoted and engaged into this modification and negotiation of meaning when there is a communication breakdown. There are few examples of interactional modifications which are comprehension checks, clarification requests, confirmation checks, self repetition/paraphrase and use of extralinguistic features.

In addition, learners usually engage in learning when information is to be exchanged with each other. During the process of exchanging information or feedback after the conversation, output will be a route to language learning along with interactional modification. Besides that, two-way communication promotes more interactional modification than one-way communication. According to Rozzana (n.d.), for the learner to communicate, he must learn the language and in order to learn it he must communicate. This point often overlooked on how Bangladeshi workers in Malaysia can master simple _Bahasa Malaysia‘ although without attending formal tutorial. They acquire the language through social interaction in daily conversation; also, interact with the environment. Henceforth, Long‘s ideas are identical with Vygotsky‘s theory of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) where learners acquire knowledge through interaction with the physical world (Lightbown & Spada: 1999).

Comprehension Output

Both Michael Long and Stephen Krashen agree that CI as a source of acquisition. On the contrary, some interactionists argue that CI is not sufficient for language acquisition depends on some factors which cannot account for the whole of acquisition (cf. Long, 1989:10). Learners need to be instilled language development especially grammatical development. Besides that, learners must be _pushed‘ or _forced‘ to produce comprehensible target language in order for language development to occur. With this in mind, one of the activities which is called _read and respond‘ in Myline whereby students are assigned an article to read and given their opinion critically. So, students are not only received input from teachers whereas trigger their LAD while producing language, either spoken or written. Fours ways (reading, listening, writing and speaking) in which output might play a role in the process of second language learning have been proposed (Swain, 1985). Listening and reading could be the comprehensible inputs different from speaking and writing which are comprehensible outputs.

Learners are given the opportunities to test his/her hypothesis about the language through comprehensible output. This is especially so when learner notices a _gap‘ in his/her interlanguage system if

there is a communication breakdown. Once the learner realize the gap in interlanguage system, he/she is likely to search their own linguistic knowledge for information which might help to close the gap; also, pay attention to relevant input (Swain, 1993). Hence, learner will focus on form and mismatches between input and output which may also provide some of the information a learner needs about what is not permissible in a language (Long, 1996). Last but not least, CI encourages semantic processing but CO encourages syntactic processing.

Audio Lingual Method is a wise method to be used to learn a language; however, it is not enough to suit the advancement of language learning nowadays. Since this theory deduced that learning is a mechanical process but it does not account for the creativity evident in ones‘ ability to produce novel utterances and children‘s imitation of structures show evidence of almost no innovation (Brown 1987, Demirezen 1988). Students will find it hardly to converse in the target language when they step into the true sense of the world; also, unable to write or create new sentences.

Semantics

Semantics refers to the study of meaning in language. It involves understanding how words, phrases, and sentences are used to convey meaning and how the interpretation of meaning is affected by context, tone, and other factors. Semantics also examines the relationships between words and the concepts they represent, and how these relationships are used to understand and create meaning in language. In linguistic semantics, researchers study how meaning is expressed through grammar, while in philosophical semantics, scholars explore the philosophical foundations of meaning and how it relates to reality.

The development of semantics as a field of study can be traced back to ancient Greece, where philosophers such as Aristotle and Plato discussed the nature of meaning and language. However, it was not until the 20th century that semantics became a distinct area of linguistic and philosophical inquiry.

In the early 20th century, Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist, laid the foundations for modern linguistic semantics by distinguishing between langue (the system of language) and parole (the actual use of language). This distinction allowed for the study of meaning to be separated from the study of sound and grammar.

In the mid-20th century, the American philosopher and logician Alfred Tarski developed the theory of formal semantics, which uses mathematical logic to analyze the meaning of sentences. This approach was influential in the development of computer science and artificial intelligence, as it provided a way to encode meaning in a way that could be processed by computers.

During the latter half of the 20th century, semantic theories became more sophisticated, taking into account the role of context and pragmatics (the study of how context influences the interpretation of meaning).

Cognitive linguistics, which views language as a product of human cognition, also emerged as a field of study, exploring how our experiences and mental processes shape the way we understand and use language.

In recent years, the study of semantics has continued to evolve, incorporating new findings from fields such as neuroscience, psychology, and anthropology, and exploring the relationship between language and thought, language and culture, and language and power.

Branches of Linguistics

Semantics is a field of study that encompasses several branches, including:

- Lexical Semantics: This branch focuses on the meaning of individual words and the relationships between words. It examines how words are categorized and the connections between words that belong to the same category.
- Formal Semantics: This branch uses mathematical logic and other formal systems to analyze the meaning of sentences and the relationships between words. It is concerned with the study of truth conditions and the interpretation of meaning based on the rules of logic.
- Conceptual Semantics: This branch explores how meaning is represented in the human mind and the relationships between language, thought, and reality. It seeks to understand the mental representations of meaning and how they shape our understanding of the world.
- Pragmatic Semantics: This branch focuses on how context influences the interpretation of meaning. It examines how factors such as tone, speaker intention, and cultural background affect the way we understand and use language.
- Historical Semantics: This branch studies the evolution of meaning over time. It explores how the meanings of words change and how this change reflects cultural, historical, and linguistic factors.
- Computational Semantics: This branch focuses on the use of computer technology to analyze and model the meaning of language. It is concerned with developing algorithms and computational models to process natural language and improve machine understanding of language.

Each of these branches contributes to a more complete understanding of the nature of meaning and the role of language in human communication.

Major theorists in the field of Linguistics

There have been many influential theorists in the field of linguistics, and the following are a few of the most significant:

Ferdinand de Saussure: Swiss linguist who laid the foundation for modern linguistic theory by making a distinction between langue (the system of language) and parole (the actual use of language).

Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist, introduced the concept of the sign in linguistic theory. According to Saussure, a sign is a unit of meaning that consists of two parts: the signified and the signifier.

The signified is the concept or idea that the sign represents. It is the mental representation of the meaning of the sign.

The signifier, on the other hand, is the physical representation of the sign, such as a word, a sound, or a gesture. It is the form that the sign takes in the external world.

For Saussure, the relationship between the signified and the signifier is arbitrary, meaning that there is no inherent connection between the concept represented by a sign and its physical form. This is why, for example, the same concept can be represented by different words in different languages.

Saussure's concept of the sign has been highly influential in linguistic theory and has been applied to the study of meaning in various fields, including semiotics, psychology, and communication studies. It has provided a framework for understanding the relationship between form and meaning in language and has helped to shape our understanding of the nature of language and meaning.

Noam Chomsky: American linguist who revolutionized the study of language by developing a theory of generative grammar, which proposes that the ability to produce and understand language is innate and part of our biology.

Noam Chomsky is an American linguist who is best known for his theory of generative grammar, which proposes that the ability to produce and understand language is innate and part of our biology.

In terms of meaning, Chomsky argues that the meaning of a sentence is not derived from the individual words that make it up, but from the rules of grammar that are used to generate the sentence. He proposes that there is a mental grammar that is part of the language acquisition device, which is a biologically determined part of the human mind. This mental grammar allows us to produce an infinite number of sentences and to understand the meaning of sentences that we have never heard before.

Chomsky's theory of meaning has been highly influential in linguistic theory and has led to a deeper understanding of the relationship between grammar and meaning. However, it has also been criticized for neglecting the role of context and usage in the interpretation of meaning, and for being too focused on the formal aspects of language to the exclusion of other factors that contribute to meaning.

Despite these criticisms, Chomsky's theory remains a central part of linguistic theory and continues to shape our understanding of language and meaning.

Roman Jakobson: Czech linguist who made significant contributions to the study of phonology and the relationship between language and communication.

Jakobson developed a theory of communication that emphasized the role of language in communication and the relationship between the sender and the receiver. He argued that communication is a process of exchanging messages and that the meaning of a message is determined by the context in which it is used and the intention of the speaker.

Jakobson proposed that there are six functions of language, each with a different focus and purpose, that are used in communication: the referential function, which conveys information; the emotive function, which expresses the speaker's emotional state; the conative function, which seeks to influence the listener; the phatic function, which establishes and maintains social relationships; the metalingual function, which focuses on language itself; and the poetic function, which highlights the formal properties of language.

According to Jakobson, the choice of which function to use depends on the context of the communication and the purpose of the speaker. He argued that the meaning of a message is shaped not only by the words used, but also by the choice of function and the manner in which it is used.

Jakobson's theory of communication has had a significant impact on the study of linguistics and has been applied to the study of meaning in various fields, including semiotics, psychology, and communication studies. It has provided a framework for understanding the relationship between context, function, and meaning in communication and has helped to shape our understanding of the role of language in communication.

Leonard Bloomfield: American linguist who is best known for his work on structural linguistics, which focused on the analysis of language as a system of relationships between sounds, words, and sentences.

In terms of meaning, Bloomfield took a behaviorist approach, which argues that meaning is a matter of the relationship between linguistic forms and their context of use. He argued that the meaning of a word is defined by the set of behaviors that it predicts or the stimuli that it evokes.

Bloomfield proposed that meaning can be studied scientifically by observing the use of language in context, and that the meaning of a word or sentence is a matter of regularities in the behavior of speakers and listeners. He believed that meaning can be captured objectively by describing the context in which a word is used, the conditions under which it is used, and the effects that it has on the listener.

Bloomfield's theory of meaning has been highly influential in linguistic theory and has been applied to the study of language and communication. It has provided a framework for understanding the relationship between language and behavior, and has helped to shape our understanding of the role of context in the

interpretation of meaning. However, it has also been criticized for neglecting the subjective and cultural aspects of meaning and for being too focused on observable behavior to the exclusion of other factors that contribute to meaning.

Benjamin Lee Whorf: American linguist who explored the relationship between language, thought, and culture and proposed the theory of linguistic determinism, which states that language shapes our perception of reality.

Benjamin Lee Whorf was an American linguist who is best known for his theory of linguistic determinism, which argues that the structure of a language determines the way its speakers think and understand the world.

In terms of meaning, Whorf argued that the meanings of words are not arbitrary, but are shaped by the structure of the language and the cultural experiences of its speakers. He believed that the categories and concepts used in a language reflect the way the speakers of that language perceive the world, and that the structure of a language influences how its speakers think and understand reality.

Whorf's theory of meaning has had a significant impact on the study of linguistics and has been applied to the study of language and culture. It has provided a framework for understanding the relationship between language and thought, and has helped to shape our understanding of the role of culture in shaping the way we understand the world.

However, Whorf's theory has also been criticized for being too deterministic and for neglecting the role of individual agency in shaping the meanings of words and the interpretation of reality. Despite these criticisms, Whorf's theory remains an important part of linguistic theory and continues to shape our understanding of the relationship between language, culture, and meaning.

Eric Lenneberg**:** German-American linguist and psychologist who made important contributions to the study of language acquisition and the biological foundations of language.

Lenneberg was particularly interested in the biological basis of language and the critical period for language acquisition. He argued that there is a critical period in childhood during which children have an innate ability to acquire language, and that this ability declines after this period has passed.

In terms of meaning, Lenneberg believed that the meaning of words is shaped by both the linguistic and cultural context in which they are used, as well as by the cognitive processes of the individual speaker or listener. He argued that the meanings of words are not fixed, but are constantly evolving and changing in response to new experiences and new ways of understanding the world.

Lenneberg's theory of meaning has had a significant impact on the study of linguistics and has been applied to the study of language and brain. It has provided a framework for understanding the relationship between language and cognitive development, and has helped to shape our understanding of the role of biology in shaping the way we understand the world.

Despite its significance, Lenneberg's theory has also been criticized for neglecting the role of culture and society in shaping the meanings of words and the interpretation of reality. Nevertheless, Lenneberg's contributions to the study of language and the brain continue to be an important part of linguistic theory

John Searle: American philosopher who made significant contributions to the study of the philosophy of language, including the concept of speech acts and the theory of reference.

Searle's theory of meaning is based on the idea that meaning is a matter of the relationship between symbols (e.g. words) and the things they represent. He argues that the meaning of a symbol is a matter of its rules for use, which specify how the symbol is to be used in the context of a particular language community.

Searle proposed that the meaning of a sentence is a matter of the meanings of the individual words that make up the sentence, and the way in which these words are combined to create a meaning that is greater than the sum of its parts. He argued that the meaning of a sentence is determined by its rules for use, which specify how the sentence is to be understood in a particular context.

Searle's theory of meaning has had a significant impact on the study of linguistics and philosophy of language, and has been applied to the study of communication, meaning, and reference. It has provided a framework for understanding the relationship between language and the world, and has helped to shape our understanding of the role of context in the interpretation of meaning.

However, Searle's theory has also been criticized for neglecting the role of context and the subjective experiences of individual speakers and listeners in shaping the meaning of words and sentences. Despite these criticisms, Searle's contributions to the study of language and meaning continue to be an important part of linguistic theory.

These theorists, among many others, have helped to shape the study of linguistics and have had a lasting impact on the field.

Practical implications of semantics

Semantics has many practical implications in a variety of fields and industries. Here are some examples:

Natural Language Processing (NLP): Semantics is a crucial component of NLP, which is the study of how computers can understand, interpret, and generate human language. Semantics provides the foundation for

NLP techniques such as sentiment analysis, text classification, and machine translation, which are used in a variety of applications, such as customer service chatbots, social media monitoring, and language learning software.

Marketing and Advertising: Semantics plays an important role in the creation and interpretation of advertisements and marketing messages. Understanding the meaning of words and how they are used in context can help marketers create more effective advertisements that resonate with their target audience.

Law and Regulation: Semantics is important in legal contexts, where the interpretation of laws and regulations often depends on the meaning of words and phrases. For example, the interpretation of contracts and other legal documents requires a clear understanding of the meaning of words and phrases used in those documents.

Education: Semantics is a key component of language education, as it provides a framework for understanding how words and sentences are used to convey meaning. Understanding semantics can help learners acquire new vocabulary and develop their language skills more effectively.

Machine Translation: Semantics is an important factor in machine translation, which is the process of automatically translating text from one language to another. Semantics provides the basis for understanding how meaning is conveyed through language, and how it can be translated from one language to another.

Key concepts in semantics

- **Meaning:** The central concept in semantics is meaning, which refers to the idea or concept that is conveyed by a word, phrase, sentence, or text.
- **Reference:** Reference refers to the relationship between a word or phrase and the entity or concept it refers to in the real world.
- Sense: Sense refers to the different meanings that a word can have in different contexts.
- **Denotation:** Denotation refers to the literal or dictionary definition of a word, and it is often contrasted with connotation, which refers to the emotional or cultural associations that a word can have.
- **Ambiguity:** Ambiguity refers to the phenomenon of words or phrases having more than one possible meaning.
- **Polysemy:** Polysemy refers to the phenomenon of words having multiple related meanings.
- **Semantic Role:** Semantic role refers to the role that a word or phrase plays in a sentence in relation to the action or event described by the sentence.
- **Pragmatics:** Pragmatics is the study of how context affects the interpretation of meaning in language.
- **Speech Act:** Speech act refers to the use of language to perform an action, such as making a request, giving a command, or making a promise.

- **Lexical Semantics:** Lexical semantics is the study of the meaning of individual words and how they are related to each other semantically.
- **Formal Semantics:** Formal semantics is the study of the meaning of sentences and texts using formal techniques, such as logic and mathematics.
- **Conceptual Semantics:** Conceptual semantics is the study of the mental representations of meaning and how they are related to linguistic meaning.

Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistic study that deals with the ways in which context contributes to meaning. It explores the ways in which speakers use language in context, and how context influences the interpretation of linguistic utterances.

Pragmatics considers the social, cultural, and historical context in which language is used, as well as the relationships between speakers and listeners. It also looks at the non-linguistic factors that contribute to meaning, such as tone of voice, body language, and facial expressions.

key concepts in pragmatics

- **Speech acts:** The ways in which language is used to perform actions, such as making requests, giving orders, or making apologies.
- **Deixis:** The ways in which language refers to specific people, places, or things, based on the context in which it is used.
- **Implicature:** The ways in which meaning is implied or suggested, rather than explicitly stated.
- **Politeness:** The ways in which speakers use language to maintain social relationships and avoid offending others.

Pragmatics plays an important role in understanding how language is used in real-world situations, and how meaning is constructed and negotiated in communication. It is essential for understanding how language works in practice, and for developing effective communication strategies in a variety of contexts.

Meaning of Pragmatics:

The word pragmatics derives from the Greek word ―pragma‖, which means ―matter‖ ―thing‖, but also ―action‖ (cf. Linke, Nussbaumer & Portmann (1996).

Though a sub-field of linguistics developed in the late 1970s, some reputable linguistics were able to offer their version as to what they term to be the meaning of pragmatics. However, we restrict ourselves to the following definitions.

―Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning‖. ―Pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning‖

―Pragmatics is the study of how more gets communicated than is said‖

―Pragmatic is the study of the expression of relative distance‖ (Yule,2008).

Pragmatics is the study of linguistics meaning in relation to a specific speech event (the context of utterance) Leech 1983).

According to Crystal (1985) ―Pragmatics is the study of the aspects of meaning and language use that are dependent on the speaker, the addressee and other features of the context of utterance‖.

Ever since, Leech (1983) has defined pragmatics as ―the study of how utterances have meaning in situations‖. While Black More (1982) states that ―pragmatics is concerned with the mental structure underlying the ability to interpret utterances in context.

Moreover, according to Kemson (1986) ―Pragmatics is the study of the general cognitive principles involved in the retrieval of information from an uttered sequences of words.

In view of what is discussed, so far, all the definitions of pragmatics are trying to arrive at a particular view that is the effect that the following concepts have on the speakers‟ choice of expression and the addressee‟s interpretation of an utterance.

- Content of utterance
- Generally observed principles of communication
- The goals of the speaker

For examples

- When a diplomat says yes, he means ―perhaps‖
- When he says perhaps, he means ―no‖
- When he says no, he is not a diplomat.
- When a lady says no, she means ―perhaps.‖
- When she says perhaps, she means ―yes‖
- When she says yes, she is not a lady.

Voltaire (Quoted, in Spanish, in Escandell 1993).

Utilization of Pragmatics

Scope refers to areas of linguistics studies under pragmatics, based on the research carried out for the purpose , it was discovered that no two published accounts list the categories of pragmatics in quite the same order.

Moreover, some linguistics viewed that the aspects of language studies in pragmatics include:

- Deixes
- Speech act theory
- Conversational Implicature
- Conversational Maxims
- Relevance
- Presupposition
- Applied Pragmatics
- General Pragmatic.

Deixes:

Deixes Is a Greek word which means, ―pointing‖ via language, according to Harvey Sacks (1992). He went further to explain that there are some words that cannot be interpreted at all unless the physical context, especially the physical context of the speaker, is known. These are words like here, there, this, that, now, then, yesterday, as well as most pronouns, such as I, you, him, her and them. Some sentences of English are virtually impossible to understand if we don‟t know who is speaking, about whom, where, and when. For example: you will have to bring that back tomorrow, because they are not here now. Out of context, this sentence is extremely vague. It contains a large number of expressions, such as you, that, tomorrow, they, here and now which depend on interpretation by the immediate physical context in which they were uttered. Such expressions are very obvious examples of bits of a language which we can only understand in terms of speaker‟s intended meaning. These are technically known as deictic expressions.

Moreover, Stephen Levinson. said that, ―Deixes concerns the ways in which language encodes features of the context of utterance and thus also concerns ways in which the interpretation of utterance depends on the analysis of that context of utterance‖. It‟s often best described as ―verbal pointing‖ by means of language. The linguistics forms of this pointing according to Stephen are called deictic expressions, which fall into four categories. These are:

- Personal deixes
- Place/spatial deixes
- Time/temporal deixes
- Social deixes.

According to Harvey Sacks, any expression used to point to a person example me, you, I, he, she, and them is an example of persons deixes. Words used to point to a location examples here, there, and above are

examples of place deixes, and those words used to point to a time example now, tomorrow, last, week, tonight are examples of time deixes. All these are deitic

expressions have to be interpreted into what persons, what place or what time the speaker has in mind.

Social Deixes: shows the words of respect examples; His Excellency, hi eminence, chief excerpter.

- Speech Act Theory: Implying that by each utterance a speaker not only says something but also does certain things.
- Locutionary acts: are simply the speech acts that have taken place.
- Perlocutionary acts: are the effects of the utterance on the listener who accents the best or pledge of marriage is welcomed or warned.
- Illocutionary acts: are the real actions which are performed by the utterance, where saying equals doing as in betting plighting one‘s truth, welcoming and warning.

Moreover, J. L. Austin (1962) pointed out that there are a number of utterances in language that do not report, or they are not constatives, they are not true or false as well but the uttering utterance of an utterance is part of an action

For examples

a. I name this place post graduate Axis.

b. I thank all of you for your co-operation.

There are two types of utterances performative constatives in language.

a. Performatives: utterance performing action.

b. Constative: they are reduced to truth or falsity they are facts of communication, to communicate to express certain attitude of speech act performed corresponding to the attitude expressed.

Performatives: these are speech acts especially known where the utterance of the right words by the right person in the right situation is effectively accomplished. Whether the speaker in fact has the social or legal (or other kind of standing to accomplish the act depends on some things beyond the mere speaking of the words. These are felicity conditions which can also be explained by the following instances.

The following are some examples from different spheres of human activity, where performatives are found at work.

• Universities and schools, conferring of degrees rusticating or excluding students.

• Governance and civil life crowing of monarchs, dissolution of parliament, passing legislation awarding honors ennobling or decorating.

Felicity Condition:

Is part of speech act developed into a category of pragmatics. They are conditions that must be observed. They arc subdivided into three; Preparatory condition, conditions for exception, sincerity conditions.

- Preparatory: conditions include the status or authority of the speaker to perform the speech act.
- Conditions for exceptions. Are conditions that can assume an exaggerated importance. These are rituals or ceremonial actions accompanying the speech act that people believe that act is invalidated if the action is lacking, for example, after traditional ruler conferred a title to his subject, the turbaning ceremony may not be necessary for the ceremony, it simply serves as a means for better communication.
- Sincerity condition: At a simple level, this shows that the speaker must really intend what he or she says.

In the case of apologizing or promising, it may be impossible for others to know how sincere the speaker is. There are some speech acts such as plighting one‟s truth or taking an oath- where this sincerity is determined by the presence of witness.

Conversational Implicature

Conversational Implicature: it was in a series of lectures at Harvard University 1967. The English language philosopher H.P. (Paul) Grice outlined an approach to what he termed conversational implicature, as how hearer manages to work out the complete message when speakers mean more than they say. An example of what Grice meant by conversational implicature is the utterance. (The action of expressing ideas).

Example ―Have you gotten any cash on you‖ where the speaker really wants the hearer to understand the meaning he may say‖ can you lend me some money? I don‘t ―have much on me‖.

The conversational implicature is a message that is not found in the plain sense of the sentence. The speaker implies it. The hearer is able to infer (workout between the lines). This message in the utterance above is appealing to the rules governing successful conversational interactions. Grice proposed that implicatures like the second sentence can be calculated from the first by understanding three things:

- The usual linguistics meaning of what is said
- Contextual information (shared or general knowledge)
- The assumption that the speaker is obeying what Grice calls the co-operative principles.

Conversational Maxims: Implies that, the success of a conversation depends upon the various speakers approach to the interaction. The way in which people try to make conversations worth is sometimes called the cooperative principles.

It was developed by Grice Paul, where he said that ―in ordinary conversation speakers and hearers share a cooperative principle. Speakers share this utterance to be understood by hearers. The principle can be explained by four underlying rules or maxims, (David Crystal calls them conversational maxims. They are also sometimes named Gricean maxims). The principles are as follows:

1. ***The Maxim of Quantity***:

a. Make contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange (nothing more, nothing less).

b. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required example if someone asks you how many children do you have? Merely you are expected to mention the numbers of your children only, if they are four just say I have four children without specifying the number of male or female children.

2. ***The maxims of quality***

―Try to make your contribution one that is true,‖ specifically for example,

a. Do not say what you believe to be false.

b. Do not say what for which you lack adequate evidence.

Example if someone asks you are you happy? You are expected to say yes or no according to this principle.

3. ***Maxim of Relevance***:

Make your contributions relevant. On other hand, any contribution you want make, make it on the issue under discussion.

4. ***Maxim of Manner***:

This principle suggests that any contribution should be clear or straight forward.

a. Avoid ambiguity

b. Be brief

c. Be orderly.

In a nutshell, the maxims are social convention of communication and they specify what participants (i.e speaker and hearer) have to do in order to converse in a maximally efficient, rational, cooperative way, they should speak sincerely, relevantly, and clearly, while providing sufficient information.

Relevance

Relevance: some linguistics such as Howard Jackson and Peter Stockwell who called it super maxim single out relevance of greater importance than recognized (Grice gives quality and manner as super maxim). Assuming that the cooperate principles is at work in most conversations we can see how hearers will try to find meaning in utterance that seem meaningless or irrelevant. The assumption is that there must be a reason for these in analyzing utterance and searching for relevance we can use a hierarchy of propositions those that might be asserted presupposed entailed or inferred from any utterance.

- Assertion: what is asserted is the obvious, plain or surface meaning of the utterance.
- Presupposition: ―1 saw the teacher in the class‖ presupposes that the teacher is in the class.
- Entailments: logical or necessary corollaries of an utterance, thus the above examples entail.
  A. I saw something in the class
  B. Something was seen
  C. There is a class

Inferences: these are interpretations that other people draw from utterance for which we cannot always account from the above examples someone might inferentially, assume that the teacher is or was recently teaching in the class.

Presupposition:

A back ground belief relating to an utterance, that must be mutually known or assured by the speaker and addressee for the utterance to be considered appropriate in context that generally will remain such a necessary assumption whether the utterance is placed in the form of an assertion denial or question and that can generally be associated with a specific lexical item or grammatical feature. On the other hand, presupposition exists between ―x‖ and y such that if the uttering of ―x‖ is valid ―y‖ has to be true. And if y is false, then the uttering of ―x‖ is invalid. Example

x- He scored an A in exams y- He wrote an exam.

In this case if sentence ―x‖ is correct or valid, then sentence

―y" is true

x- She is a widow

y- Her husband is dead

The following are the related terms of presuppositions.

- Potential presupposition
- Presupposition denial
- Presupposition suspension
- Presupposition trigger

Applied Pragmatics

This branch of pragmatics is concerned with other areas to which pragmatic have potential relevance. These include literature studies, communication studies, interaction speech making and other modes of address. It is also applicable in computer programming and computer languages.

Pragmatics has relevant applications in academics in teacher students discourse which by the use of pragmatics lectures seminars and tutorial will be structure in a way the message will get across effectively.

On other hand, applied pragmatics focuses on problems of interaction that arise in contexts where successful communication is critical such as medical, interview, judicial settings and counseling.

General Pragmatics

General pragmatics on the other hand, is the study of the principles governing the communicative use of language, especially, as encountered in conversation principles which may be studied as putative universals, or restricted to the study of specific language.

To conclude , pragmatics is a subfield of linguistics developed in the 1970s pragmatics studies how people comprehend and produce a communicative act or speech act in a concrete speech situation. Establishing the scope of pragmatics is the most complicated aspect of this paper, because of the lack of a clear consensus that no two published account lists the same categories of pragmatics. Some linguists have different interpretation of pragmatics categories for example some refer to speech acts as performative while others refer to conversational maxim as rhetorical principles. Some linguistics develop subcategories of pragmatics into independent categories e.g felicity condition which is subcategory of speech act theory and relevance that is related to conversational maxims.

The pragmatics principles people abide by in one language are often different in another. Thus there has been a growing interest of how people in different language observe a certain pragmatic principle. Cross linguistics, cross cultural studies reported what is considered polite in one language is sometimes not polite in another. Though the objective of this paper is to simply highlight the scope and meaning of pragmatics, not in

giving detail, it nonetheless tries to give sufficient explanation of categories and sub categories of pragmatics for clarity and understanding of the content and terminologies.

Finally, it is important to note that most aspects of pragmatics existed as part of linguistics studies before development of pragmatics as sub-field of linguistics studies and pragmatics is still subject to further research and development as a recently emerged subfield of linguistic studies.

Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is an interdisciplinary field of study concerned with the analysis of written, spoken, or signed language use. It examines the ways in which language is used in context to produce meaning and achieve communicative goals.

Discourse analysis can take a variety of approaches, including social and critical discourse analysis, which examine the relationship between language, power, and society. Other approaches to discourse analysis focus on the study of grammatical and structural aspects of language, such as discourse markers, turn-taking in conversation, and the organization of text.

Discourse analysis can be applied to a wide range of text types, including news articles, political speeches, legal documents, personal narratives, and online forums. It is used in a variety of fields, such as linguistics, sociology, anthropology, communication studies, and psychology, to gain insights into the ways in which language is used to construct and negotiate social reality.

The goals of discourse analysis can vary, from understanding the ways in which language is used to maintain social power, to investigating the ways in which speakers and writers use language to accomplish specific communicative purposes, to describing the structures and patterns of language use in a particular context.

The concept of discourse analysis refers to the study of language as it is used in communicative events or situations. It is concerned with the way that language is used to create meaning, express social identities and relationships, and achieve communicative goals.

Discourse analysis focuses on the relationships between language, context, and meaning. It seeks to understand how words, phrases, and sentences are used in context to create meaning and how context affects the interpretation of language.

Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of larger units of language, such as paragraphs, conversations, and narratives, rather than individual words or sentences in isolation. It recognizes that language is not a static entity, but is constantly changing and evolving in response to social and cultural context.

Discourse analysis also considers the role of power in language use, examining how language is used to exercise power and control, and how power relations are reflected in the way that language is used. Overall, the concept of discourse analysis is concerned with understanding the ways in which language is used to create and convey meaning, and the relationship between language, context, and social power.

Methods of Discourse Analysis

There are several methods of discourse analysis, each with a different focus and approach to studying language use in context. Some of the most common methods of discourse analysis include:

Critical discourse analysis:

This approach focuses on the ways in which power and ideology are reflected and reproduced in language use. It examines the relationships between language, power, and social inequality, and seeks to uncover hidden power relations and ideologies in text and discourse.

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a method of discourse analysis that focuses on the ways in which power and ideology are reflected and reproduced in language use. It is concerned with uncovering the relationships between language, power, and social inequality, and examining the ways in which discourse reinforces or challenges dominant power structures.

CDA is interdisciplinary, drawing on theories and methods from linguistics, sociology, anthropology, and political science. It seeks to understand the ways in which language is used to maintain and reproduce social power, and how discourse can be used to resist and challenge dominant power relations.

CDA examines a wide range of texts, including news media, political speeches, advertising, and other forms of discourse that shape public opinion and influence social and political life. It aims to uncover the ways in which discourse can be used to reproduce or challenge dominant ideologies, power relations, and social norms.

CDA approaches discourse analysis in a critical and interpretive manner, focusing on the ways in which discourse reflects and reproduces power relations, and the ways in which language use can be influenced by and can influence power. It also seeks to understand the ways in which discourse can be used to resist and challenge dominant power structures.

Critical discourse analysis is a powerful tool for understanding the ways in which language is used to maintain and challenge power relations, and for uncovering the ways in which discourse reflects and reproduces social inequality and ideology.

Sociolinguistic discourse analysis:

This method focuses on the ways in which language is used in social interactions and how it reflects and constructs social identities, relationships, and norms.

Sociolinguistic discourse analysis is a method of discourse analysis that focuses on the ways in which language is used in social interactions and how it reflects and constructs social identities, relationships, and norms. It is concerned with the relationship between language and society, and the ways in which language use is shaped by social context and identity.

Sociolinguistic discourse analysis draws on theories and methods from sociolinguistics, linguistics, and anthropology to study the ways in which language is used in social contexts, such as face-to-face conversation, institutional discourse, and media discourse. It aims to understand the ways in which language use reflects and influences social and cultural norms, values, and beliefs.

Sociolinguistic discourse analysis focuses on the study of language in context, examining the ways in which social and cultural factors, such as gender, age, ethnicity, and social class, shape language use and influence the interpretation of meaning. It also studies the ways in which language is used to construct and maintain social relationships, such as solidarity, intimacy, and power.

Sociolinguistic discourse analysis can be applied to a wide range of text types, including conversations, institutional discourse, and media discourse. It is used to gain insights into the ways in which language use reflects and shapes social identities and relationships, and the ways in which language use is influenced by and can influence social and cultural norms and values.

Overall, sociolinguistic discourse analysis is a valuable tool for understanding the ways in which language use reflects and constructs social identities, relationships, and norms, and the ways in which social context shapes and is shaped by language use.

Narrative analysis:

This approach studies the structure and content of narratives, examining how they are used to construct an Narrative discourse analysis is a method of discourse analysis that studies the structure and content of narratives, examining how they are used to construct and convey meaning, identity, and social experience. Narratives are stories that are used to make sense of experiences, events, and information, and they play a central role in shaping our perceptions of the world and our own identities.

Narrative discourse analysis is interdisciplinary, drawing on theories and methods from linguistics, psychology, sociology, and anthropology. It aims to understand the ways in which narratives are used to

construct and convey meaning, as well as the ways in which narratives reflect and shape social and cultural norms and values.

Narrative discourse analysis focuses on the structure and content of narratives, examining the ways in which they are organized, how they are told, and the meanings they convey. It also examines the ways in which narratives are influenced by and can influence social and cultural norms and values, and the ways in which narratives reflect and shape our experiences and identities.

Narrative discourse analysis can be applied to a wide range of texts, including written narratives, oral narratives, and multimedia narratives. It is used to gain insights into the ways in which narratives reflect and shape our perceptions of the world and our own identities, and the ways in which narratives are influenced by and can influence social and cultural norms and values.

Overall, narrative discourse analysis is a powerful tool for understanding the ways in which narratives are used to construct and convey meaning, identity, and social experience, and for uncovering the ways in which narratives reflect and shape our perceptions of the world and our own identities. d convey meaning, identity, and social experience.

Interactional discourse analysis:

This method focuses on the structure and organization of talk in interaction, examining features such as turn-taking, interruption, and repair.

Interactional discourse analysis is a method of discourse analysis that focuses on the study of language in social interaction, examining the ways in which language is used to accomplish social actions, negotiate meaning, and establish and maintain social relationships. It is concerned with the study of language as a social and cultural practice, and how it is used to accomplish social and communicative goals in everyday interactions.

Interactional discourse analysis draws on theories and methods from linguistics, sociology, and anthropology to study the ways in which language is used in social interaction, such as face-to-face conversation, institutional discourse, and media discourse. It aims to understand the ways in which language is used to accomplish social actions, negotiate meaning, and establish and maintain social relationships.

Interactional discourse analysis focuses on the study of language use in context, examining the ways in which language use is shaped by social and cultural factors, such as gender, age, ethnicity, and social class. It also studies the ways in which language is used to accomplish social and communicative goals, such as managing turn-taking, directing attention, and establishing and maintaining relationships.

Interactional discourse analysis can be applied to a wide range of text types, including conversations, institutional discourse, and media discourse. It is used to gain insights into the ways in which language is used to accomplish social and communicative goals in everyday interactions, and the ways in which social and cultural factors shape language use.

Overall, interactional discourse analysis is a valuable tool for understanding the ways in which language is used to accomplish social actions, negotiate meaning, and establish and maintain social relationships, and the ways in which language use is influenced by and can influence social and cultural norms and values.

Rhetorical discourse analysis: Rhetorical Discourse Analysis (RDA) analyzes texts, speeches, and other forms of communication to understand how language is used to persuade, influence, and construct meaning. Rooted in classical rhetoric and modern discourse analysis, RDA examines speakers' and writers' strategies to achieve their communicative goals. This study content will explore the foundations, methodologies, and applications of RDA within linguistics.

Foundations of Rhetorical Discourse Analysis

1. Classical Rhetoric: Rhetorical analysis has its origins in ancient Greece, with Aristotle's foundational work in rhetoric. He outlined three key persuasive appeals:

- Ethos (Credibility): The speaker's authority and trustworthiness.
- Pathos (Emotion): The appeal to the audience's emotions.
- Logos (Logic): The use of reasoning and evidence to persuade. These elements provide the basis for analyzing rhetorical strategies in modern discourse.

Modern Approaches to Rhetoric Contemporary: rhetorical studies incorporate linguistic and sociocultural perspectives. Scholars like Kenneth Burke introduced the concept of rhetoric as identification, emphasizing the way language constructs relationships between speakers and audiences. Modern approaches also explore ideology, power structures, and discourse communities in rhetorical communication.

Methodologies in Rhetorical Discourse Analysis

Textual and Contextual Analysis RDA involves analyzing both the text itself and its broader context. This includes examining:

- Lexical Choices: Word selection and its rhetorical impact.
- Sentence Structure: How syntax contributes to persuasion.
- Genre and Style: Different rhetorical approaches in various communicative settings.

Argumentation and Persuasion Techniques Argumentation is central to RDA. Toulmin's model of argumentation (1958) provides a framework for understanding how claims are supported:

- Claim: The central assertion.
- Data: Supporting evidence.
- Warrant: The reasoning connecting data to the claim. This model helps linguists analyze the logical structure of persuasive discourse.

Multimodal Rhetorical Analysis Beyond written and spoken texts, RDA extends to visual, digital, and multimodal communication. This involves analyzing:

- Visual Rhetoric: The persuasive use of images and design.
- Digital Rhetoric: Online communication, including social media discourse.
- Embodied Rhetoric: Non-verbal cues such as gestures and tone in spoken communication.

Applications of Rhetorical Discourse Analysis

Political Discourse RDA is widely used in analyzing political speeches, debates, and propaganda. Politicians employ rhetorical strategies to shape public opinion, frame policies, and establish credibility.

- Example: Barack Obama's 2008 victory speech employs ethos (his personal credibility), pathos (inspiring emotional connection), and logos (logical reasoning).

Media and Advertising in media and advertising, RDA uncovers how language influences consumer behavior. Advertisements use:

- Emotive Language: Creating emotional connections with the audience.
- Metaphors and Symbols: Enhancing brand messaging.
- Call-to-Action Statements: Encouraging immediate responses from consumers.

Academic and Scientific Discourse Scientific writing employs rhetorical strategies to present arguments persuasively. Researchers use:

- Hedging: Softening claims to maintain credibility.
- Modality: Expressing degrees of certainty.
- Disciplinary Conventions: Following established rhetorical norms within academic communities.

Social Movements and Activism Rhetoric plays a vital role in shaping public discourse around social issues. Activist rhetoric utilizes:

- Framing: Defining issues in ways that resonate with audiences.
- Repetition and Slogans: Creating memorable messages.
- Narratives and Storytelling: Engaging audiences through personal experiences.

Critical Perspectives on Rhetorical Discourse Analysis

Power and Ideology in Rhetoric Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) intersects with RDA in examining how rhetoric reinforces or challenges power structures. Ideological frameworks shape how arguments are constructed and perceived.

- Example: The rhetoric of colonialism often framed indigenous peoples as "uncivilized" to justify imperial control.

Ethical Considerations in Rhetoric Rhetorical strategies can be manipulative or deceptive. Ethical concerns include:

- Propaganda and Misinformation: Distorting facts to mislead audiences.
- Emotional Manipulation: Exploiting fears or biases for persuasion.
- Disinformation in Digital Media: Fake news and algorithm-driven rhetoric.

Future Directions in Rhetorical Discourse Analysis

Artificial Intelligence and Rhetoric AI-generated texts and chatbots raise questions about rhetorical agency. Linguists study how AI adapts rhetorical strategies in human-machine interaction.

Cross-Cultural Rhetoric Different cultures employ distinct rhetorical traditions. Comparative RDA examines how persuasion varies across linguistic and cultural contexts.

Environmental and Ecological Rhetoric Emerging fields analyze how rhetoric shapes public discourse on climate change and sustainability, emphasizing the persuasive power of environmental communication.

Conclusion: Rhetorical Discourse Analysis is an essential tool in linguistic research, helping scholars uncover the persuasive mechanisms of language across diverse domains. By integrating classical and modern rhetorical frameworks, analyzing textual and multimodal strategies, and addressing ethical and ideological concerns, RDA provides a comprehensive approach to understanding discourse in contemporary society. As digital communication evolves, future studies will continue expanding the scope of rhetorical analysis, ensuring its relevance in analyzing persuasive language in emerging contexts.

Multimodal discourse analysis:

This method studies the interplay between language and other modes of communication, such as images, gestures, and gaze, to understand the ways in which meaning is constructed and conveyed.

Multimodal discourse analysis is a method of discourse analysis that focuses on the study of language and other modes of communication, such as images, sounds, gestures, and other nonverbal elements, in their interplay and mutual shaping. It is concerned with the ways in which different modes of communication work

together to construct and convey meaning in a given context.

Multimodal discourse analysis draws on theories and methods from linguistics, semiotics, communication studies, and multimedia studies to study the ways in which different modes of communication interact and shape each other. It aims to understand the ways in which different modes of communication work together to construct and convey meaning.

Multimodal discourse analysis focuses on the study of language and other modes of communication in context, examining the ways in which the use of different modes is shaped by social and cultural factors, such as genre, audience, and purpose. It also studies the ways in which different modes of communication interact and shape each other in constructing and conveying meaning.

Multimodal discourse analysis can be applied to a wide range of texts and contexts, including written texts, oral texts, multimedia texts, and social media. It is used to gain insights into the ways in which different modes of communication work together to construct and convey meaning, and the ways in which social and cultural factors shape the use of different modes.

Overall, multimodal discourse analysis is a valuable tool for understanding the ways in which different modes of communication interact and shape each other in constructing and conveying meaning, and the ways in which social and cultural factors influence the use of different modes.

Each of these methods has its own strengths and weaknesses, and different methods may be appropriate for different types of text and research questions. The choice of method will depend on the research question, the text under analysis, and the theoretical and empirical goals of the analysis.

Discourse Analysis in use:

Discourse analysis is a valuable tool for understanding how language and communication work in various contexts, and it offers several benefits, including:

Improved understanding of language and communication: Discourse analysis can help people to better understand the ways in which language and communication work in various contexts, including political discourse, media discourse, interpersonal communication, and more.

Awareness of power dynamics: Discourse analysis can help to uncover the ways in which power and ideology shape language use and communication. This can help people to better understand the ways in which language is used to maintain or challenge power structures, and how it influences our understanding of the world.

Improved critical thinking: Discourse analysis can help people to develop their critical thinking skills by encouraging them to think deeply about the ways in which language and communication are used to shape our

understanding of the world.

Improved communication skills: By analyzing discourse, people can learn how to use language more effectively to communicate their ideas and to understand the perspectives of others.

Improved intercultural communication: Discourse analysis can help people to better understand the cultural and linguistic differences that shape communication and to develop more effective communication strategies when working with people from diverse backgrounds.

Improved research skills: Discourse analysis provides a valuable method for conducting research into language and communication, and it can help researchers to develop their analytical skills and to uncover new insights into the ways in which language and communication work.

Overall, discourse analysis offers a valuable tool for understanding language and communication and the ways in which they shape our understanding of the world. It can help people to develop their critical thinking skills, improve their communication skills, and understand the cultural and linguistic differences that shape communication.

Questions for Reflection

[1] What is the difference between cohesion and coherence in language, and how do these concepts impact the meaning and clarity of written and spoken language?

[2] What are the various linguistic devices used to create cohesion in language, such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction? How do these devices help to link words, phrases, and sentences together to create coherent discourse?

[3] What role does context play in shaping cohesion and coherence in language? How do the social, cultural, and situational factors that surround language use influence the way that cohesion and coherence are established and maintained?

[4] What is the impact of genre and discourse community on cohesion and coherence in language? How do different discourse communities and genres establish and maintain their own conventions for cohesion and coherence, and what are the implications of these conventions for language learners?

[5] What are some of the challenges that language learners face in developing cohesion and coherence in their writing and speaking? How can teachers and programs support language learners in improving their skills in cohesion and coherence?

[6] What is the relationship between vocabulary and cohesion and coherence in language? How does vocabulary knowledge impact the ability to create cohesive and coherent discourse, and what strategies can be used to support vocabulary development in language learning?

[7] What is the impact of grammatical accuracy on cohesion and coherence in language? How does

grammar proficiency impact the ability to create cohesive and coherent discourse, and what are the implications of grammar errors for cohesion and coherence in language use?

[8] What is semantics and how does it differ from syntax and pragmatics in the study of language?

[9] What are the various levels of meaning in language, including denotation, connotation, and pragmatics? How do these levels of meaning interact with each other to create complex and nuanced meanings in language use?

[10] What is the role of context in shaping meaning in language? How does the context of language use, including the speaker, the audience, and the situation, impact the way that words and sentences are understood?

[11] What is the relationship between language and thought? How does the structure of language shape the way that we think, and how does thought shape the way that we use language?

[12] What are the various types of semantic change that occur over time in language, such as lexicalization, semantic shift, and semantic bleaching? How do these changes impact the meaning of words and phrases, and what factors influence the rate and direction of semantic change?

[13] What is the impact of semantic errors on language communication, and how can these errors be addressed in language education and language therapy?

[14] What is the role of semantic memory in language learning and language processing? How do semantic networks develop and change over time, and what impact do they have on language use and language acquisition?

[15] What is pragmatics and how does it differ from syntax and semantics in the study of language?

[16] What are the various contextual factors that impact the meaning of language use, such as the speaker, the audience, the situation, and the purpose of the utterance?

[17] What is the relationship between language and culture, and how does culture shape the way that language is used in social interactions?

[18] What is the role of politeness and face-saving in language use, and how do these concepts impact the way that speakers use language to navigate social relationships and situations?

[19] What is the impact of non-verbal behavior on the interpretation of language in social interactions, and how can non-verbal cues be used to enhance or undermine the intended meaning of an utterance?

[20] What is the role of implicature in language use, and how do speakers use implicature to convey meaning indirectly or to imply things without making a direct statement?

[21] What is the impact of technology and digital media on language use and pragmatics, and how has the use of technology changed the way that people communicate in different contexts?

[22] What is discourse analysis and how does it differ from other approaches to the study of language, such as syntax, semantics, and pragmatics?

[23] What are the various methods and theories used in discourse analysis, such as critical discourse analysis, sociolinguistic discourse analysis, narrative discourse analysis, and multimodal discourse analysis?

[24] What is the impact of power and ideology on discourse, and how do discourse practices shape social and cultural norms and beliefs?

[25] What is the role of discourse in constructing identities and social categories, such as gender, race, and class?

[26] What is the impact of technology and digital media on discourse, and how has the use of technology changed the way that people communicate and interact in different contexts?

[27] What is the role of discourse in the production and dissemination of knowledge, and how does discourse shape what is considered to be valid and reliable information?

[28] What is the impact of discourse on language learning and language development, and how can discourse analysis be used as a tool for language education and language therapy?

UNIT 1: PHONETICS

Structure

1.0 Objectives
1.1 Phonetics
1.2 Speech Mechanism
1.3 Organs of Speech

1.0 Objectives

This unit primarily discusses the use of language in human life. It argues that spoken communication is primary than the written. A man learns about himself and the external world initially through the spoken language. Further, it focuses on Phonetics (the study of speech sounds). The student is introduced with the spoken language and the production of speech sounds. After the study of this unit, a student will be able to

1. Understand the importance of Oral Communication
2. Understand the basics of Phonetics
3. Understand the Production of Speech Sounds
4. Understand the significance of various Speech Organs

1.1 Phonetics

Man is different from other living beings as he has the capacity to think and express well. Communication plays a great role in this exercise. Further, speech is the basis of all communication. In the advanced human world, it becomes essential to understand what is speech and speech mechanism which plays a vital role in the development of human life. As speech is the primary medium of communication, one learns to express himself/herself primarily through speech. In modern times, linguists also study language beginning from the speech and speech sounds. The spoken expressions are the result of various internal exercises at the level of mind and body. Primarily the mind starts to think and conceives the idea to be expressed. This idea conceived by mind needs various physical organs to express it in concrete form before the listener. The spoken medium is considered to be the primary medium to express your mind because it can be used by any human being whether he or she is educated or not, rural or urban etc. Further, it is easy to acquire it because a man is a social being who learns it from the external environment, it may be his/her family, society, culture etc. One need not be literate to speak. Speaking is an aural exercise while writing is a visual medium of communication

which also demands from both, the sender and the receiver, to be at least literate. Thus, our communication is primarily oral and the activity of speaking is not so simple, it includes various muscular activities. In these muscular activities, various organs of the body are used, such as lungs, vocal folds, larynx, soft palate, teeth, tongue, lips etc.

Every language of the world consists of sounds to speak. English is a prominent language of the world as it is used by a major section of the educated and uneducated people. So, to study speech, scientists have developed a method or theory which is called phonetics. **Phonetics** means the study of sounds, the sounds produced by human beings to communicate with each other. It is notable that there is some difference between the speech sounds produced by Americans and the British. The study of phonetics in the third world is according to the British way of speaking. The difference in the production of sounds by these different speakers of English is easily notable if one is acquainted with the study of speech. This branch of study called phonetics focuses on the production, transmission and reception of the sounds in a particular language.

Phonology is an abstract mental aspect of speech sounds, essentially the description of the systems of the patterns of speech sounds. It observes the constant variations in spoken language. It is basically a theory that what a speaker of a particular language unconsciously knows about the speech sound patterns of the language being practiced by him.

Phoneme It is a perceptually distinguished unit of a meaningful sound in any language. As there is an abstract alphabet as the basis of our writing, so there is an abstract set of units as the basis of our speech. These units are called phonemes, and the complete set of units is called the phonemic system of the language. Thus, a phoneme is a distinguishable sound.

Phonetically two dissimilar sounds like [b] and [k], which can occur in the same position (or _environment‘) and are contrastive, are called phonemes.

For example: There are three phonemes in the following two words:

Pen [p+e+n], Man [m+ æ+n]

The main characteristics of the Phonemes

1. It is a distinct entity.
2. A phoneme cannot be splitted into parts.
3. When we change one phoneme with another, the meaning will be changed.
4. A phoneme is an abstract entity.

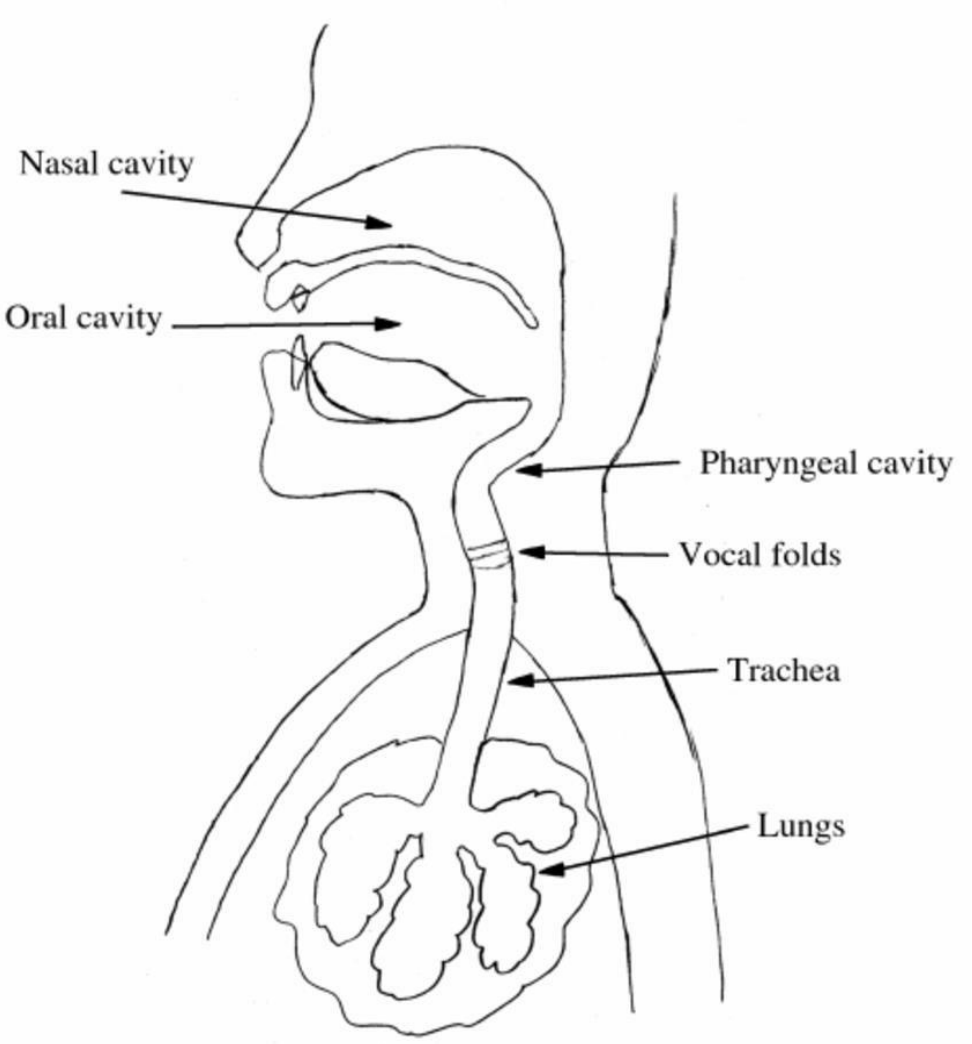
In the study of speech sounds it becomes an essential unit to examine the various aspects of spoken English.

The process of language learning starts with the learning of sounds of a particular language. It is a practical exercise as a child‘s learning involves the learning of reproduction of sounds and patterns being practiced by the other users of language. Each language has its own system and symbols which may vary according to the geographical and socio-cultural conditions. So, if one wants to learn English then one has to resist the pull of his/her mother tongue. Written communication generally takes place in official communication but spoken medium of communication is always required at each step. So learning the spoken medium of communication is more important. Further, it is used by each and everyone who is able to speak. We communicate in written communication through the various symbols (alphabets) in written form while we communicate through sounds in spoken medium. The user of language identifies the written symbols with the sound symbols in a particular language. Thus, one can find a deep relationship between the written symbols and the sound symbols. With the rapid changes in this world of technology, this relationship is not consistent in English. The spoken language has become more user friendly. The communicators encode and decode the messages in spoken English according to their needs, not according to the hard rules applied in written communication. To understand the speech, it becomes essential to study the speech mechanism.

1.2 Speech Mechanism and Organs of Speech

Speech is the product of a long and complex speech mechanism. It involves a number of activities. As stated, first of all an idea is conceived by the sender which is meant to be conveyed to the receiver. In the second stage, the nerves transmit the linguistic codification of it to the various speech organs of the human body. The organs of speech are set in motion and movements according to the signal. The airflow is produced and the other organs play their role to route/ obstruct/partially obstruct the airflow to produce the required sounds. This process is actually a play with the airflow produced by the lungs. It involves

1. The speaker breathes, and during this normal breathing he inhales the air into his lungs and compresses it.
2. The compressed air is released according to the requirement of the sound that needs to be produced.
3. The airflow is generated, the soft palate decides to release the airflow through the oral or nasal passage. (This decision is taken at the level of the brain according to the nature of the sound intended to be produced). The sounds which are produced through the nasal cavity are called nasal sounds and the sounds produced through the oral passage are called oral sounds.
4. Various organs of the speech play their role to produce various sounds. Their position and their movement decide what will be the produced sound.



1.3 Organs of Speech

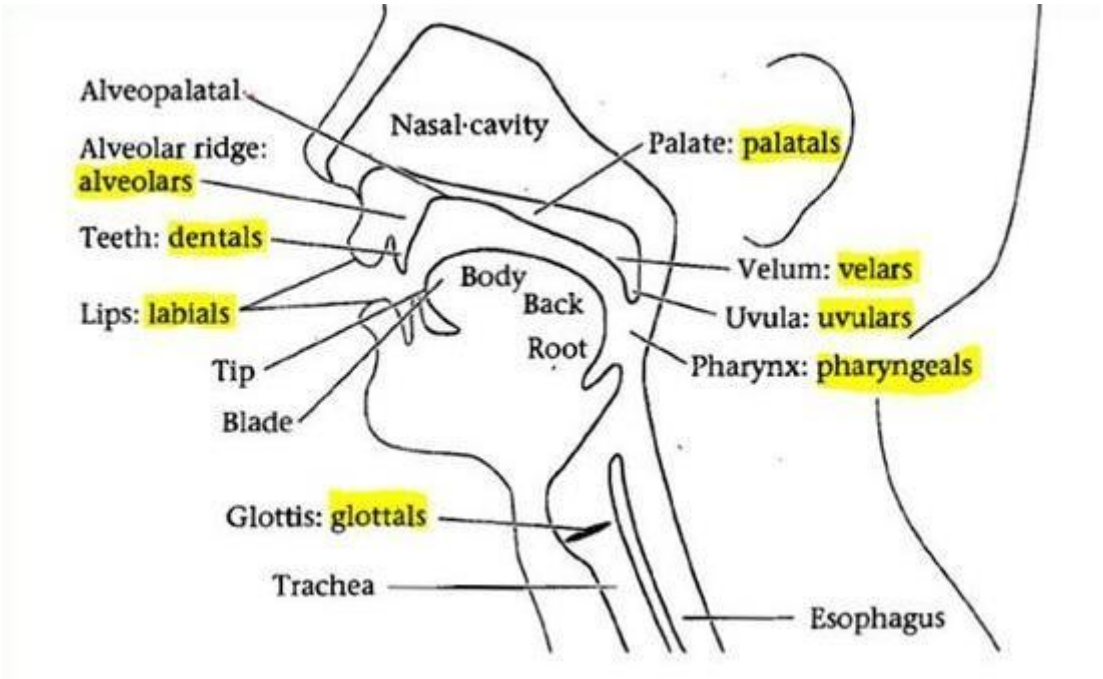
Broadly, the organs of speech can be divided into three groups:

1. The Respiratory System
2. The Phonatory System
3. The Articulatory System

The respiratory system consists of the lungs, the muscles of the chest, and the wind.

The Phonatory system consists of the two major organs: the Pharynx and the Larynx

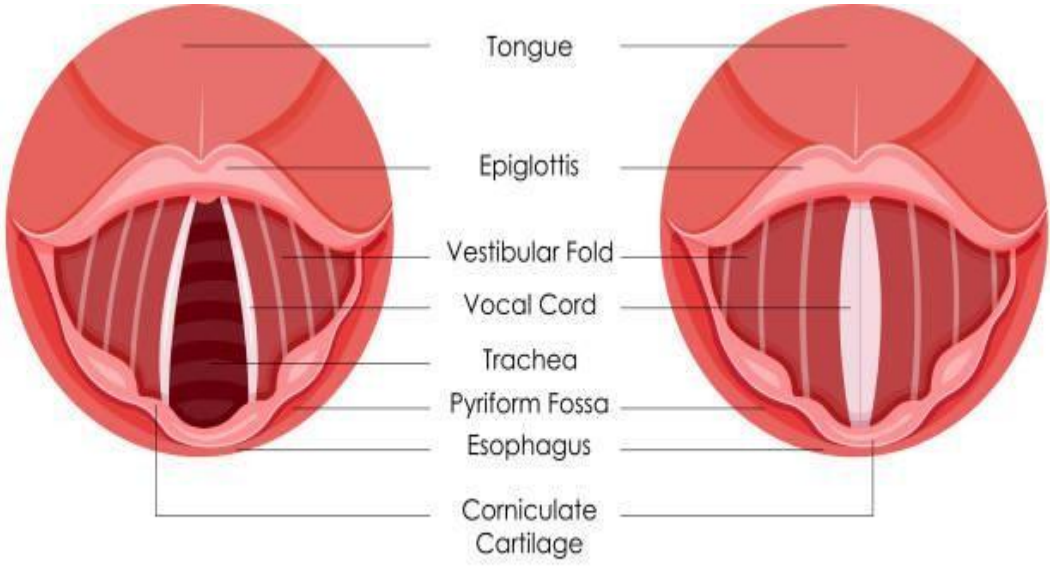
The Articulatory System consists of the mouth, the nose, the tongue, the teeth, the teeth ridge, the roof of the mouth, the lips etc.



Active and Passive Articulators

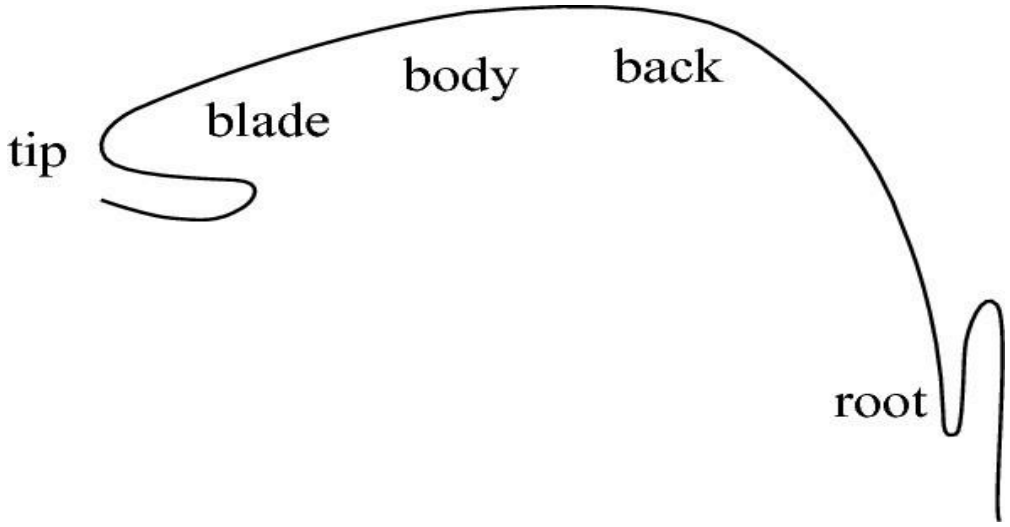
The organs of speech can also be classified as active and passive articulators. The active articulators are basically those articulators which move from their position while producing the speech sounds. The active articulators include the lower jaw, the tongue, the soft palate etc. The passive articulators are those articulators which do not move from their position during the production of the speech sound. The passive articulators include the roof of the mouth, upper teeth, the nose etc.

1. **The Larynx/Glottis** consists of two vocal folds (which can also be called vocal cords). Vocal folds are like a pair of lips and they are horizontally placed from front to back. It is at the top of the wind pipe which is rooted in the lungs. The air is released by the lungs and the released air passes through the windpipe. Then it passes through the larynx. The vocal folds are joined in the front but separated at the back. The opening between them is known as the glottis. The vocal folds are normally held together in a loose form. The airflow from the lungs creates the pressure and this pressure makes the vocal folds vibrate. This vibration produces various sounds. The frequency of the vibration is decided by the number of times the vocal folds open and close.



VOCAL CORD

2. **The Pharynx:** It is a tube which is just above the larynx or the vocal folds. It is divided into two parts at the top, one part being the back of the mouth and the other being the beginning of the way through the nasal cavity. It is the place where it is decided what will be the produced sound nasal or oral.
3. **The Velum/Soft Palate:** It is seen in the diagram in a position that allows air to pass through the nose and through the mouth. Yours is probably in that position now, but often in speech it is raised so that air could not escape through the nose. Velum decides the sound to be produced as nasal or oral. It is an articulator that can be touched by the tongue. When we make the sounds /k/ and /g/ the tongue is in contact with the lower side of the Velum, and we call them velar consonants.
4. **The Hard Palate:** It is often called the roof of the mouth also. One can feel its smooth curved surface with his tongue.
5. **The Alveolar Ridge:** It is also called the teeth ridge. It is between the top front teeth and the hard palate. We can feel its shape with our tongue. Its surface is really much rougher than it feels, and is covered with little ridges. One can only see them if he has a mirror small enough to go inside his mouth. One can produce a number of sounds by touching it with the tongue e.g. /t/ and /d/.
6. **The Tongue:** It is of course, a very important articulator which is movable. It can be moved into different directions and in different shapes to produce speech sounds. The tongue is usually divided into various parts according to its function in the production of various speech sounds: Tip, Blade, Front, Back and Roof.



7. **The Teeth:** Teeth are at the front of the mouth, immediately behind the lips. The tongue or lips move close to the teeth to produce various sounds. The sounds produced with the help of tongue by touching the upper teeth are called dental sounds e.g. /ð / and the sounds produced with the help of lips and teeth are called labio-dental sounds e.g. /f/ and /v/.
8. **The Lips:** These important organs of speech are at the front of the mouth. They can be pressed together (when we produce the sounds /p/ and /b/), brought into contact with each other. The produced sounds are called bilabial sounds. When the lips contact teeth to produce various sounds, the produced sounds are called labio-dental sounds.

Long Questions for Exercise

1. What is Speech Mechanism? Discuss in detail.
2. Discuss various Organs of Speech in detail.
3. Discuss various Active and Passive articulators with a suitable diagram.

Short Notes

1. What are the various parts of a tongue which are used in the production of speech sounds?
2. What is Soft Palate?
3. What are the Vocal Folds
4. What is Phonetics?
5. What are labio-dental sounds?
6. Discuss active and passive articulators
7. What is Phoneme?
8. Discuss the various parts of a tongue used to produce sounds.

MA English

MAEM23204T

Basics Of Linguistics, Phonetics And Communication Skills

Speech Sounds

UNIT 2: SPEECH SOUNDS

Structure

2.0 Objectives

2.1 Classification of Speech Sounds

2.1.1 Vowels and Consonants

2.1.2 Description and Classification of Consonants

2.1.3 List of Consonants with Examples

2.1.4 List of Vowels with Examples

2.1.5 Diphthongs

2.1.6 The Indicators for Description of Diphthongs

2.1.7 List of Diphthongs with Examples

2.1.8 The IPA symbols and Transcription

2.1.9 List of Selected Words for Phonetic Transcription

2.0 Objectives

This unit primarily discusses the classification of various speech sounds. The major classes of sounds have been discussed i.e. Consonants, Vowels, and Diphthongs. Further, there is a list of symbols with examples used for the transcription of various speech sounds in English. After the study of this unit, a student will be able to

1. Classify various Speech Sounds
2. Understand the functions of Consonants, Vowels, and Diphthongs in English
3. Transcribe small words into IPA symbols

2.1 Classification of Speech Sounds

The speech sounds are broadly classified into two categories: Vowels and Consonants.

2.1.1 Vowels and Consonants

These two categories are defined differently in different descriptions. The most popular and at the same

time the most misleading way of defining them is in terms of the letters of alphabets. Thus, in some grammar books of English the letters a, e, i, o, u are labeled as vowels and the rest as consonants. But such classification is not perfect according to different speech sounds. So, it is rejected in the phonetics.

There are two other ways in which the vowels and consonants can be defined in Phonetic terms and Linguistic terms i.e. in terms of production of speech sounds and their function in a given language, respectively. In phonetic terms, a speech sound is defined _Vowel‘ if the production of it, there is, in the Pharynx and the mouth, no obstruction, and no narrowing of a degree that would cause audible friction. All other sounds are defined as _Consonants‘. It means the process of the production of speech sounds decides the nature of a produced sound: vowel or consonant.

Let‘s take an example of the word _Bee‘. The word clearly consists of two sounds _B‘ and _ee‘. If we take the last sound first _ee‘, the speaker produces it by raising the front of the tongue fairly high. In this process the tongue is raised to make a partial closure in the air-passage but this degree of closure is not enough to cause any audible friction in the produced sound. The sound can be clearly classified as a vowel. Now, let‘s examine the sound represented by the letter _B‘. To produce it, the speaker has to make a complete closure of the mouth by bringing the two lips together and then suddenly releases the air held. Thus, there is noticeable air obstruction to the flow from the lungs. Due to this obstruction the produced sound is classified as consonant. There is one more major difference between the vowel and consonant sounds: consonant sounds are heavier and stronger than the vowels.

2.1.3 Description and Classification of Consonants

The consonant sounds are classified according to their place of articulation and the place of articulation of a consonant is determined by the passive articulator involved in the production of it, and for this reason, the sound is also named after the passive articulator. Thus, the /g/ sound in the English word _Get‘ is called velar sound because the passive articulator involved in its production is the velum/soft palate.

Description of Consonants depends on the following information: the nature of air flow; the state of the glottis; the position of the soft palate; the organs involved; and the nature of the closure/stricture.

The main places of articulation of consonant sounds are

1. **Bilabial:** The articulators involved are the two lips
   Examples: The initial sounds in the English words **B**en, **P**en, **M**at represent bilabial sounds.
2. **Labio-Dental:** The active articulator is the lower lip and the passive articulator the upper teeth.
   Examples: The initial sounds in the English words **f**ine and **v**ine represent the labio-dental sounds.
3. **Dental:** The active articulator is the tip of the tongue and the passive articulator the upper teeth.
   Examples: The initial sounds in the English words **th**in and **th**at.

4. **Alveolar:** The active articulator is the blade or tip and blade of the tongue, and the passive articulator the teeth ridge.

   Examples: The initial sounds in the English words **t**in and **d**in.

5. **Post-alveolar:** The active articulator is the tip of the tongue, and the passive articulator the rear part of the teeth ridge.

   Examples: The commonest variety of the **R** sound in British English as in the words **r**ail and t**r**ee.

6. **Retroflex:** The active articulator is the underside of the tip of the tongue, and the passive articulator the front of the hard palate. The tip of the tongue is curled back to the place of articulation.

   Examples: The example sounds are in Punjabi language: m [**th**] and v [**d**].

7. **Palato-Alveolar:** These sounds are produced by two simultaneous articulations (i) the blade of the tongue is active articulator, it articulates against the teeth ridge as passive articulator and (ii) the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate.

   Examples: The initial sounds in the English words **ch**in and s**h**are.

8. **Palatal:** The active articulator is the front of the tongue, and the passive articulator the hard palate.

   Examples: The initial sound in the English word **y**es.

9. **Velar:** The active articulator is the back of the tongue, and the passive articulator the soft palate.

   Examples: The final sounds in the English words sa**ck**, wa**g**, and san**g**.

10. **Uvular:** The active articulator is the back of the tongue and the passive articulator the Uvula (compare with the velar sounds for which too the active articulator is the back of the tongue).

    Examples: The initial sounds in Urdu words: **K**alam (pen) and **K**areeb (near). English has no Uvular sound.

11. **Glottal:** The articulators for the glottal sounds are the two vocal cords. The sounds are produced by an obstruction or a narrowing causing friction, but not by vibration, between the vocal cords.

    Examples: The sound of the cough and the initial sound in the English word *h*en.

2.1.4 List of Consonants (24) in Standard British English

1. / p / as in **P**at and Sla**p**
2. / t / as in **T**in and Ba**t**
3. / k / as in **C**at and Si**t**
4. / b / as in **B**ig and **B**i**b**
5. / d / as in **D**i**d** and **D**og
6. / g / as in **G**et and **G**ood
7. / f / as in **F**at and **F**it
8. / v / as in **V**an and Belie**ve**

9. / ð / as in **Th**is and **Th**at
10. / θ / as in **Th**ink and **Th**in
11. / s / as in **S**it and **S**o
12. / z / as in **Z**ip and **Z**oo
13. / ʃ / as in **Sh**ip and **Sh**oe
14. / h / as in **H**en and **H**it
15. / m / as in **M**an and **M**int
16. / n / as in Su**n** and **N**ose
17. / ŋ / as in Ki**ng** and Ba**nk**
18. / l / as in **L**ove and **L**ike
19. / r / as in **R**ose and **R**at
20. / t / as in **T**ime and **T**o
21. / tʃ / as in **Ch**ur**ch** and **Ch**in
22. / dʒ / as in Ba**dge** and **J**ug
23. / w / as in **W**et and **W**aste
24. / j / as in **Y**et and **Y**ellow
25. / ʒ / as in Vi**si**on and Mea**su**re

2.1.5 List of Vowels (12) in Standard British English

Long Vowels (05)

1. / iː/ as in K**ey** and Sc**e**ne
2. / ɑː / as in C**ar** and H**ar**m
3. / ɔː / as in C**ore** and C**augh**t
4. / ʊː / as in Sh**oe** and R**u**de
5. / ɜː / as in G**ir**l and **Ear**th

Short Vowels (07)

6. / ɪ / as in P**i**t and C**ity**
7. / e / as in P**e**t and B**e**t
8. / æ / as in C**a**t and B**a**t
9. / ʌ / as in C**u**p and C**u**t
10. / ɒ / as in H**o**t and Y**a**cht
11. / ʊ / as in P**u**t and W**ou**ld

12. / ə / as in **A**lone and P**o**tato

List of Questions for Practice

Long Questions

Q1. Discuss the classification of English speech sounds in detail.

Q2. Differentiate between Consonant and Vowel sounds with suitable examples.

Q3. Give the description and classification of Consonant sounds

Q4. Enlist English consonant sounds with suitable examples

Q5. Enlist English vowel Sounds with suitable examples

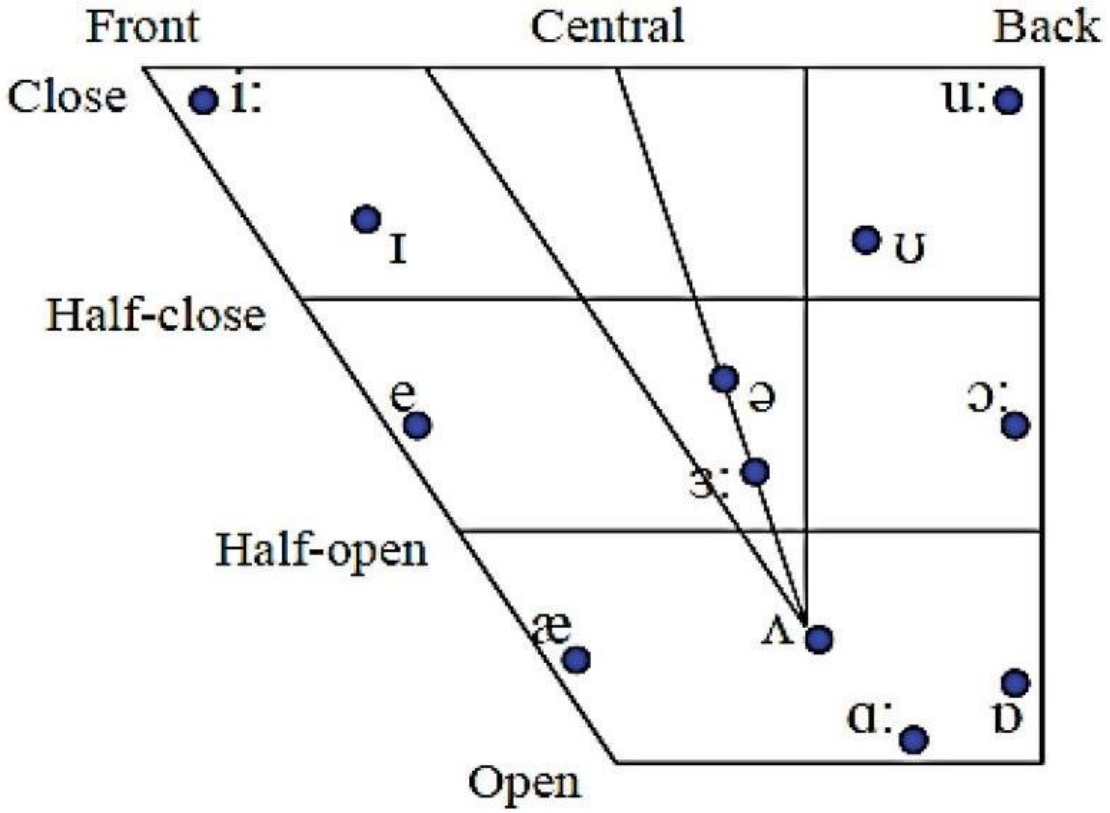
Short Notes

a. What is a Consonant sound?
b. What is a Vowel Sound?
c. Differentiate between a consonant and a vowel sound

Description and Classification of Vowels

Vowel is essentially a tone or a ―hum‖. Modification in the tone distinguishes one vowel sound from the other. The modification in the tone is the result of the modification in the sizes and shapes of the resonating chambers (the pharyngeal cavity, the nasal cavity, the nasal cavity, and the mouth) through which the tone passes. The major organs which play a major role in the modification of the resonating chambers are the soft palate, the tongue, and the lips. To understand the production of the vowel sounds, it is essential to understand the activities of these organs

1. The Position of the Soft Palate: If it is raised, it is ready to produce oral vowels and if it is lowered, it is ready to produce nasalized vowels.
2. The Shape Assumed by the Lips: the lips may be spreaded, rounded or neutral
3. The Shape Assumed by the Tongue: The various parts of the tongue may be raised and it is also noticeable that how high the part is raised



The Vowel Diagram

1. / iː / During its production the front part of the tongue is raised to the hard palate in a very close position. The lips are spread and the tongue is tense. It is a front, closed, rounded vowel.
2. / ɪ / In the production of this vowel the rear part of the front of the tongue is raised to the position just above the half close position. Lips are loosely spread. It is a centralized, front, unrounded vowel.
3. /e/ This vowel is produced with the help of the front of the tongue. The front is raised in the direction of the roof of the mouth. It is a front, unrounded, half-open vowel.
   It occurs initially, medially, and not finally, for example in the words like **e**nemy and g**e**t.
4. / æ / In the articulation of this vowel, the front of the tongue is the half-open position. Lips remain usual. It is called a front, unrounded, hal-open vowel. It occurs initially, medially and not finally for example in the words: **a**pple, **a**ss, r**a**t, and b**a**t.
5. / ɑː / In the articulation of this vowel the back part of the tongue is in the fully open position and the lips remain neutral. It is called a back, open, unrounded vowel. It may occur initially, medially, and finally. For example: **ar**t, h**ar**m, f**ar**.

6. / ɒ / To produce this vowel sound the tongue is raised to the soft palate. It is in an open position. Lips are rounded. It is called a back, open, rounded vowel. It occurs initially, medially, and rarely in final position.
7. / ɔː / In the articulation of this vowel sound lips are closely rounded. It is a back rounded, half-open vowel. It occurs initially, medially, and rarely finally. For example: **o**rder, c**augh**t, b**a**ll.
8. / ʊ / During the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised in the direction of the soft palate. It is a centralized, back rounded vowel. It does not occur initially. For example, the sound in the words w**oo**d, t**o**, d**o**, and y**ou**.
9. / ʊː / In the articulation of this vowel the back of the tongue is raised to the soft palate, almost in the close position. It is a back, close and rounded vowel.
10. / ʌ / In the articulation of this vowel the front of the tongue is raised just between open and half-open position. It occurs initially, medially, and not finally. For example the sound in the following words: **u**p, c**u**p, s**u**pper, **u**pper etc.
11. / ɜː / In the articulation of this vowel the centre of the tongue is raised to the centre of the roof. Lips remain neutral, but half closed and half open. The sound may occur initially, medially and finally. The exemplary words are **ear**th, g**ir**l, and s**ir**.
12. / ə / The organs remain in the normal position in the production of this vowel sound. It is a central, unrounded, half-open vowel. It generally occurs finally but sometimes initially. The exemplary words are **a**lone, moth**er**, fath**er**.

2.1.6 Diphthongs

The diphthongs are basically the combination of two vowel sounds. There are many sounds in English which are produced with the help of these sounds so diphthongs also play a major role in English speaking.

2.1.7 The Indicators for Description of Diphthongs

There are two major indicators in the description of diphthongs

1. Starting Point
2. Direction in which the vowel glides

There are a total of eight diphthongs in English. These eight can further be divided into three categories: i. ending in /ɪ/ ii. ending in /ʊ/ and iii. ending in /ə/. Diphthongs (08)

2.1.8 The List of Diphthongs with Examples

1. / eɪ / as in B**ay** and P**a**ge
2. / aɪ / as in B**uy** and F**i**ve

3. / ɔɪ / as in B**oy** and **Oi**l
4. / əʊ / as in G**oa**t and L**ow**
5. / aʊ / as in H**ou**se and H**ow**
6. / ɪə / as in H**ere** and F**ear**
7. / eə / as in Th**ere** and F**air**
8. / ʊə / as in P**oor** and S**ure**

1. / eɪ / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide starts from front unrounded vowel position between half-open and half-close position and moves in the direction of vowel / ɪ /. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.
   For example: **A**ngel, P**a**ge, Pl**ay**.
2. / aɪ / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide starts from the front, open, unrounded position and moves to / ɪ /. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.
   For example: **I**ce, N**i**ce, Tra**y**.
3. / ɔɪ / In the articulation of this diphthong the vowel glide begins at a point which is back, rounded between half close and half open vowel position and moves to / ɪ /. It is a centralized, unrounded front vowel situated just above half close position. Lips are rounded in the beginning and loosely spread in the end. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.
   For example: **Oi**l, Ch**oi**ce, J**oy**.
4. / əʊ / In the articulation of this diphthong the vowel glide begins at the central, unrounded vowel between the half-close and half-open position, to the direction of / ʊ /, centralized, back, unrounded vowel between close and half-close. Lips are spread in the beginning and loosely rounded in the end. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.
   For example: **Ow**n, G**oa**t, Wind**ow**.
5. / aʊ / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins at the back, open, unrounded vowel position, then moves to / ʊ /. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.
   For example: **Ow**l, D**ow**n, H**ow**.
6. / ɪə / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide starts from front (between close and half-close position i.e. / ɪ /) to / ə /. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.
   For example: **Ear**phones, Glor**iou**s, F**ear**.
7. / eə / In the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from front between half-open and half-close position to / ə /. Lips are neutral. It can occur anywhere initially, medially, or finally.
   For example: **A**rea, H**are**, R**are**.

8. / ʊə / It is notable that diphthong is less used. In the articulation of this diphthong the glide begins from back, rounded vowel position to / ə /. The lips are neutral in the beginning then turn neutral.

   It occurs only medially and finally.

   For example: S**ure**ly and T**our**.

Questions for Practice

Long Questions

1. Describe the various vowel sounds in English
2. What are vowel sounds? Discuss in detail
3. Discuss the classification of English vowel sounds
4. What are Diphthongs? Discuss in detail

Short Notes

1. What is a vowel sound?

2. What are diphthongs?

The IPA symbols and Transcription

After going through the last topics, one can easily understand that there is no no-to-one correspondence between the letters of the alphabet and the sounds. So we need a list of symbols in which each symbol must represent only one sound. The list of these sound symbols has been prepared by the International Phonetic Association. The symbols provided by this association are known as International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

We have already used these symbols in our previous discussion of the sounds for example the consonant, vowel, and diphthongs. The IPA symbols can be used to transcribe any sound of English or any language of the world.

The transcription means the conversion of words into speech sound symbols. It denotes the way in which words are pronounced. Each symbol represents only one sound. There is a list of small words with phonetic transcription:

5. List of Selected Words with Phonetic Transcription

1. Act /ækt/
2. Add /æd/
3. An /æn/
4. And /æŋd/
5. Art /ɑː/

6. Ask /ɑːsk/
7. At /æt/
8. Any /ænɪ/

9. Back /bæk/
10. Bag /bæg/
11. Ball /bɔːl/
12. Bank /bæŋk/
13. Be /biː/
14. Bed /bed/
15. Bell /bel/
16. Best /best/
17. Bleed /bliːd/
18. Blue /blʊː/
19. Book /bʊk/
20. Block /blɔːk/
21. Born /bɔːn/
23. Can /kæn/
25. Car /kɑː/
26. Could /kʊd/
27. Chin /tʃɪn/
28. Cheese /tʃiːz/
29. City /sɪtɪ/
30. Cup /kʌp/
31. Cut /kʌt/
32. Clean /kliːn/
34. Do /dʊː/
35. Did /dɪd/
36. Doll /dɔːl/
37. Dig /dɪg/
38. Done /dʌn/
39. Dish /dɪʃ/
40. Dog /dɔːg/
41. Dress /dres/
42. Drill /drɪl/
43. Dust /dʌst/
44. Dream /driːm/
45. Drink /drɪŋk/
46. Eat /iːt/
49. Each /iːtʃ/
50. Enter /entə/
51. Easy /ɪzɪ/
52. East /iːt/
53. Fun /fʌn/
55. Feel /fiːl/
56. Fill /fɪl/
57. Fleet /fliːt/
59. Foot /fʊt/
60. Fool /fʊːl/
61. Full /fʊl/
62. Get /get/

63. Gun /gʌn/
64. Geese /giːz/
65. Gift /gɪft/
66. Glad /glæd/
68. Glass /glɑːs/
69. Give /gɪv/
70. Hit /hɪt/
71. Hut /hʌt/
72. Hub /hʌb/
73. Hilly /hɪlɪ/
74. Horn /hɔːn/
75. Heat /hiːt/
76. Hat /hæt/
77. Hut /hʌt/
78. Ink /ɪŋk/
79. It /ɪt/
80. Is /ɪz/
81. Inner /ɪnə/
82. Ill /ɪl/
83. Jug /dʒʌg/
84. Job /dʒɔb/
85. Juice /dʒʊːs/
87. Key /kiː/
88. Keep /kiːp/
89. Kill /kɪl/
90. Knee /niː/
91. Love /lʌv/
92. Lift /lɪft/
93. List /lɪst/
94. Lip /lɪp/
95. Lick /lɪp/
96. Let /let/
97. Luck /lʌk/
98. Moon /mʊːn/
99. Mint /mɪŋt/
100. Mist /mɪst/
101. Mid /mɪd/
103. Meal /miːl/
104. Nil /nɪl/
105. Nest /nest/
106. None /nʌn/
107. Nick /nɪk/
108. Next /nekst/
109. On /
110. Of
111. Oil /ɔɪl/
112. Pink /pɪŋk/
114. Pull /pʊl/

115. Push /pʊʃ/
116. Part /pɑːt/
117. Queen /kwiːn/
118. Quick /kwɪk/
119. Rest /rest/
120. Reach /riːtʃ/
121. Run /rʌn/
122. Red /red/
123. Sun /sʌn/
124. Sit /sɪt/
125. Seven /seven/
126. Spoon /spːn/
127. Spin /spɪn/
128. Tip /tɪp/
129. Till /tɪl/
130. Ten /ten/
131. Teeth /tiːθ/
132. Until /ʌntɪl/
133. Up /ʌp/
134. Visit /vɪzɪt/
135. Win /wɪn/
137. With /wɪð/
138. Wish /wɪʃ/
139. Zip /zɪp/
140. Zoo /zʊː/

Learners can consult the English Pronouncing Dictionary (EPD) to see the correct pronunciation of any English word. They are also advised to attempt to transcribe the following words into IPA symbols for practice.

Word	**Your Transcription**	**Correction, if any**
Feel		
Set		
Seat		
Pool		
But		
Big		
Cat		
Go		

Gun

Bird

Boil

Ear

Tear

Pot

Bin

Bing

Sip

Ship

Chin

Leave

Wet

Thin

That

Then

Sing

Hat

Red

Stool

Stunt

Splash

Zen

Run

Room

Basics Of Linguistics, Phonetics And Communication Skills

Section-D

Speech Sounds

UNIT 1: UNDERSTANDING HUMAN COMMUNICATION

Structure

1.0 Objectives

1.1 Introduction - Understanding Human Communication

1.2 Constitutive Processes Of Communication

1.3 Language As A Tool Of Communication

1.4 Barriers To Effective Communication

1.5 Strategies To Overcome The Barriers

1.6 Summing It Up

1.7 Questions For Practice

1.8 Suggested Readings

1.0 Learning Objectives

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- Grasp the nature of human communication
- Understand the process involved in communication
- Realise the significance of language as a tool of communication
- Pinpoint the barriers to effective communication
- Overcome the barriers and become an effective communicator

1.1 Introduction - Understanding Human Communication

This unit will focus on a key component of language acquisition – Communication. You may be interested to know that the word _communicate' comes from the Latin word *communicare,* meaning _to give' or _to share'. So it is clear that the idea of communication has always involved more than one person – there are always those who send a message of some kind andthose who receive it. Having good communication skills involves being aware of both sender and receiver.

There are, primarily, two types of communication – verbal and non-verbal.

Given the complexity of communication, it is not surprising that we can often get misunderstood or misinterpreted. It is perhaps surprising that so much of our communication does appear to achieve at least some success. Communication continues most of the time while we are awake. It even seems to go on while we are asleep. When we dream, research suggests that some parts of our brain are communicating with other parts.

Human societies have developed many ways of communicating. Often, these make it possiblefor one person, or groups of people, to communicate with many others. These people may or may not be present when the process of communication is started. These types of communication include lectures, concerts and the media (such as television, radio, newspapers and the internet).

To summarise:

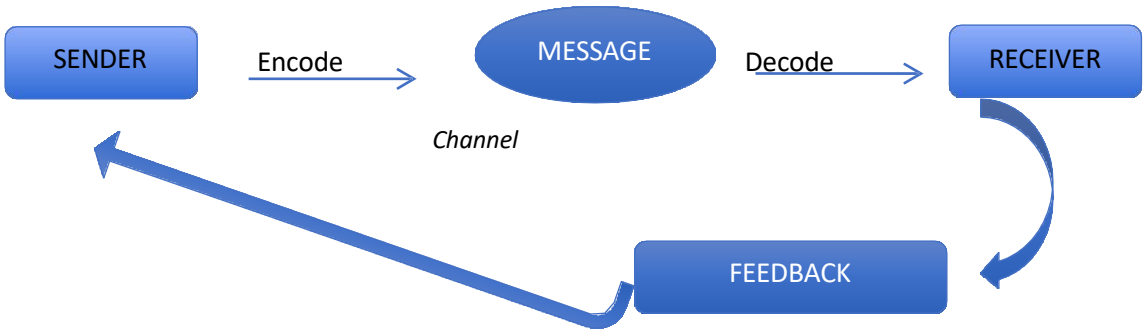
- Communication takes many different forms.
- Communication uses different channels.
- Communication affects all aspects of life.

Sometimes we feel we are communicating well, only to find that we have been misunderstood – that we haven‘t really communicated at all.

It has been suggested that:
The meaning of communication is the response you get. (O‘Connor and Seymour, 1995, p. 18)

1.2 Constitutive Processes Of Communication

Look at the following diagram that shows the process of communication:



The process of communication thus involves the following basic elements:

- Sender – The one who initiates communication
- Message – The actual content that is being communicated
- Receiver – The one to whom the communication is directed at
- Feedback – Communication is complete ONLY when one receives a feedback
- Encode – This refers to converting thoughts and feelings into understandable language
- Decode – Understanding the thoughts and feelings that have been conveyed by the sender.

- Channel – This is the medium of communication. eg. A phone, a letter, etc.

1.3 Language as a Tool Of Communication

The renowned critic I.A. Richards explained that communication is basically an exchange andexact replication of thoughts, feelings, ideas, emotion, etc between one or more human beingsusing mutually understandable system of symbols.

This mutually understandable system of symbols is what we call ‗language'. Therefore, language is not merely limited to English, Hindi, Punjabi, etc, but includes much more. For instance, what we wear, use, possess, etc, constitutes language as well. Consider the following – Tom's friend has bought a very expensive car. He does not need to print the price tag on the car itself as people look at the car and understand that it must be quite expensive. This car therefore ‗speaks' for itself.

Check your progress 1:

1. What do you understand by Encoding and Decoding?

Ans._____

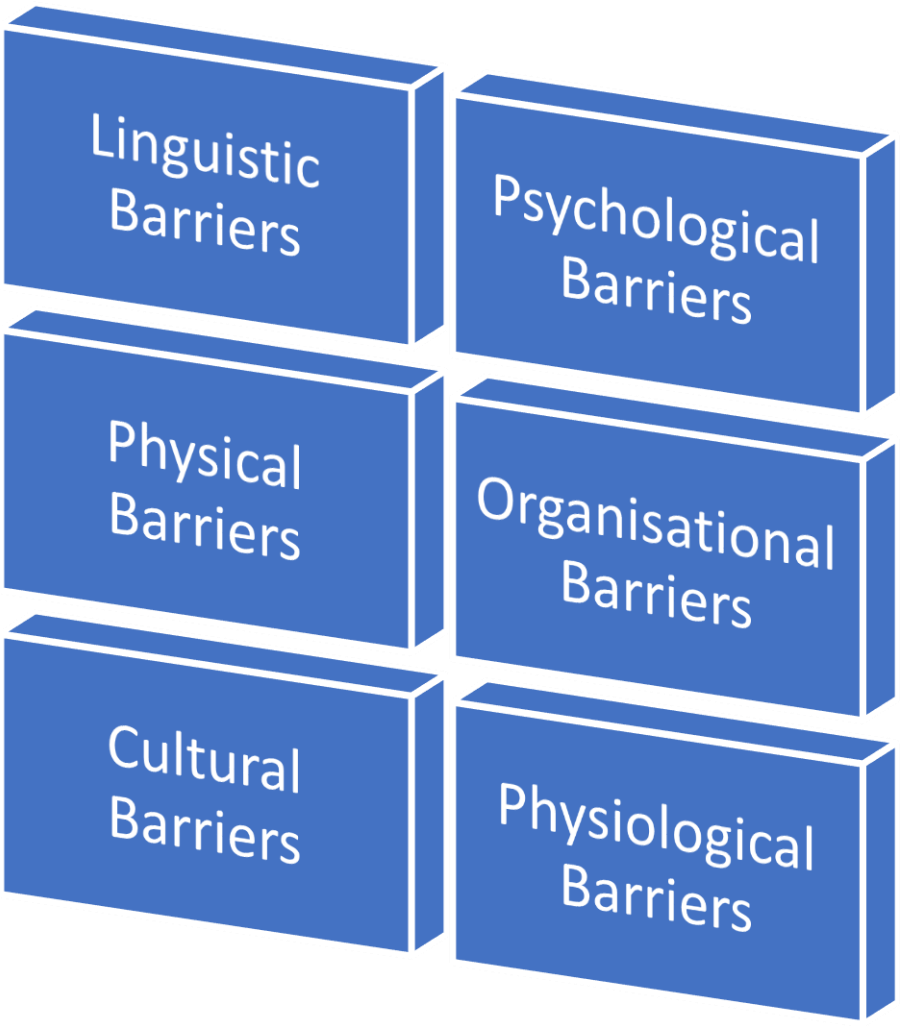
_____

_____

2. The process of communication is complete only when the sender receives a ……

1.4 Barriers To Effective Communication

We communicate with people throughout each and every day. We communicate through conversation, our expressions and body language, social media, email, telephone, etc. We rely on our communication skills to further our friendships, plan vacations, repair marriages, order dinner, purchase a car, express our opinions, ask for help, negotiate deals, accept job offers, etc. Regardless of the type of communication: verbal, nonverbal, written, listening or visual, if we don't communicate effectively, we put ourselves and others at risk. There are SIX barriers to effective communication we should strive to eradicate.



I. **Linguistic Barriers** – This is primarily a language barrier. Various subtypes are discussedas under:

a. Semantic Gap – When the sender and the receiver do not know a common language.
b. Semantic Noise – When the sender and receiver do know a common language, but owing to outside interference, there arises a barrier. For instance, in a lecture hall, students are unable to understand what the teacher is trying to explain not because the students do not understand English, but because there seems to be a lot of noise coming from outside the classroom. This noise acts as an interference.
c. Difficult words and/or jargon - Like a secret ―insider‖ language, jargon is terminology only understood by people in a certain group. Most words in the English language are a part of common, everyday speech, understood by almost anyone who speaks the language. However, jargon is like a type of shorthand between members of a particular group of people, often involving words that are meaningless outside of a certain context.
d. Mispronounced or Misspelled words - Misspellings are not only common, but also awkward in professional contexts. When you receive an email or document with spelling errors, it's difficult to trust the person sending it. Spelling speaks to

attention to detail as well as level of education, and you want to make sure yours is on point. Similarly, it is always better to know fewer words and pronounce them well than to know a lot of words and pronounce them badly. Bad pronunciation can lead to misunderstandings that may cause mishaps. It can also lead to people avoiding communication with you because they feel you are too difficult to talk to.

e. High-flown expressions – Using expressions/words that are very pretentious, bombastic or simply using certain words to sound very intellectual is absolutely wrong. The receiver may have problems in understanding your message. Remember, the aim of communicationis to express, NOT to impress.
f. Poor vocabulary - Some people have low vocabulary in a particular language whereas somevery high. Though literacy and education increases the need to learn new words, it might not be the only reason. People can increase their vocabulary by reading and with their owninterest too. Vocabulary is also less if a person uses the language as their unofficial language. Likewise, linguistic ability is the capability of a person in a particular language. If a person with high vocabulary and linguistic ability talks with another with low ability, the second person will not understand the words used leading to miscommunication of whole message.
g. Poor Grammar: A major barrier occurs when the sender, in encoding the message, does not pay attention to the grammatical structure of the sentences. Punctuation marks, if not placedproperly, can also lead to the distortion of the message. For eg. 1.(Grammar) I want to marry my daughter. Correct: I want to get my daughter married. 2. (Punctuation: Story of the king who ordered to leave a convict to be hanged, after finding him innocent) Hang him. Not Leave him. Correct: Hang him not. Leave him.

II. **Psychological Barriers** – Psyche means mind. Psychological barriers are created in the mind. Communication is a mental activity and its aim is to create understanding. But the human mind is complex and not all communication can result in understanding. There are several kinds of psychological barriers which can come in the way of understanding.

a. Emotions: Emotions are among the most common psychological barriers to communication. The emotion may be connected to the communication received or it may be present in the sender‗s or receiver‗s mind, even before the communication takes place. In both cases, it acts as a barrier. Emotions can be positive, like happiness and joy, or negative, like fear, anger, mistrust etc. Both positive and negative emotions act as barriers,if they are not kept in check.
b. Prejudice: A prejudice is an opinion held by a person for which there is no rational basis or valid reason. It can be against something or someone, or in favour of it, but it becomes a barrier to a meaningful communication. Prejudices are based on ignorance and lack of information, e.g., prejudices about certain communities or groups of people.
c. Halo effect: Sometimes our reactions to people are not balanced or objective; they are of an extreme nature. Either we like a person so much that we can find no

shortcomings in her/him, or we dislike someone so much that we can see nothing good in her/him. In both cases, we commit errors of judgment and fail to understand the person.

d. Self-image or different perceptions: Every person has in her/his mind a certain image of herself/himself. S/he thinks of herself/himself in a certain way. This is their perception of themselves, their self-image. One_s self-image is the product of one_s heredity, one_s environment and one_s experiences, and thus every person_s self-image is unique and different from the others. Self-image can create a barrier because we accept communication which is compatible with our self-image. We avoid or reject communication, which goes against our perception of ourselves.

e. Closed Mind: A closed mind is one which refuses to accept an idea or opinion on a subject, because it is different from his idea. Such persons form their opinion on a subject, and then refuse to listen to anyone who has something different to say about it. A closed mind maybe the result of some past experience or just habit. It is very difficult to remove this psychological barrier.

f. Status: Status refers to rank or position. It could be economic, social or professional status. In any organisation, hierarchy creates differences in rank, and this is a normal situation. Thus, status by itself does not cause barriers; but when a person becomes too conscious of his status, whether high or low, then status becomes a barrier. For instance, in a business organisation, a senior executive who is unduly conscious of his seniority will not communicate properly with his juniors, and will refrain from giving them the required information. Similarly, if a junior is acutely conscious of his junior status, he will avoid communicating with his seniors, even when it is necessary.

g. Inattentiveness and Impatience: Sometimes the receiver may not pay attention to the sender_s message, or he may be too impatient to hear the message fully and properly. Suchbarriers are common in oral communication.

III. Physical or environmental barriers:

a. Noise - The noise created by external factors like traffic, playing of loud music, trains andairplanes, or by crowds of people, affects our communication.

b. Time & distance - Time becomes a physical barrier when people have to communicate across different time zones in different countries. The physical distance between people who need to communicate can also cause problems because it does not allow oral or face-to-face communication.

c. Defects in communication system – Mechanical problems and defects in instruments of communication also create physical barriers, as in a faulty fax machine or typewriter. Similarly, a computer that hangs, or a dead telephone line can lead to non-transmission of messages. eg. No range in mobile, technical problem in mike or speakers.

d. Wrong selection of medium – The sender selects the medium which is not familiar to the receiver.

IV. Organisational barriers:

a. Negative Tendencies: Bonding between people who share similar values, attitudes, opinions, beliefs and behaviours is often termed as Group-ism. Often

organizations too create work groups to facilitate certain organizational tasks. Communication barrier here surfaces often due to a conflict between the members and non-members or among the members themselves.

b. Over/Under Communication- Neither there should be excess of information nor should it be too scanty. Excess information may confuse the receiver as he has to figure out the exactimport of the message and scanty information would make him grope for the actual intentof the message.
c. Use of Inappropriate Media: While choosing the medium you should keep in mind the advantages, disadvantages and potential barriers to communication. If the choice of the channel or medium is not right the impact of the message is lost. The responsibility lies with the sender, as he should ensure that all channels are free of noise before commencingcommunication.
d. Fear of Superiors: In rigidly structured organizations, fear or awe of superiors prevents subordinates from speaking frankly.

V. Cultural barriers:

a. This is one of the predominant factors in communication failure. As global residents we need to be aware of the customs, laws, and business practices of the companies of other nations we are dealing with. eg. Maintaining Eye-Contact during conversation is seen as a sign of self-confidence in the USA, whereas the same activity is termed rude in Japan.
b. Time and space are also culture-bound, so it is essential to value these elements, not doingso would result in communication failure.

VI. Physiological barriers:

a. Physiological barriers to communication are related with the limitations of the human body and the human mind (memory, attention, and perception). Physiological barriers may resultfrom individuals‘ personal discomfort, caused by ill-health, poor eye sight, or hearing difficulties.

Check your progress 2:

1. How many types of barriers can exist in communication? Explain any two in detail.

Ans._____

2. Tom uses words that are very difficult to understand. Even though Jerry understands basic English, he still seems to be clueless as to what Tom is trying to convey. What seems to be the problem here and what can be done to alleviate this problem?

Ans._____

3. Scooby was trying to explain a lot of things to his friends, but his friends could not understand everything since they felt that Scooby had given a lot of information to them in very little time to process it. What communication barrier is responsible for this situation?

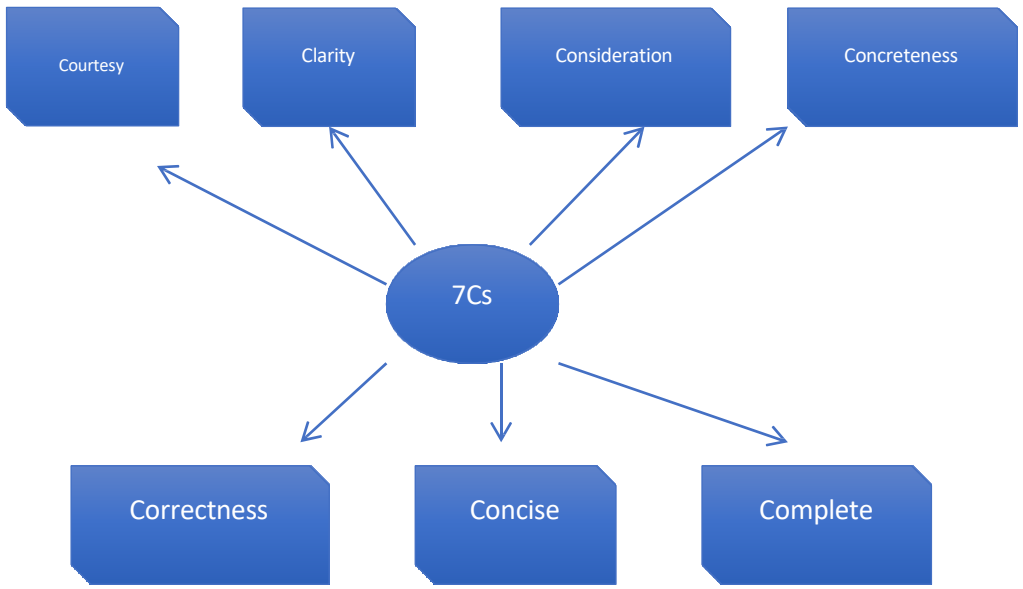
Ans._____

4. What do you understand by –Halo effect‖? Give an example to explain the same. 7

Ans. _____

1.5 STRATEGIES TO OVERCOME THE BARRIERS

Barriers disrupt communication and interfere with understanding. They must be overcome if communication has to be effective.



To be an effective communicator, thus, one must follow what is known as the _7CPrinciple‖ .

i. Courtesy: You must always be pleasant and courteous while communicating.
ii. Clarity: Always communicate clearly. This includes your handwriting, your speech, your gestures, etc
iii. Consideration: Be considerate towards the people you are communicating with.
iv. Concreteness: Facts! Your message must have some substance. Do not lie, otherwise you will end up ruining your reputation. Remember the story of the Lion and the Shepherd?
v. Correctness: This refers to the fact that your message should be correct, i.e. correct use of grammar, punctuation, pronunciation, spellings, etc.
vi. Concise: When communicating messages of this nature it‘s important to stick to the point and keep your messages short and simple. Don‘t use 10 words if you can use five. Don‘t repeat your messages. The more you say, the more risk there is of confusion. Avoid that risk by focusing solely on the key points you need to deliver.
vii. Complete: Completeness is often one of the most important of the 7 Cs of communication. When creating a message, it‘s important to give the recipient all of the information they need to follow your line of reasoning and to reach the same conclusions you have. This level of detail will be different in different situations, and you should adjust your communications accordingly.

Check your progress 3:

1. The_____must be followed for you to overcome any barriers that may arise during the process of communication.

2. What do you understand by the term Courtesy? Explain with reference to the 7C Principle.

Ans._____

_____

3. Snoopy was feeling ill so he decided to visit the doctor. The doctor checked him and prescribed some medicines to him. Snoopy went to the local drug-

store and the druggist looked at the prescription and handed him the medicine. When Snoopy reached home, he took the medicine as directed by his physician but unfortunately, he developed some side effects and realised that his condition had not improved at all. Later tests concluded that he had been given a medicine that was not the same as in the prescription. The shopkeeper later claimed that he could not make out what was actually written in the prescription. After having read this story carefully, explain which of the 7C principle should have been employed and by whom.

Ans._____

1.6 Summing It Up

In this lesson, you have learnt the nature of communication, the different kinds of communication and the different channels of communication. The barriers to communication and effective communication strategies have also been dealt with.

1.7 Questions For Practice

Q1. What do you understand by communication?
Q2. What are the elements involved during the process of communication?
Q3. What are the different barriers that may arise during communication?
Q4. What is the 7c Principle? What is its importance?

1.8 Suggested Readings

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MA English

MAEM23204T

Basics Of Linguistics, Phonetics And Communication Skills
Effective Communication In English

UNIT 2: Non-Verbal Communication

Structure:

2.0 Objectives
2.1 Introduction
2.2 Importance Of Non-Verbal Communication
2.3 Types Of Non-Verbal Communication
2.4 Cultural Differences
2.5 Non-Verbal Communication In The Internet World
2.6 Let's Sum Up
2.7 Questions For Practice
2.8 References

1.0 Objectives:

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

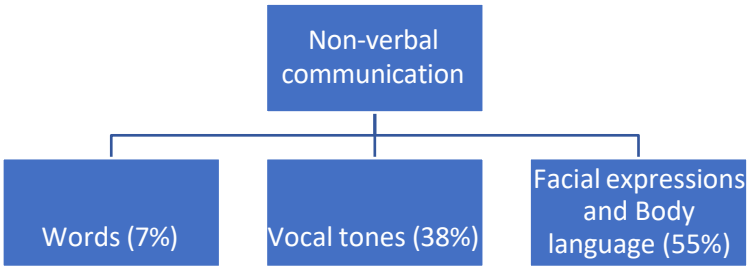
- Know how to communicate without words;
- Understand how Non-verbal communication is complimentary to Verbal communication;
- Describe the elements of writing style;
- Understand the benefits of non-verbal communication; and
- Recognize the different forms of non-verbal communication.

2.1 Introduction:

Communication means transferring information from one person to another. It is believed that as human beings, we spend nearly 75 percent of our day's time communicating our knowledge, thoughts, and ideas to others. But we forget to understand that the means which we use to communicate is actually the non-verbal form instead of the oral and written forms. Facial expressions, eye contact, tone of voice, body posture and gestures, positioning within groups, and of course, our dressing sense, our attire, are nothing else but non-verbal communication. It also includes the way we touch each other, the way we say something, and not saysomething, means how we maintain silence.

Communicating a message without using words or meaning of words is also known as ―non- verbal communication‖. Non-verbal language involves hidden messages and cues which deliver the messages. Experts have stated that true feelings are conveyed more accurately through non-verbal messages than the spoken or written language. Non-verbal messages do nothave universal meaning, because the meaning changes differently in different contexts. Moreover, our understanding of non-verbal messages increase with experience and age. According to one study, only seven percent of a message effect is carried by words and

listenerreceives remaining 93% through non-verbal means. Further, out of the 93%, 38 % is through vocal tones, and 55% is through facial expressions and body language.



Communicating without words, using a simple smile, a firm handshake, a warm hug, are meanswhich say so much, even more than words, sometimes. The eyes, the hands, the overall body movements of the person always complement the verbal messages of a person and enhance theprocess of communication.



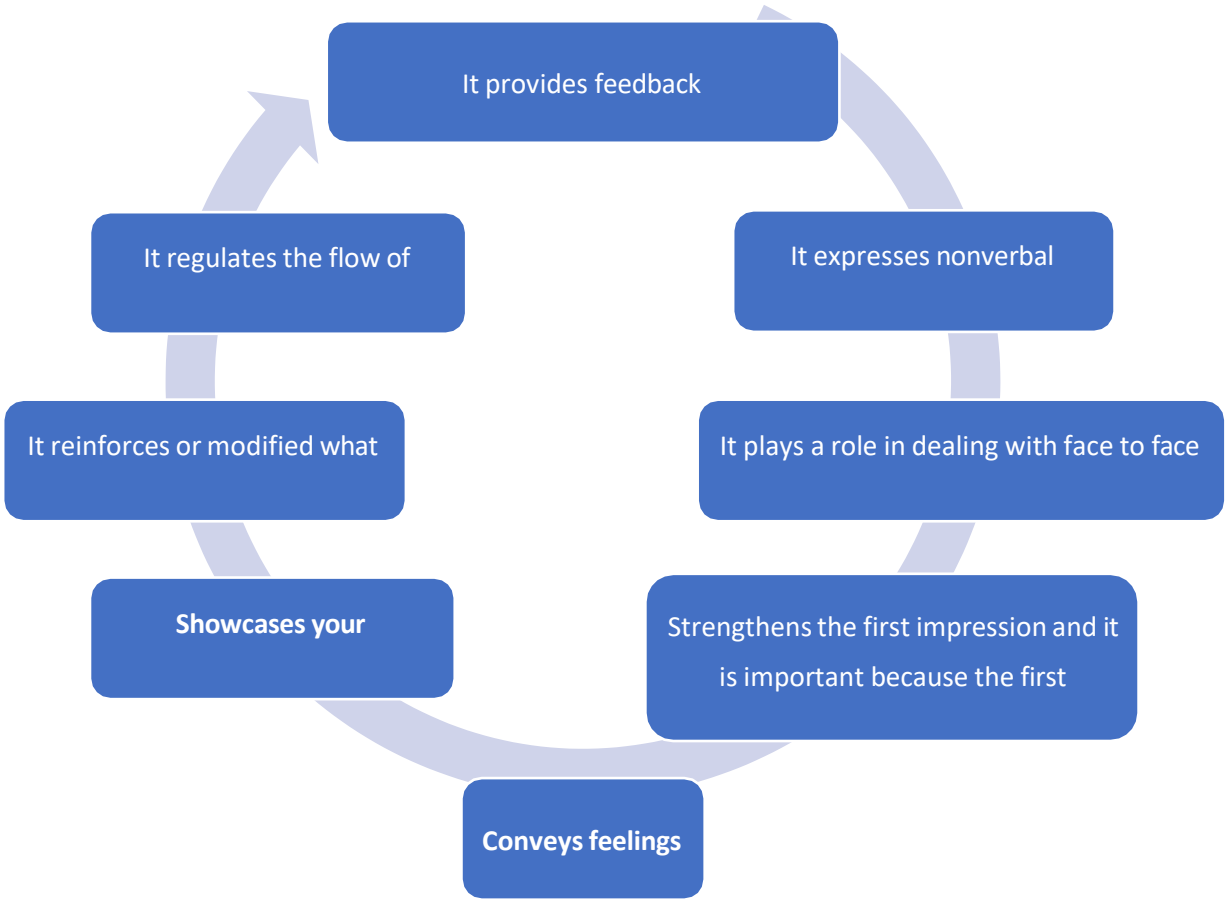
(https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/d/db/Universal_facial_expressions.jpg)

It is important to note that sometimes, our body begins to speak even before we start speakingor the moment we face an audience, in any context. The audience immediately starts decoding your body language, the message through your sitting position, posture, and the expressions that appear on your face, the twists and turn. Even how we enter, how we move, the manner inwhich you walk, generally known as gait, how you hold your manuscript, how you stand, howyou move your hands, the look in your eyes, everything is under observation by the numerouspeople, with numerous interpretations. Thus, the judgments about us as what kind of speaker you are, are made to some extent.

Definitely, an appropriate training in the use of visual codes is necessary for acquiringeffectiveness and success in communication. Sometimes, the efficiency in their use can, to a great extent, make up for the lapses and inadequacies one has in verbal communication.

2.2 Importance Of Nonverbal Communication:

Nonverbal communication is important because it gives us valuable information about a situation including how a person might be feeling, how someone receives information and how one approachs a person or group of people. Paying attention to and developing the ability to read nonverbal communications is an invaluable skill you can leverage at every stage of your career.



There are several ways nonverbal communication can support your ability to communicate effectively in all situations, including:

- First impression: Nonverbal communication mostly strengthens the first impression and it is important because the first impression affects our perception.
- Supports your message. During a discussion or a meeting or engaging in conversation, nonverbal cues can put emphasis on and draw attention to the content of your message. For example, using hand gestures to indicate the importance of an idea may tell your listeners to pay attention to and remember a key point.
- It provides feedback. Sometimes, through nonverbal means one may nod, saying yes (when moving head upward to downward position) or no (when moving head from right to left), or sometimes, raised eyebrow to express surprise. More often one can use nonverbal communication completely to communicate with others.
- Communicates intention. Your body language may also intentionally or unintentionally express your current condition. For example, people may pick up nonverbal cues that you are being dishonest, unengaged, excited or aggressive.

- Conveys feelings. You can also use nonverbal communication to show your feelings, such as disappointment, relief, happiness, contentment, and more.
- Reduces tension. When we use a calm tone or soft voice, open body language, and clear gestures. It helps to deal with difficult and tense situations.
- Offering support. Nonverbal signals are also a great way to show support, whether it's a simple smile or pat on the back. Action may speak louder than words in many cases.
- Showcases your personality. Nonverbal communication is a great way to show who you are. For example, a kind and optimistic person might frequently smile with open body language and offer friendly touches.
- Showing actions. Sometimes, one may just do an action to say something. Like pointing towards a door to indicate your desire to leave the room, raising your hand to offer an idea or putting your hand out to meet someone new.

Check your progress-1 :

Mark True or False:

- Communication means transferring information from one person to another.
- Listener receives 7 % of the message through non-verbal means.
- Non-verbal communication supports your message and provides feedback.

2.3 Types of Non-Verbal Communication:

Nonverbal communication is everything except your words. It includes your body language as well as object language. Object language here means sending message through our style, our sometimes, different attire (like wearing torn jeans intentionally), sometimes, wearing a causal, dirty, un-ironed sweat shirt, etc. So, all these are non-verbal means of communication. It should always be kept in mind that our listeners or observers are processing non-verbal cues automatically and almost unconsciously. Having an increased awareness about and using nonverbal cues on purpose are probably the best means of improving our positive impact on others. Kinesics is the systematic study of body language which works through facial expressions eye contact, gestures, head position, body shape, posture and appearance. Following are some details about the most prominent aspects of body language which invite attention:

- Facial Expressions: Smile, Eye contact, Head movements
- Posture
- Gestures
- Proximity and orientation
- Hepatics: Touch behaviour
- Paralanguage
- Silence and Time

- Appearance
- Dress code

Facial Expressions: We gain a good deal of information about people‘s emotional and mental state from the expressions on their face. Pleasure or displeasure, interest or boredom, fear or anger, all these expressions can be understood from the attitude. Facial expressions are very powerful in controlling the type and amount of communication taking place between two persons. Facial expressions add meaning to the verbal content. Facial expressions usually communicate emotions. Through expressions the attitudes of the communicator is conveyed. The lower face reveals happiness or surprise; the smile, for example, can communicate friendliness and cooperation.





(https://unsplash.com/photos/XECZHb6NoFo)

The facial expressions, like a smile, a frown, the raising of eyebrows or tightening of jaw muscle convey a lot in communication. Wooden expression or a cold look on the listeners expresses prejudice, whereas a bright and illuminated face may evoke an enthusiastic response.For sustaining the interest and response of the audience the facial expression should be meaningful. One exudes zeal in making a point or smiling while one is explaining an intricateproblem. Biting the lips or raising the eyebrows at regular intervals or blinking the eyes too often, not only disappoints the audience but also spoils the smooth flow of the message.



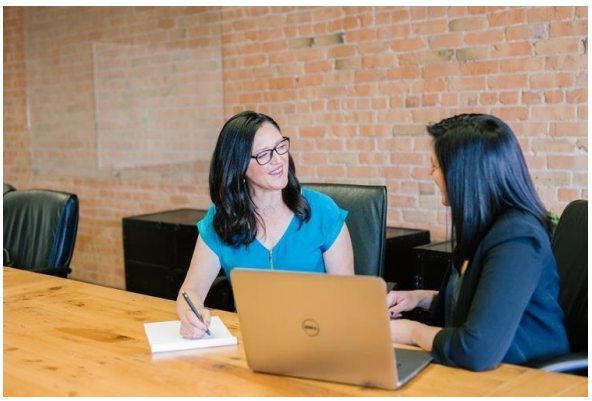
Source: (pxhere.com)

It is advisable to continually change facial expressions during interaction as these are monitored constantly by the recipient. It must not be forgotten that the meaning of these expressions maybe or may not be similar across cultures.

How do we talk through our face:

- *A smile tells people we are pleased to see them*
- *A frown wears them off.*
- *A downcast look says that we are not feeling too happy.*
- *A raised eyebrow and a twist to the mouth shows that we are in a playful mood.*

Smile: When we talk of facial expressions, what comes first to our mind is the smile on the face of an interacting person along with the look in his eyes. Should there or should there not be a smile when interacting or communicating? Smile is an ultimate and universal expression. A smile during the course of the interaction sends a positive signal. But one should learn to distinguish between a cheeky grin and a genuine smile. The change in the nature of the interaction will also bring about a change in the manner of smiling. It may regress from being a genuine one, sarcastic or sardonic.



(https://unsplash.com/photos/JaoVGh5aJ3E)

Smile shows reassurance, amusement and sometimes, even ridicule. Uses of smile:

- To mask other emotions.
- Be a submissive response to ward off another‘s attack.
- To make a tense situation more bearable and comfortable.

It is useful in disturbed and depressing situation. Force a smile for as long as possible. It helps feel better. So never restrain from smiling in a situation where you must smile.

Eye contact: Eye contact is a direct and powerful form of communication one possesses. The eyes being the window of the mind express the elemental passions and the wearing moods of a person. One can guess sincerity, intelligence, attitudes, and feelings of a person by looking at one‘s eyes. A stress on continuous eye contact between the speaker and the listener indicates how sincere the speaker is and how much interested the listener is. Eye contact, therefore, is an important nonverbal means that helps one establish a bond with one‘s listeners.

If one avoids the gaze of one's audience one is bound to mar their interest. By a proper eye contact one can detect the level of interest the audience has in one‘s speech. An improper eye contact is the sign of waning interest on the part of the audience. For comprehension and meaningful participation in the communication, one can change the tenor of one‘s voice and the style of presentation along with a proper eye contact. The right eye contact helps up become better speakers.

Simply looking at the audience is not all but one should know how to look at them. A blank stare or a fierce gaze may prove worse than having no eye contact at all. Looking intently at one listener or one section of the audience with the rest of the audience being ignored may in turn worsen the impact of the speech. It is also equally disastrous if one looks over the heads of the listeners or at the ceiling of window, or on the door. One

PRIME USES OF EYE CONTACT:



- REVEALING ATTITUDES.
- INVITING AND CONTROLLING INTERACTION.
- PROVIDING FEEDBACK DURING A CONVERSATION.
- SHOWING INTEREST AND ATTENTION.
- THREATENING, DOMINEERING AND INFLUENCING OTHERS.

should also not try to hide oneself behind the lecture stand or flip pages or the manuscripts.

Eye Contact reveals the speakers identity and helps him or her in getting over his or her self-consciousness. Eye contact acts as a means to gain feedback, which in fact, enables the communicator alter, adjust or reframe his or her message while transmitting it. Very often, this process becomes automatic between the speaker and the listener.

Check Your Progress-2:

- Define kinesics.
- What is proximity?
- Write a short note on role of smile in nonverbal communication.

Head movements: Head movements are extremely important, both while speaking as well as listening. Most frequently used head movement is a ‗nod', signifying approval, agreement, affirmation, and of course sometimes, disapproval. The direction of head movement or a nod conveys meanings. Coupled with a smile is the need to nod once in a while during interaction to indicate that whatever is being said is being comprehended. There could be a slight variation in the manner of nodding to indicate the degree of acceptance of the message. For example, a strong nod could indicate acceptance of a point while a slow nod could indicate that a person is contemplating the message being sent. One must understand that it's not advisable to shake head when a nod is required. There are times when the head should be bowed and sometimes to be kept erect. Head movements can be used as speech markers, in social acknowledgements. Heads move to indicate attitudes; to replace speech; to support whatever is being said; and sometimes, to contradict what is said. There are three basic head positions:

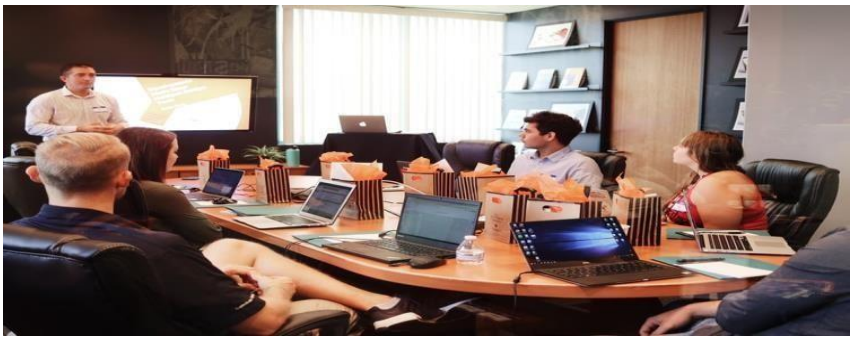
- Head up position: It means the person has a positive attitude.
- Tilted head or head cocked position: It conveys development of interest.
- Head down position: This signals a negative and judgmental attitude.

When listening in an intimate setting, one brings head closer to the other person speaking. Thisis known as Tete-a tete or head to head talk. It conveys closeness of speakers, formally or informally. So movement of head is purely situational and interacts with other nonverbal meansof communication.

Posture: Posture and gesture are closely related, interdependent and inseparable. Posture can be a clue to personality and to character. Posture refers to the way one stands, sits and walks. There are many variations on these postures, depending upon the different positions of the arms and legs. Changing postural patterns is an important part of the process of changing attitudes and of improving the ability to establish positive attitude and communicative relationships with

others. The position of hands and legs and other parts of the body reveal an individual‘s state of mind whether he is vibrant, alive and dynamic or nervous and jittery, are confident and self-assured and having his grip on the subject matter of communication. An efficient speaker stands tall feet together with the weight directing over the instep keeping his chin on a line parallel to the floor or at right angles to the backbone. Standing in this posture before a group is indeed essential for some successful people. A speaker with a drooping shoulder and a protruding stomach seems to be discouraged, tired and worn out. The sitting posture may execute an air of optimism or despondency or may be indicative of a sense of failure or inattentiveness. A speaker may guess the measure of success of his communication even by observing the posture of his or her listener. Whenever we explain an important point we do not recline in our chairs, we prefer to sit straight.

In a group discussion, a participant taking a turn to speak changes his posture. However, different situations demand different postures. One may keep one‘s back straight from the waist up, both the feet may be on the floor one slightly in front of the other. The chest should come out in line. One‘s walk across the stage with ease and grace contributes a great deal to one‘s impression upon one‘s audience. The walking posture may convey how much confident or defendant or energetic or withdrawn a speaker is. For walking gracefully a speaker should remember to move his or her legs freely from the hips, to move his or her feet from the floor to walk in a straight line to avoid a stride or taking tiny steps. While standing one should know how to shift the weight of the body on the legs and to learn where to place his or her hands while speaking. If one has to wait for some time before one speaks, one should sit in a relaxed manner and look straight at the audience, not keeping his or her eyes glued to a particular section of audience, or to his or her notes on manuscript, or any other object. While invited to speak one should go straight to the lecture stand, keep one‘s notes or menu script on it and stand erect at about 8 inches from the mike.



(https://unsplash.com/photos/meetings/JaoVGh5aJ3E)

It‘s impressive to hold the lecture stand or keep one‘s hands on the sides. Glancing at the entire audience, pausing a while, one may begin the speech with shoulders up, without slumping or leaning. One should avoid platform mannerism, awkward movement of limbs, and sudden jerksof the body because these call the attention of the audience to themselves rather than to what is being spoken. After the speech, the speaker should return to his or her seat with equal confidence as has been displayed while he or she went to the podium. One‘s posture communicates the degree of his alertness and sense of purpose, and it is the time to create one‘simage. One should always remember that first impression is the last impression.

Gestures: Gestures are basically arm and hand movements, which play a significant role in making the intent of the communication effective and content productive. A well timed gesture drives the intent home. The gestures like playing with the ring, twisting a keychain, holding one‘s hand tightly, may indicate the state of mind of the speaker, affecting both the encoding and decoding of his or her message in communication. Sometimes, without accompanying gestures is difficult to speak. The gestures enhance the impact of the message upon the listener. An efficient speaker learns to inculcate appropriate gestures by practicing the same before a mirror. He or she also seeks the guidance in this regard from his or her friends and colleagues. However, in the use of gestures one should be constantly self- evaluating and judging one‘s gestures, which in effect, make one learn to use the right gesture for the right impact. It is also true that while making gestures one should be careful and cautious about the cultural limitations, sexual implications, and moral bindings. Gestures too add meaning to the message but they make us awkward if not used keeping time, place, and person in the communication in mind. Some conventional gestures with universal meanings are as followed:

- Shaking the fist to show anger
- Placing first finger on lips to indicate to _be silent‘
- Patting the adjacent seat means _inviting to sit beside‘
- Rubbing the palms together in anticipation
- Clapping as a sign of approval and encouragement
- Raising one‘s hands to gain attention
- Yawning out of boredom
- Patting on someone‘s back to encourage
- Rubbing the stomach to indicate hunger





(https://unsplash.com/s/photos/non-verbal-communication)

Open palms: Body sport by itself has the capacity to indicate whether an individual has a positive or a negative personality. Various methods by which a speaker conducts himself when interacting with co-participants, sends forth the required signals. Open palms while talking instead of clenched fists is a positive side of the interaction. It is evident through the gesture that the individual is of an open nature, willing to accept suggestions, and on the whole receptive to ideas and suggestions. Open palms name for positive personality. Honest and direct smile means open personality.

Handshake: Handshake has a very important role to play in non-verbal communication when people meet. The way or the energy and attitude with which people shake hands can be interpreted in different manner. Equal handshake suggests a behavior and attitude with no complexes associated.

- Equal handshake- Equal in behaviour and attitude
- Tight grasp-Superiority complex
- Limp handshake- Inferiority complex and dejection



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Check Your Progress-3:

Fill in the blanks:

- refers to the way one stands, sits and walks.
- Gestures are …….. and…….. movements, which play significant role in communication.
- Tight grasp of handshake shows ……

Proxemics (Space/ Spatial Distance and Orientation): Proxemics is the study of how we

communicate with the space around us. How we guard our zones and how we aggress to others'zone is an integral part of how we relate to others. The distance one maintains while standing from another frequently conveys a non-verbal message. In some cultures it is a sign of attraction, while in others it may reflect status or the intensity of the exchange. Each communicator has a personal zone and territory built or constructed around himself or herself which he or she does not allow to be invaded during communication. Unless the relationship between the speaker and the listener is intimate, in social interaction, distinct zone spacing is maintained which is formal. This also includes the space that exists between the standing and the seated positions. The person in a superior or commanding position usually stands and the others remain seated. In a large group one can prove more effective if one stands while speaking. In public gatherings this distance depends upon many other considerations to. How close or far we stand in relation to another person, where we sit in the room, or how the office furniture is arranged, all of this has a real impact on communication.



(https://unsplash.com/photos/6awfTPLGaCE)

Space distancing differs from one culture to another. Space distancing having been mis-construed may, sometimes, affect the communication and the message content. However, in a heightened emotional state of mind the normal distancing might be ignored. Generally, there are different interpretations of zones on the basis of distance observed between two or more individuals. Like,

- Intimate zone- physical touch to 18 inches
- Personal zone- 18 inches to 4 feet
- Social zone- 4 to 12 feet
- Public zone-12 feet to as far as we can see and hear.

Space used by group of people in an office is important to understand. People in higher designation in an organization usually have more space available to them. Like, they have bigger, attractive offices and more windows as compared to other junior officers. They have protected territory with closed offices. This means better the quality of office, better position in an organization. Senior officers can easily invade in the territory of lower status personnel at their will. The subordinates don't have the same access to the superiors.

Depending upon the compatibility, sitting positions, their orientation, people may present themselves in various ways: face-to-face, side-to-side, or even back-to-back. It is believed thatwhen there is cordial environment and people have no biases, they cooperate and

usually sit side-by-side, while in situations like debates and discussions, competitors face one another.

Hepatics or Tactile behavior or Touch Communication: Hepatics is the name often given to describe touching behavior. But it might be worth while making some distinction between bodily contact and touching. The main difference is bodily contact refers to actions that are accidental, unconscious and made by any part of the body. Touching implies that the actions are deliberate, conscious and made primarily by the hands.

Touching and being touched are essential to a healthy life. Touch can communicate power, empathy and understanding. Tactile communication is the information transmitted in the formof physical contact or touch signal. Tactile communication in the early stages of life may establish the foundation of all other forms of communication that humans later develop. As one grows older, the frequency of touch decreases. Psychologists contend that the denial of extensive touching can have untold negative impact upon the infant's development. Touch, sometimes, helps better than verbal communication. It is an important form of communication. It is used to comfort, to establish dominance, and to establish bonds.


(https://unsplash.com/photos/Wvbcr7KeZDE)

Humans communicate by shaking hands to tell they‘re agreeing. Communication through touchis obviously non-verbal. Used properly it can create a more direct message than dozens of words; used improperly it can build barriers and cause mistrust. You can easily invade someone's space through this type of communication. If it is used reciprocally, it indicates solidarity; if not used reciprocally, it tends to indicate differences in status. Touch not only facilitates the sending of the message, but the emotional impact of the message as well.

Touch can also show tenderness, affection and encouragement. Touching actions serve as regulators. Touching conveys the total range from highly impersonal to highly personal meanings. Touch can be categorized in four categories:

- Intimate touch: A child and mother usually touch each other to show affection. True friends orbrothers who meet each other after a long gap can also indulge in an intimate touch.
- Friendly touch: When two people meet they touch their shoulders and back to show their feelings. This is friendly touch.
- Professional touch: Doctors examine their patients by touching and surgeons operate

their patients again by virtue of touching and feeling physically.

- Social touch: Hand shake is one of the commonest forms of touch. When a teacher touches his student to encourage him it is a social touch. By touching the head of younger ones, and blessings are bestowed by the elder ones. It is a social form of physical contact.

Paralanguage: Paralanguage is a combination of two words _para‘ means _like‘ and _language‘ means _mode of communication‘. It literally means like language. Paralanguage refers to not what is said but how it is said. Some of the characteristics of paralanguage include volume, rate, rhythm, and pitch. The major role of paralanguage is to express emotion. It is the voice and intonation that accompanies speech including pitch, tone and the rhythm of speech. Paralanguage can alter the meaning. For example, when the voice tone rises in a sentence it means a sentence is a question. Paralanguage can give emotional context to the content of speech. For example, a loud high pitched voice tone can express excitement, anger or fear. Paralanguage can show membership in a linguistic subgroup. For example, accents are partially caused by paralanguage.

Usually it is believed that we make use of paralanguage when we gasp, sign, clear our throat, change our tone, whisper or shout, emphasize certain words, wave our hands, frown or smile, laugh or cry.

One‘s attitude while sending a message affects its reception, and further, perception. Throughresearch it has been found that the tone, pitch, quality of voice, and rate of speaking convey emotions which are judged regardless of the content of the message. Voice is most important, both as the conveyor of the message and complement to the message. A cautious communicatoris always sensitive to the influence of tone, pitch, and quality of voice on the interpretation of your message by the receiver.

Silence and Time: Silence is the lack of audible sound or presence of sounds of very low intensity. By analogy the word silence can also refer to any absence of communication for hearing. Silence can be a positive or negative influence in the communications process. It can provide a link between messages or severe relationships. It can create tension and uneasiness or create a peaceful situation. Silence can also be judgmental by indicating favor or disfavor - agreement or disagreement. Silence is also known as total communication in reference to nonverbal communication and spiritual connection. Silence is an important factor in many cultural spectacles as in rituals.

Not saying anything when there is an expectation that something should be said is silence. To interpret this kind of nonverbal communication requires careful exploration, understanding of the context and most probably additional information. There are different situations in which silence may be used to provide thinking time, that is to assess the impact or gather your thoughts. It is also used to isolate oneself using as a response to personal anxiety, shyness or threats. When you meet a new company or a person then also sometimes silence is used. It is important to understand when to speak and when not to, and know how much to say. It can beused to express affection or agreement.

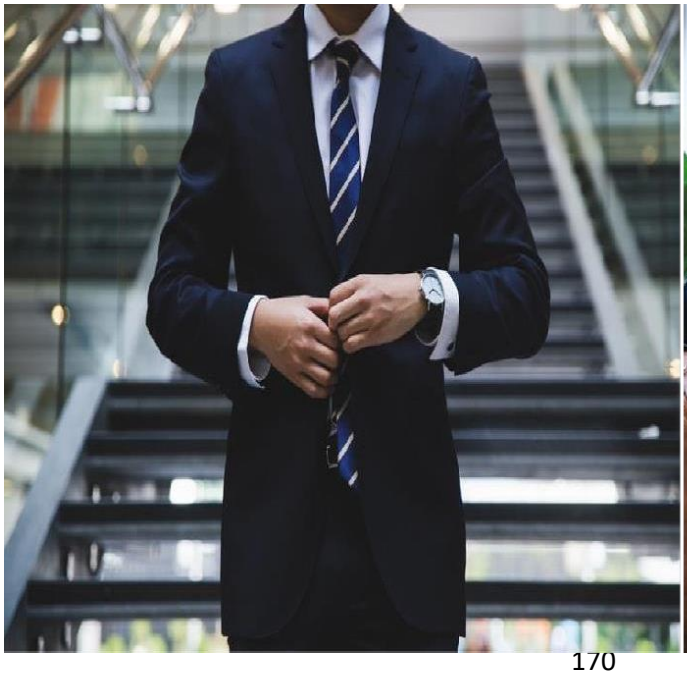
To better understand this point read following thought provoking quotations by some well known personalities:

―Well-timed silence hath more eloquence than speech‖ by Martin Farquhar Tupper.

―Silence is the most perfect expression of scorn‖ by George Bernard Shaw.

Appearance: Appearance in the context of body language would include clothing, hair, jewellery, cosmetics, etc. All these can be seen as related to body language. But on having a closer look, we find that they are very meaningfully related to our facial expression and communication style. Every occasion has its own particular type of dress which may be formal or informal. It is normally a part of our organisation‘s work rules to have a formal suit for the working hours. Certain organisations have a uniform for all levels of workers. If one changes from the formal dress to an informal or casual one he is easily noticed and his dress speaks volumes about his attitude towards life work and his own feelings. It is not just the dress or cloths that are important for any occasion but also the choice of shoes, hairstyle and perfume that convey meaning in a non-verbal form.

Dress code: Clothes can be categorized in many ways but one basic distinction is whether they are formal or informal. Formal can include more than suits or dinner jackets. It includes uniforms of various kinds and even the business executive suit. School uniforms may be regarded as formal. We tend to choose what we shall wear on the basis of what is comfortable, what covers our body with appropriate modesty or what displays our body, so as to convey to others the image we have of ourselves. It appears that with care and a bit of selection, even overtly fat can be disguised and so promote the possibility of achieving a better first impression. Some people seem to wear the same sweater and jeans forever, whereas others go through several changes a day. Appearance does give some useful clues as to what people we are meeting for the first time will be like. That is why candidates going for an interview, salesmen and public relation officers take so much trouble to be smart in appearance.





(https://unsplash.com/photos/MYbhN8KaaEc)

Check Your Progress-4:

Match the following:

Hepatics	Like language
Proxemics	Space distancing
Paralanguage	Touch behavior

2.4 Cultural Differences:

Non-verbal communication is different for everyone, and especially people from different cultures, except some common signals. Basically, there are six universal expressions; they arehappiness, sadness, disgust, fear, anger and surprise. Facial expressions are considered to be mostly similar in most cultures, like smile and cry are innate. But the extent to which people show these feelings vary. Like in some cultures, people express openly and in some people donot.

Cultural background defines their non-verbal communication as many forms of non-verbal communications like signs and signals are learned behavior. It is best to understand the cultural differences before we communicate so as to do it effectively. Not understanding these differences of non-verbal communication, may result into miscommunication when meeting people from different cultural backgrounds. Sometimes, people can offend others if they are not aware of the knowledge of their cultural differences in non-verbal communication.

Body language and physical gestures are one of the most important - and misunderstood - facets of communication. From posture to tone of voice, it's important to be aware of the usage of different gestures and other forms of physical communication in different situations and circumstances. For instance, you are an Indian, you are traveling to America and you don‘t speak English. So in this situation, obviously, you would only use non-verbal communication to share your views with people or present your need. You can ask for something by pointing at it or use sign language. It is also important to know when to bow while you visit a restaurant in some countries. Some of the specific nonverbal communication differences in different cultural are:

Gestures: Showing feet is considered offensive in some Middle Eastern cultures. Some cultures consider pointing fingers as insulting. Strangely, in Polynesia, people stick out their tongue to greet people, whereas it is a sign of mockery in many other cultures. Thumbs up is an important and widely used gesture, usually to approve or encourage. But surprisingly, it cannot be used at anytime and anywhere. It is interpreted differently in different cultures. For instance, it is a sign of ―Okay‖ in many cultures. On the contrary, in Latin American cultures

and in Japan, it is a sign of vulgarity and sometimes, expectation of money. Some cultures consider snapping fingers to call the attention of a waiter as alright whereas some take it as disrespect and very offensive.



(https://unsplash.com/photos/3KEFp35FVB0)

- **Eye Contact:** Eye contact is the foremost element in this category, especially when cultural differences are considered. It is considered as a good gesture in Western cultures. Although it signals attentiveness, confidence and honesty, yet some cultures like Middle Eastern, Asian, Hispanic and Native American do not consider it as courteous. It is a sign of rudeness and offensive expression. In case of women, who are considered to be placed at the margins even in this modern time, making a direct eye contact with men, elders, strangers, even father, is a sign of boldness and modernity. Unlike in Western cultures taking it as respectful, other do not consider it that way.

- **Touch:** Touch is the most commonly used nonverbal means of communication and is considered to be acceptable in many countries. Where and how you are touched means differently. But let‘s not forget it to be rudeness in most cultures. Similarly, acceptability of kissing, hugs, and many other touches are different in different cultures. Conservative Asians don‘t approve of these types of non-verbal communication.

  Patting on head or shoulder also has different meanings in different cultures. In some Asian cultures, patting children‘s head is very bad signal as head is taken to be sacred. Touch of any kind in Middle Eastern countries, especially in opposite sexes, is taken as immoral. Although, it is generally accepted custom to shake hands when meeting a person for the first time, there are some circumstances in which it may be unwise for you to initiate the handshake. In India, China, Japan and other Asian countries, women avoid shaking hands with persons they are meeting for the first time. Under these circumstances, sales trainees are told that it is better to wait for the other person to initiate the handshake and if it is not forthcoming he can just do with a nod as a sign of greeting.
  Hugging and kissing experiences are less easy to generate because of their more frequent sexual associations. In some families and social groups, it is customary for members meeting or departing from each other to exchange a brief kiss. In others there is hardly any kissing at all. So, it is advisable to be careful when intermixing culturally.

- **Appearance:** We know that before we speak our body, our appearance has already said a lot about us. So, appearance is also an important form of non-verbal communication. People are easily judged from their appearance. Our appearance, our clothing sense

instantly tells about our race, class, gender, etc. In most cultures, people groom themselves to look good, which is an important aspect of personality. But, of course, one must be aware of differences in cultures in this context also. Modesty is also measured from appearance.

- **Body Movement and Posture:** As discussed above, body movements and posture pass on many messages. People start judging about you, quite often. If a person does not face you while talking to you this may mean that the person is nervous or shy. It might also mean that the person is probably avoiding you or doesn‘t like to talk to you. Other body movements, like coming to sit near or far, can also show confidence, power or trying to control the environment.

  Postures, like sitting straight or slouched, also show the mental condition of the person like alertness or lethargy. Hands in pocket show either overconfidence or disrespect indifferent cultures. For example, if we talk about Ghana and Turkey, sitting with crossedlegs is considered offensive.

- **Facial Expressions**: Face is a mirror showing feelings, attitudes and emotions of a person. And mostly it is hard to hide emotions through face. Culture also affects the degree of facial expressions. People from United States are considered somewhat open in showing emotions more than their Asian counterparts. Most facial expressions are believed to be similar all over the world. But people show them differently in different cultures when in public.

- **Personal Space** (Proxemics) – Personal space is one of the important aspects of physical communication. Inter-culturally, it is very advisable to be aware of how close people should bewhen talking. People from different cultures have different tolerance for physical distance between them. In Middle Eastern culture, people like to go near to others to talk, while in others people might get afraid if anybody does so. People in the West prefer to stand apart about arm‘s length. On the contrary, in Arab and Latin cultures, people stand together as close as six inches. It‘s important to be comfortable with close quarters. Backing up is usually seen as a sign of rejection and insult.



(https://unsplash.com/photos/ZmwxGJxLoSk)

2.5 Non-Verbal Communication In The Internet World:

In the present scenario where everything is hyper linked, and online system has become an indispensible part of our daily life. We commonly communicate through the use of chats, use of emails, blogs and other online methods. We often prefer to send symbols and signs along with use of emoticons for expressing our feelings and emotions. We heavily rely on the following emoticons to convey our momentary life. So in this stance, we have to be careful making use of exclamation points and question marks, bold, underline, colorful emoticons and other highlights. These act like nonverbal communication in emails.



(https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/3/39/%C3%96ffentliche_Emoticons_von_Skype.p ng)

Thus it is clear that the visual codes are as important as the verbal codes and speaker must train in the visual code which is as essential as rightly and timely is the verbal codes. Both when combined and contrasted produce the right impact and a smooth communication.

2.6 LET'S SUM UP:

- Kinesics is the systematic study of body language which works through facial expressions eyecontact, gestures, head position, body shape, posture and appearance.
- Body language accounts for more than half of all communication. Whole body language is a reflection of our thoughts, feelings and position in an organisation.
- Proxemics is the study of space language. Any successful communicator makes effective use of it. Distance wise the space around us can be divided into four kinds that is intimate, personal, social and public.
- Space, time and physical context are three factors which are an important part of nonverbal communication. Availability of space and time are crucial supplements to verbal oral communication.
- Paralanguage means like language. It is concerned with the manner in which a speaker conveys his meaning through words. Voice is the first and foremost component of

speech. Pitch variation is necessary to make speech effective. On different occasions and for different purposes a communicator speaks at different speeds. Easy information is generally confirmed at a fast speed and difficult information is conveyed slowly. One cannot go on speaking continuously making pauses and important aspect of communication too.

2.7 Questions For Practice:

1. What is kinesics? What is the role of body language in communication?
2. Define proxemics. What is included in proxemics?
3. Write short notes on a) gesture b) touch
4. What is the use of facial expressions and eye contact in communication? Explain with examples.
5. What are the advantages and limitations of proxemics?
6. How does body shape and posture affect communication?
7. Nonverbal communication is complementary to verbal communication. Elaborate.

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UNIT 3: Hearing and Listening

Structure

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- 3.7.3 Structure

3.7.4 Active Listening
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3.11 References And Suggested Reading

3.0 Introduction

Courage is what it takes to stand up and speak; courage is also what it takes to sit down and listen‖

Winston Churchill

The efficacy of an act of communication relies highly on the appropriate use of the non-verbal modes and on the four skills namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing. Although, Listening is one of the essential skills of effective communication yet people tend to give less attention and importance to it. Effective communication demands attention and comprehension which isn‘t possible without having good listening skills.

Listening is done for several purposes:

- To gather information
- To gain knowledge
- For better comprehension
- For appreciation

3.1 Objectives

This unit will help you to:

- Understand difference between hearing and listening.
- Identify barriers that can affect listening.
- Overcome various barriers to listening.
- Inculcate effective listening skills.
- Improve levels of comprehension.

3.2 Hearing Vs Listening

Hearing is a physiological process. It is one of the five senses that nature has endowed upon us. As a result, we are able to hear all kinds of sounds that hit our ear drums. These sounds could be all sorts of sounds that surround us. It could be sound of some vehicle going past us, the food processor being used in the kitchen, kids crying or fighting, or sound of people talking.Thus, it is an involuntary process.

On the other hand, Listening is a voluntary process. It requires effort on the part of the receiver. Here, the listener pays attention to what is being said in order to comprehend the message, evaluate it, interpret the meanings, and give proper feedback. So, Listening is a focussed activity.

Hearing does not require the receiver to concentrate on specific sound whereas in order to listen, one has to concentrate and pay attention to specific sounds.

It is difficult for an unmotivated person to pay heed to what is being said. In order to concentrate, one has to have some level of motivation. Listening can not take place in the absence of motivation.

In Hearing, a person may or may not understand what he hears, but Listening involves comprehension. Good listener is the one who is able to grasp the message.

Effective communication is considered to be incomplete without feedback. Proper feedback can be given only after one has understood the message. So, one has to listen with the aim to provide good feedback.

3.3 Barriers to Listening

Despite putting up our best efforts to be a good listener, we may come across some hindrancesor obstacles that can affect our listening in a negative way. These hindrances could be identifiedas barriers that render the communication process ineffective.

These barriers could occur due to several reasons and could result in the misinterpretation of the message and cause semantic gap. There could be several factors that can cause barriers to effective listening. These barriers could be caused by the sender, the receiver, the channel of communication, or the physical environment where communication is taking place.

3.3.1 *Noise*

Noise is one of the major barriers to listening and can result in non-transmission, distortion, ormisinterpretation of the messages. Noise barriers can be caused by people, or by gadgets beingused by the sender or the receiver, etc.

3.3.2. Physical Barriers

Physical environment must be conducive for effective communication. The venue chosen for the purposes of communication must be devoid of any kind of distractions. While selecting thevenue, following factors must be taken care of:

- Unnecessary physical movement by people can distract the speaker as well as the listener and thus hamper the process of communication
- Electrical or electronic gadgets being used in the room should not create disturbance.
- Extremely dim lit and unventilated room can cause uneasiness among the listeners and thereby distract them from concentrating on the message.
- Uncomfortable furniture and unorganised seating arrangement could make the listeneruncomfortable and affect his/her listening capabilities.

3.3.3. Psychological Barriers

The mental status of the individual is very crucial in determining whether one can focus on what‘s happening around. In order to concentrate on something, one needs to be in good mentalcondition.

Following are the psychological barriers:

3.3.3.1 Ego

An egoistic person tends to have an inflexible attitude. He is not open to new ideas or opinions. He is unable to listen to other with an open mind.

3.3.3.2. Preconceived Notions

We all are born and brought up in a society that abides by certain norms. Every culture has itsset notions about various issues related to life. These notions get deeply embedded in our minds. Whenever we listen to someone speaking contrary to our set beliefs, our mind finds it difficult to accept it. Preconceived notions are not restricted to some issues, they can be aboutpeople, races, religion, culture, etc. We tend to act defensive by not listening to views that seemto be challenging our preconceived notions.

3.3.3.3. Familiarity Trap

The person is supposed to be caught in the trap of familiarity when he feels that what he‘s listening to is already known to him. This becomes a barrier to listening because the person believes that he has already mastered the concerned topic. As a result, the listener doesn‘t feelthe need not pay attention to it.

3.3.4. Fear

The fear of being judged prevents us from listening attentively. This fear sets in when we believe that we lack skills of speaking that are essential to give a proper feedback. Fear blocksour mind and drastically affects our ability to concentrate.

3.3.5 Personality Traits

Our psychological make up is determined by the personality trait that dominates us. People whose minds are governed by negative emotions like jealousy, anger, feeling of superiority over others, lack of patience, intolerance, etc. tend to be judgemental. They are unempathetic towards others. Owing to such personality traits, they are unable to appreciate and understandthe speaker‘s point of view. They have the tendency to hold the speakers as incompetent without attentively listening to them.

3.3.6 Poor Concentration

The ability to concentrate is an essential prerequisite for effective communication. People having poor concentration levels tend to have low attention spans. They are unable to listen attentively and thus are not able to comprehend much of what is being said.

3.3.7. Linguistic Barriers

Language functions as a tool in the process of communication. Both the sender and the receiver ought to be familiar with the language being chosen for the purposes of communication. Despite using a common language, there could arise situations where language can create barrier in communication.

3.3.7.1. Semantic Barriers

Semantic barriers are responsible for the misinterpretation of the message. These barriers could occur owing to ambiguous words, mispronunciation, mother-tongue influence (MTI), dialectical differences, incomplete or lack of knowledge of the body language.

3.3.7.2. Jargons

Jargons are the special kind of words or expressions used by people who belong to same profession or some group. Terms related exclusively to the fields of medicine, engineering, science, and business, etc. are examples of jargons. When such words are used to communicate with people not belonging to the same profession, then either the listener misinterprets the message or is not able to comprehend anything at all.

3.3.8. Organisational Barriers

Effective communication is very crucial to the growth of an organisation. It depends on variousfactors in a professional environment.

Organisational barriers could occur as a result of the working style of the professionals working in the same organisation:

- If the professionals are jealous of their colleagues or superiors or have a feeling of superiority over their subordinates, then these negative feelings tend to act as barriers to effectiveprofessional communication.

- When the professionals choose some inappropriate medium of communication, then it can result in misinterpretation or lack of communication within the organisation.

- Insufficient or lack of knowledge of using IT for the purposes of professionalcommunication can also give rise to organisational barrier.

- Noisy and distracting physical environment too becomes cause of organisational barrier.

- It is important for the professionals to properly structure the material. Whether the material is being shared orally or is being presented visually to the audience, it must be carefully organised. Disorganised presentation of material often results in misinterpretation of the message, thus contributing to organisational barriers.

3.3.9. Cultural Barriers

The term culture is used to describe set of ideas, opinions, rituals, customs, language, behaviour, attitudes, gestures, signs, and symbols, etc. shared by people belonging to a specific society.

Owing to cultural differences, people are often unable to understand or agree with each other‘s viewpoints. These barriers can occur in general as well as professional environment.

3.4. Effective Listening Strategies

3.4.1. Motivation

Effective listening demands paying attention to speech sounds. Generally, people find it difficult to pay attention to what someone is saying without any motivational factor. So, it is

highly beneficial if we‘re able to find some reason that motivates us to listen to the speaker. There are numerous motivational factors:

- We tend to pay attention to things that we like or are of our interest.
- We listen attentively to things that can help us in achieving our personal or career goals.
- When we listen to someone in order to have better understanding of the concept, or to arrive ata solution to some problem then we tend to listen attentively to the speaker.
- Most often the students tend to focus more on what is being said, when they‘re told by the teacher that a particular topic is very important from examination point of view.

Thus, its important for the listener to be motivated to listen to the matter of the subject. If, before listening we can find some factor that motivates us to listen then it helps us become effective listeners.

3.4.2. Concentration

Lack of concentration adversely affects our listening. People with better or high concentration levels turn out to be effective listeners. Motivation has a great role in improving our concentration level. If we are driven by some motivational factor then we remain focussed on the task we are doing.

Mental exercises and meditation have proven to improve concentration in humans. The greatest benefit of high concentration level is that it helps in better comprehension. Listeners who listen with full concentration are able to understand things easily and are able to retain what they‘ve learnt for a long period of time. Such listeners don‘t need to cram anything to store it in their memory.

3.4.3. Health

The listener ought to be in a good mental and physical state in order to concentrate and listen. A listener suffering from any mental blocks or physical weakness will not be able to focus on the speech sounds.

When we are suffering from any kind of physical ailment or fatigue, it affects our ability to grasp things. As a result, we either misinterpret or are unable to understand the message.

3.4.4. Eye Contact

Non-verbal codes play a great role in making communication effective. There‘re lot of messages that are exchanged by speaker and listeners through body language whilst they‘re talking to each other.

One of the non-verbal codes is Eye Contact. The listeners who maintain eye contact with the speaker manage to concentrate and understand the subject matter better than the listeners who don‘t maintain eye-contact during the conversation.

Maintaining eye-contact with the speaker makes the listener feel alert all the time and helps him/her remain focussed.

3.4.5. Posture

Posture is an important constituent of body language. The way we sit or stand while listening has a great impact on our quality of listening. Incorrect posture makes us either very uncomfortable or too relaxed to focus and concentrate on the speaker‘s speech.

The body language experts consider the upright posture to be the correct posture. Whether we are sitting or standing while listening, we must maintain the upright posture. The correct posture is to sit or stand with the spinal column straight.

Maintaining upright posture while listening boosts up our concentration levels and improves our faculty of comprehension, thereby inducing effective listening.

3.4.6. Note Taking

While listening, our mind needs to stay focused. If we keep the mind focused on what we intend to do then it is able to concentrate for longer duration and registers things easily.

Note taking is a strategy which requires the listener to put down the things that his/her mind has registered in a precise form. When our mind is involved in performing three tasks i.e., listening, retaining and composing consecutively; it stays triply occupied and improves our levels of comprehension. Consequently, we tend to become effective listeners.

3.4.7. Feedback

No communication is effective without a proper feedback. Feedback is defined as the response given by the receiver to the sender after he/she has read or listened to the subject matter. It is through feedback that the sender is able to analyse or judge whether the message has been communicated and comprehended appropriately. Feedback completes the process of communication.

In the absence of feedback from the listener, the sender remains unsure of whether the message has been understood or not. So, it is important for the listener to give feedback through either verbal or non-verbal or by using both the modes of communication.

An effective listener is the one who not only pays attention to what the speaker is trying to convey but also asks questions, when in doubt. Feedback can also be given by responding through nods, gestures, and expressions. These non-verbal responses could be either affirmative or negative.

So, if we inculcate the habit of giving feedback while listening, it can help us become betterlisteners.

3.4.8. Avoid Interrupting

Though it is important to give feedback to the speaker, we must know how the etiquettes of giving feedback or asking questions. An effective listener is the one who lets the speakercomplete the topic being discussed, He/she doesn‘t interrupt the speaker while he/she is speaking.

Good listener is the one who seeks permission from the speaker before asking any questionor giving feedback verbally.

Untimely interruptions can irritate or distract the speaker. These can break the chain of thespeaker‘s thoughts, thereby creating a barrier in effective communication.

3.4.9. Avoid Talking

Listening is an activity that involves full concentration. One can‘t focus on two things simultaneously without compromising with the level of concentration. One can either listen or speak.

So, to be an effective listener we must avoid talking to people around while we are listeningto the expert or a resource person. Talking to other people makes us lose track of what is being said by the speaker and as a result we are unable to comprehend the message being delivered.

3.4.10. Don’t Munch

Eating while listening can distract us from focusing on the speaker‘s speech. We, often avoid maintaining eye-contact with the speaker when we are eating. As a result, we lose focus and our listening gets negatively affected.

3.4.11. Physical Environment

The venue must be chosen carefully for the purpose of listening. The room must be free from all kinds of distracting noises. Moreover, the room must not be used by people as thoroughfare.

The room should be well lit and well ventilated to provide comfortable environment to thelistener. This will assist him/her in focussing on listening to the speaker.

Besides this, the chair and the table being used by the listener must support upright posture.

3.5 Check Your Progress-1:

1. Hearing is a voluntary process : Y/N
2. It isn’t important to maintain eye-contact with speaker while listening : Y/N
3. Upright posture helps in listening effectively : Y/N
4. It is alright, if we eat while listening : Y/N
5. Feedback is always given using verbal modes of communication : Y/N

3.6. Listening In Conversational Interaction

The Oxford Learner‘s Dictionary defines Conversation as an informal talk that involves either two people only or a small group of people. Conversation is a term generally used to refer to an informal interaction between people. Since, conversation is a two-way process, so both the sender and the receiver need to participate equally.

The general purposes of conversational interaction may include interacting in order to:

- Break the ice.
- Become friends.
- Share emotions and feelings.
- Discuss problems/issues.
- Find solutions.

For the conversation to be fruitful, listener must carry on his/her responsibility effectively. Effective listening would require the

3.6.1. Flexible

Listener must listen to the speaker with an open mind. His/her mind should be devoid of any misconceptions and prejudices so that the speaker‘s perspective could be understood without being judgemental.

3.6.2. Avoid Interrupting

Untimely and uncalculated response by the listener renders communication ineffective. Listener must let the speaker complete the topic or finish an idea/opinion, before plunging in with any kind of reaction. Speaker must not be interrupted while he/she is in the midst of discussion.

3.6.3. Empathetic

Since, conversational interactions could be about emotional matters, so it is important that one must listen empathetically. A listener should not only focus on speech but also on emotions behind that talk. Empathetic listening enables the listener understand emotions and feelings ofthe speaker.

3.6.4. Apt Body Language

In conversational interactions, lot is conveyed through body language i.e., Eye-contact, gestures and expressions, etc. People show interest in the talk by maintaining eye-contact with each other. It is also a sign of mutual respect. Facial expressions, hand gestures, nodding of the head are non-verbal codes that can add to the meaning of what‘s being talked about.

3.6.5. Be Tolerant

An effective listener is tolerant towards other people‘s ideas, opinions, and beliefs. Generally, people don‘t feel like listening to opinions that are contrary to their own opinions. A good istener is the one who may not agree with the speaker‘s viewpoint, but is tolerant enough to let others express their opinions and pays attention to what they‘re saying.

3.6.6. Be Patient

Patience is quintessential to effective listening. Impatient person cannot become an effective listener. All activities, namely, concentrating on the speech, evaluation, decision making or waiting for the turn to speak require the listener to be patient.

3.6.7. Take Turns

Conversation is a two-way process, hence taking turns in speaking and listening is crucial for making conversation fruitful. Listener must know when to take turn to speak without interrupting the speaker.

3.6.8. Responsive

Any conversation would be ineffective without feedback. Absence or delay in feedback renders the communication ineffective. Effective listening involves being responsive. Once an opinion is expressed or a feeling is shared by the speaker, the listener must respond promptly with an appropriate feedback.

3.7. Listening To A Structured Talk

3.7.1. Structured Talk

Unlike general conversational interactions, a structured talk tends to be formal and well-organised. Structured conversations are goal-oriented. These may be done in order to arrive at solution to some problem or to take some decision, etc. Hence, it is important for the people participating in structured talks to be well prepared with the issues or topics to be discussed.

3.7.2. Planing

Structured talk requires prior planning and preparation. Before talking one must be having answers to the following questions:

- What ?
  The participants must be aware of the issue/issues to be discussed so that they can gatherrelevant information for the purpose of conversation.

- Why ?
  The objective of carrying out the conversation must be clear to all the people participating in astructured talk.

- Who ?
  It is important that the participants know whom they‘re going to address. Such an information helps them in getting an idea as to what the other participants must already be aware of and what would be their expectations from each other.

- Where ?
  The knowledge about the venue can help participants identify and overcome any distractions they might come across during conversation.

- When?
  Sticking to time is crucial to effective talks. The participants must know when the talk is going to start and how much time they have been allotted for the structured conversation. This helps the participants to stay focussed and prevents them from indulging in irrelevant conversations.

- How?
  The participants must know how to go about talking. They must be well aware of the of the structure of the talk. Each participant should know when to speak, when to pause, and when tolisten.

3.7.3. Structure

Structured talks have some essential components that make them different from informal talks or conversations. Following elements lend an organised structure to structured talks:

3.7.3.1 Introduction

Every structured talk will begin with an introduction to the topic to be discussed. A good introduction aims at familiarising the audience about the issue and the need to address that issue. It also gives an idea about the sub-topics that would be discussed.

3.7.3.2 Body

The body of the structured talk constitutes the various sub-topics. It involves defining, explaining and having detailed discussion on the topic and the sub-topics. The discussion must be supplemented with examples or illustrations to support the arguments being presented.

3.7.3.3 Conclusion

The aim of every organised or structured discussion is to arrive at some conclusion. So, once the issue or issues have been discussed, it is important to summarise the main points, observations, findings or arguments. This helps the participants to conclude and arrive at some solution or decision.

3.7.3.4 Recommendations

Once the talk is concluded and decisions have been taken, recommendations must be made to take the necessary course of action. Making recommendations involves dividing the tasks or assigning duties, etc.

3.7.4. Active Listening

Listening plays an important role in the successful outcome of structured talks. One needs to listen actively while participating in structured talks. Following are the characteristics of active listening:

3.7.3.1 Eye Contact

Maintaining eye-contact with the speaker helps us in concentrating on the issue being discussed. It also acts as a sign of respect to the speaker who feels motivated to share his/her ideas and information. It helps us remain focused.

3.7.3.2 Patience

Active listening demands a lot of patience. The listener must know when to speak and when to pause. One must not interrupt the speaker as it shows disrespect and can break the chain of thought of the speaker.

3.7.3.3. Delayed Evaluation / Don’t Judge

Good listener never tries to judge the speaker before the speaker has finished telling his/her part of the story. This could result in misinterpretation of the message. At the same time, it will spoil the structure of the talk.

3.7.3.4. Open Mindedness

Listening to a structured talk requires the listener to listen to the speakers without being prejudiced. Listener should adopt flexible approach. He/she must listen with an open mind.

3.7.3.5. Tolerance

Active listening involves exercising a tolerant attitude towards all speakers and their views. An effective listener is not

3.7.3.6. Take Notes

Taking notes while listening helps us not only on remaining focused but also assists in better comprehension of the subject matter. Active listener always keeps a notepad where he/she can take notes of the things being discussed. This technique is also instrumental in keeping record of the discussion.

3.7.3.7. Question

Questioning helps in clearing any doubts that a listener might have. An active listener must ask questions whenever he/she is unable to grasp the message or has a different set of opinions.

3.7.3.8. Feedback

The purpose of a structured talk will remain unfulfilled without a proper feedback. An active listener must ensure that he/she is giving feedback timely. The feedback could be a verbal or a non-verbal response. Non-verbal response like nodding in affirmative or negative, facial gestures could be given while listening. Verbal response must be given after the speaker has taken a pause or finished speaking and is ready to take feedback or questions. Feedback helps clear all kinds of doubts and avoids misinterpretation of the message.

3.8. Check Your Progress-2:

1. Being empathetic is important in general conversational interactions : Y/N
2. Audience analysis plays a crucial role in making a structured talk effective : Y/N
3. Introduction, Body, Conclusion and ..... are the elements of a Structured talk.
4. can help keep record of the discussion.
5. One should refrain from asking questions during a structured talk : Y/N

3.9. Summary

Effective listening skills are crucial to the success of the process of communication. Active listening isn‘t possible in the presence of barriers that can either delay the delivery of the message or result in misinterpretation of the message.

It is important to identify various barriers and know how to overcome them for listening effectively. Good listening skills help us in comprehending the message and thus are instrumental in making the process of communication extremely rewarding.

3.10 Questions For Practice

1) Define Listening. How is Hearing different from Listening?
2) What are the various purposes of Listening?
3) Discuss various barriers to Listening.
4) How can we overcome barriers to Listening?
5) Discuss effective listening skills.
6) What is the importance of body language in listening?
7) Write a note on the importance of feedback.
8) Distinguish between Conversational Interactions and Structured Talks.
9) What role does Planning play in making a Structured Talk effective?
10) What do you understand by Active Listening? How can you listen effectively in a structuredtalk?

3.11. References and Suggested Reading

1) Active Listening: Improve Your Ability to Listen and Lead by Michael H Hope, Centre forCreative Leadership.
2) Active Listening: Building Skills for Understanding Teacher‘s Edition by Marc Helgesonand Steven Brown, Cambridge University Press; Teacher‘s edition.
3) Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition by Alison Mackey, OxfordUniversity Press.
4) The Definitive Book of Body Language by Allan Pease and Barbara Pease, Sheldon Press.
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UNIT 4: Speaking Skills

Structure

4.0 Objectives

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Expressions In Different Communicative Functions

4.3 Job Interviews

4.4 Group Discussions

4.5 Presentation Skills

4.6 Summing Up

4.7 Further Reading

4.8 Possible Questions

4.0 Objectives

After going through this unit you will:

- learn the right technique of expression in different communicative functions like asking questions, making suggestions and requests, asking as well as refusing permission, expressing greetings, gratitude etc.
- learn the art of facing job interviews
- learn the relevant aspects of group discussions
- learn the right way to make a successful presentation

4.1 Introduction

Speaking is an act of making vocal sounds. We can say that speaking means to converse, or expressing one's thoughts and feelings in spoken language. To speak often implies conveying information. It may be from an informal remark to a scholarly presentation to a formal address. Speaking skills: Speaking skills are the skills that give us the ability to communicate effectively. These skills allow the speaker, to convey his message in a passionate, thoughtful, and convincing manner. Speaking skills also help to ensure that one won't be misunderstood by those who are listening.

Speaking is the productive skill in the oral mode. It, like the other skills, is more complicated than it seems at first and involves more than just pronouncing words. There are three kinds of speaking situations in which we find ourselves: 1. interactive, 2. partially interactive, and 3. Non-interactive. Interactive speaking situations include face-to-face conversations and telephone calls, in which we are alternately listening and speaking, and in which we have a chance to ask for clarification, repetition, or slower speech from our conversation partner. Some speaking situations are partially interactive, such as when giving a speech to a live audience, where the convention is that the audience does not interrupt the speech. The speakernevertheless can see the audience and judge from the expressions on their faces and body language whether or not he or she is being understood. Few speaking situations may be totally non-interactive, such as when recording a speech for a radio broadcast. In all the above explained conditions speaking is always a headache for most of the people. Although the fear of speaking is common, studies show that ability to speaking can be enhanced by improving speaking skills.

4.2 Expressions in Different Communicative Functions

4.2.1 Asking Questions

―Garbage in, garbage out‖, is a popular truth, often said in relation to computer systems: if youput the wrong information in, you'll get the wrong information out. The same principle applies to communications in general: if you ask the wrong questions, you'll probably get the wrong answer, or at least not quite what you're hoping for.

Asking the right question is at the heart of effective communications and information exchange. By using the right questions in a particular situation, you can improve a whole range of communications skills. For example, you can gather better information and learn more, you can build stronger relationships, manage people more effectively, and help others to learn too.

Open and Closed Questions

A closed question usually receives a single word or very short, factual answer. For example, "Are you thirsty?" The answer is "Yes" or "No"; "Where do you live?" The answer is generallythe name of your town or your address.

Open questions elicit longer answers. They usually begin with what, why, how. An open question asks the respondent for his or her knowledge, opinion or feelings. "Tell me" and "describe" can also be used in the same way as open questions. Here are some examples:

- What happened at the meeting?
- Why did he react that way?
- How was the party?
- Tell me what happened next.

- Describe the circumstances in more detail.

Open questions are good for:

- Developing an open conversation: "What did you get up to on vacation?"
- Finding out more detail: "What else do we need to do to make this a success?"
- Finding out the other person's opinion or issues: "What do you think about those changes?"

Closed questions are good for:

- Testing your understanding, or the other person's: "So, if I get this qualification, I will get a raise?"
- Concluding a discussion or making a decision: "Now we know the facts, are we all agreed this is the right course of action?"
- Frame setting: "Are you happy with the service from your bank?"

A misplaced closed question, on the other hand, can kill the conversation and lead to awkward silences, so are best avoided when a conversation is in full flow.

Funnel Questions

This technique involves starting with general questions, and then drilling down to a more specific point in each. Usually, this will involve asking for more and more detail at each level. It's often used by detectives taking a statement from a witness:

"How many people were involved in the fight?"
"About ten."

"Were they kids or adults?"
"Mostly kids."

"What sort of ages were they?"
"About fourteen or fifteen."

"Were any of them wearing anything distinctive?"
"Yes, several of them had red baseball caps on."

"Can you remember if there was a logo on any of the caps?"
"Now you come to mention it, yes, I remember seeing a big letter N."

Using this technique, the detective has helped the witness to re-live the scene and to graduallyfocus in on a useful detail. Perhaps he'll be able to identify young men wearing a hat like this from CCTV footage. It is unlikely he would have got this information if he's simply asked an open question such as "Are there any details you can give me about what you saw?"
Funnel questions are good for:

- Finding out more detail about a specific point: ―Tell me more about Option Two‖.
- Gaining the interest or increasing the confidence of the person you're speaking with: ―Have you used the IT Helpdesk?‖, ―Did it solve your problem?‖, ―What was the attitude of the person who took your call?‖

Probing Questions

Asking probing questions is another strategy for finding out more detail. Sometimes it's as simple as asking your respondent for an example, to help you understand a statement that theyhave made. At other times, you need additional information for clarification, "When do you need this report by, and do you want to see a draft before I give you my final version?" Or to investigate whether there is proof for what has been said, "How do you know that the new database can't be used by the sales force?"
Probing questions are good for:

- Gaining clarification to ensure that you have the whole story and that you understand it thoroughly.
- Drawing information out of people who are trying to avoid telling you something.

Leading Questions

Leading questions try to lead the respondent to your way of thinking. They can do this in several ways:

- **With an assumption** – "How late do you think that the project will deliver?" This assumes that the project will certainly not be completed on time.
- **By adding a personal appeal to agree at the end** – "Lori's very efficient, don't you think ? "or "Option Two is better, isn't it?"
- **Phrasing the question so that the "easiest" response is "yes"** – Our natural tendency to prefer to say "yes" than "no" plays an important part in the phrasing of questions: "Shall we all approve Option Two?" is more likely to get a positive response than "Do you want to approve Option Two or not?" A good way of doing this is to make it personal. For example, "Would you like me to go ahead with Option Two?" rather than "Shall I choose Option Two?"
- **Giving people a choice between two options** – both of which you would be happy with, rather than the choice of one option or not doing anything at all. Strictly speaking, the choice of "neither" is still available when you ask "Which would you prefer... A or B?" but most people will be caught up in deciding between your two preferences.

Note that leading questions tend to be closed.

Leading questions are good for:

- Getting the answer you want, but leaving the other person feeling that they haven't got a choice.
- Closing a sale: "If that answers all of your questions, shall we agree on a price?"

Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical questions aren't really questions at all, in that they don't expect an answer. They're really just statements phrased in question form: "Isn't John's design work so creative?"

People use rhetorical questions because they are engaging for the listener – as they are drawn into agreeing ("Yes it is and I like working with such a creative colleague") – rather than feelingthat they are being "told" something like "John is a very creative designer." (To which they may answer "So What?")

Rhetorical questions are good for:

- Engaging the listener.
- Getting people to agree with your point of view.

4.2.2 Making Suggestions and Requests

Making Requests:

When you ask someone to do something for you, or ask if you can do something, it's important to sound polite. Here are some of the common ways that you can do this.

Asking some one to do some thing for you

"Could you open the door for me, please?"

"Would you mind opening the door for me, please?" "Can you open the door for me, please?'

Speaking tip: could and **can** are followed by the verb without **to**. Would you mind is followed by the verb and **-ing**.

We also use modals for asking for something (making a request or asking permission).

Can you do me a favour? (more informal)

Could you say thanks to your mum for me? (more polite) I‘ve finished my homework. *Can* I go now? (more informal)*Could* I speak to Amy, please? (more polite)

Asking if you can do something

"Can I use your computer, please?"

"Could I borrow some money from you, please?" "Do you mind if I turn up the heating?"

"Would you mind if I turned up the heating?"

Speaking tip: **Could** is more polite that **can**.

Do you mind if…" is followed by the verb in the **present tense**, but **would you mind if…** is followed by the verb in the **past tense**.

When you're using these two sentences, don't use **please**. It's already polite enough!

Asking For And Giving Permission:

When you ask for permission to use something that belongs to someone else you have to do your bestto be polite. It is desirable to use the word "**please**."

Asking for Permission:

- **Can** I go out, please?
- **May** I open the window, please?
- Please, **can** I have a look at your photo album?
- Please, **may** I taste that hot spicy couscous dish?
- **Do you mind if** I smoke?
- **Would you mind if** I asked you something?
- **Is it okay if** I sit here?
- **Would it be all right if** I borrowed your mobile Phone?

Giving Permission:

- Yes, please do.
- Sure, go ahead.
- Sure.
- No problem.
- Please feel free.

Refusing to give permission:

- No, please don‘t.
- I‘m sorry, but that‘s not possible.
- I'm afraid, but you can't.

4.2.3 Expressing Greetings

The first step in starting a conversation is your greeting. This is what you say at the very first moment that you see someone or speak on the telephone.

And this is the first impression a new person will have about you when you speak. When greeting someone, it is important to use the appropriate level of formality for each situation.

English Greetings for Professional/Formal Situations

There are many situations in which we mayvneed more **formal** or **business professional** language in English. Some common examples include:

- Business meetings & negotiations
- At a job interview
- Communicating with high-level management
- Saying hello to the company president or CEO
- Showing respect to elderly individuals or people we do not know well
- Meeting new business colleagues
- Communicating with new clients, high-level clients, angry clients

In these situations we use more formal or professional language to show respect, to show the importance of a situation or the person or to keep a professional tone. Use the example words and expressions below to appropriate greet individuals or groups and start conversations.

Good morning / Good afternoon / Good Evening

This is the most common form of greeting in a formal situation and is appropriate to use any time – with colleagues, business clients, formal relationships, new neighbors, etc. To be particularly respectful, you can also include the person‘s last name, for example: ―*Good morning, Ms Jones*.‖ If you know someone well, you can also use the first name.
When you are greeting a group of people – for example at a meeting – you can also say something such as:

- *Good morning, everyone. I hope you are doing well this morning.*

Hello. How do you do?

This is used when meeting someone for the first time and is very formal. It may be used in a formal business situation or a formal dinner party event.
Be careful. This is not really a ―How are you?‖ question. It is really a simple greeting and has a similar meaning to *"Nice to meet you.*

Nice to meet you. / Pleased to meet you.

You are probably already familiar with these expressions from your English studies as they are common in many English books.
These expressions are best used in formal or business situations when you meet someone for the first time, for example, A: ―*Good morning. How do you do? I'm Josef Rammas with X Company.*‖ B: ―*Pleased to meet you Mr. Rammas*.‖

How have you been doing? / How have you been?

This is a very simple, polite and appropriate question to use to start a conversation in a business or formal situation. It is a respectful way to ask ―How are you?‖ with someone you have not seen in a long time or someone you do not see every day.

English Greetings for Informal Situations:

With colleagues you know well, clients you have developed a relationship with or people who are acquaintances of yours (not close friends or family, but people you are friendly with), it is appropriate to be a little more relaxed with the language.
Example situations include:

- In the office with your team and colleagues
- Meeting or a lunch with a regular client
- Networking events
- Trade show or job fair
- Conferences
- Greeting neighbors
- Seeing an acquaintance unexpectedly (for example, seeing someone you know at the grocery store or in a restaurant)

It is often also very common to shake hands with someone when you greet them. This is common for business contacts and acquaintances.

Hello / Hi / Hey

Hello and hi are very common and appropriate to use in more informal situations. Most of thetime, people include the person‘s first name (English speakers tend to be more informal generally speaking).

- *Hello, Susan.*
- *Hi, Lara.*

Hey should be reserved for people you know well. This is the most informal of these 3 greetings but it is definitely appropriate for people in your office you see every day and your close work colleagues.

How are you? / How are you doing? / How is it going?

Most of the time we follow ―hello‖ or ―hi‖ with one of these questions.

Careful! These questions should have very simple answers and should be focused on the positive or neutral. You should not answer with a list of everything you did during the day nor should you provide a negative answer.

Example answers include:

- *Fine, thanks. And you?*
- *Great! You?*
- *Hi, Susan – good thanks. How about you?*
- *Doing well. And how have you been?*
- *Not bad. And you? How are you?*
- *Hello, Lara. How are you?**

*Yes, sometimes the answer is with the same question (remember – we have this same situation in Business Professional greetings with *How do you do?*). This is often confusing the first time you hear it or experience it. Remember – these questions can also be a greeting, not a real question. This is commonly used when passing or walking by someone you know but you have no time to talk.

Good to see you. / It’s great to see you. / Nice to see you.

You can use these expressions when you have not seen someone in a long time or when you see someone unexpectedly.

For example, meeting a client for a lunch, seeing a business contact at a meeting or seeing an acquaintance at the grocery store.

These expressions can be used:

- Immediately after saying hello or hi in the greeting. For example, *Hello, Susan. It's good to see you!*
- As part of your closing, after you finish a short conversation. For example, *Well, it was great to see you. I have to get going. Have a good day. Goodbye.*

Long-time, no see. / It's been awhile. / When was the last time we saw each other?

These expressions are used when you have not seen someone for a long time. These are also great expressions to use to start a little small talk. The question ―*When was the last time we saw each other*?‖ is an easy way to start a conversation about what has happened since you last saw each other.

How have you been? / How have things been going (since I last saw you)? / What have you been up to?

These questions are often used after an expression such as, ―Long-time, no see‖ or ―It's been awhile.‖

These are similar to asking ―*How are you?*‖ and are great ways to start some small talk. The questions invite the person to say how they are doing or to share any new, interesting information they are comfortable sharing. For example:

- *Great thanks. Did you hear we are moving to California next month?*
- *Doing well. We've just returned from our summer vacation. And how about you?*
- *Nothing to complain about! The family is good and work is fine. Just the same old, same old. What about you?*

4.2.4 Apologies and Gratitude

Apologies

Apologies are a funny thing. Some are accepted and some aren't. Certain apologies are accepted by some, and not others. For leaders and managers of all types, knowing when and how to communicate a prompt and sincere apology is one of the keys to earning the respect of those around you.

With that said, consider some of the dos and don'ts when it comes to apologizing:

- **Apologize quickly.** If it takes longer than 24 hours—especially in a high-profile or very public situation—people become suspect. When you do apologize, do it willingly in a proactive fashion, instead of waiting to have your back against the wall and after testing the public reaction to the situation.
- **When apologizing, give specifics.** What exactly are you apologizing for? Lawyers often tell their clients to be vague and general when apologizing. And if there is more than one thing to apologize for, they recommend apologizing for the least embarrassing mistake. Yet, communication experts know that apologies must be specific to be accepted. When using vague generalities in an apology, most audiences don't buy it, because they are not convinced you are really acknowledging what exactly you did wrong.

- **When apologizing, talk directly about what you are going to do to fix the situation, if possible.** Just saying you are going to ―fix it‖ isn‘t enough. How are you going to fix it? How are you going to measure whether the same mistake is made again? It is easy to say, ―I‘m sorry. This isn‘t going to happen again.‖ It is a lot harder to say, ―I take responsibility and apologize for X and am going to do XYZ to make sure it never happens again.‖
- **Apologize face-to-face.** Do not rely on e-mail or an organization-wide memo sent to employees to express your apology. That is the easy way out and sends the message that you are afraid to confront the situation head on. We all make mistakes, so when you do, apologize in person, face-to-face, and be willing and open to receive feedback and answer any questions from those in your audience. Doing so sends the message that you truly care about how your mistake impacted them and that you are interested in hearing their perspective.
- **Apologies must pass the credibility test.** Sometimes, no matter how sincere you can be when apologizing, if your offense or mistake is so egregious, it is going to fall on deaf ears. That is not to say that you can‘t rebound from such a situation, however, it means you will have to go the extra mile in terms of your apology as well as the actions you take after you apologize to show that you are willing to put in the time and effort to make things right.
- **Move on.** In most situations, if you apologize keeping the above tips and tools in mind, your apology will be accepted and everyone can move on with the work at hand. However, if you feel you have done everything in your power to truly apologize and for reasons outside your control your apology is not accepted, you need to let it go and move on. Overthinking or carrying the extra weight of the unaccepted apology could cause you to lose focus, thereby increasing the potential of future mistakes, and nothing good will come of that.

Gratitude

Think about the people around you, who have helped you along the way. And make sure your communication with them includes a healthy dose of gratitude. Support should always lead togratitude. And, gratitude usually leads to more support.

Gratitude is a positive emotion felt after being the beneficiary of some sort of gift. It is also a social emotion often directed towards a person (the giver of a gift) or felt towards a higher power.

So, to help you build your appreciation muscle, here are ten simple ways to add the practice ofit to your daily life at work and at home.

- **Say “please” and “thank you.”**

This should be an easy one – but most people are ―please‖ and ―thank you‖ poor. Make it a habit to ALWAYS say please and thank you. Practicing kindness on a regular basis is an important way to show everyone you appreciate them.

- **Catch someone doing something right.**

Pay attention to things going on around you and when something is going well, say so! Pop

your head in a cubby and say something like ―wow, you are doing a great job.‖ Tell your child you love the project they are working on.

- **Show genuine interest.**

Take notice of pictures, what someone is wearing, or something else you like about them. Show them that you care about who they are.

- **Go to lunch or take a break.**

Give the gift of your time — go to lunch, take a break, or go for a walk and connect with someone on a more personal basis.

- **Give a small gift.**

Give a favorite coffee drink, candy bar, or flower to someone you appreciate and just say ―thanks for all you do‖. It can be as simple as a sticky note with that same sentiment.

- **Create traditions.**

Come up with a silly award to pass around or show at staff meetings to acknowledge the hard work that‘s going on, like the longest phone call from a customer, or the funniest incident. Or have everyone write down one person they appreciate and why, and put them in a hat. Draw one out for a prize. This is also really fun to do at home!

- **Celebrate successes.**

When things go right, celebrate! Acknowledge everyone involved, even for the small stuff. It can make a huge difference in office *and* family morale.

- **Say it out loud.**

Tell someone you appreciate them in front of others. Tell your spouse you are thankful for him in front of the kids. Acknowledge someone‘s work in a staff meeting.

- **Tell their boss.**

Don‘t you wish someone would do that for you? What a powerful way to show gratitude that can have a lasting impact!

Check Your Progress 1:

1. What are probing questions good for? How are they different from leading questions?

Ans._____

2. What is the importance of being polite?

Ans._____

Ans. _____

55

4.3 Job Interviews

The more you know about the style of the interview, the better you can prepare.

The Telephone Interview

Often companies request an initial telephone interview before inviting you in for a face to face meeting in order to get a better understanding of the type of candidate you are. The one benefit of this is that you can have your notes out in front of you. You should do just as much preparation as you would for a face to face interview, and remember that your first impression is vital. Some people are better meeting in person than on the phone, so make sure that you speak confidently, with good pace and try to answer all the questions that are asked.

The Face-to-Face Interview

This can be a meeting between you and one member of staff or even two members.

The Panel Interview

These interviews involve a number of people sitting as a panel with one as chairperson. This type of interview is popular within the public sector.

The Group Interview

Several candidates are present at this type of interview. You will be asked to interact with each other by usually a group discussion. You might even be given a task to do as a team, so make sure you speak up and give your opinion.

The Sequential Interview

These are several interviews in turn with a different interviewer each time. Usually, each interviewer asks questions to test different sets of competencies. However, if you are asked thesame questions, just make sure you answer each one as fully as the previous time.

The Lunch / Dinner Interview

This type of interview gives the employer a chance to assess your communication and interpersonal skills as well as your table manners!

All these types of interviews can take on different question formats, so once you‘ve checked with your potential employer which type of interview you‘ll be attending, get preparing!
Here‘s a list of interview formats that you should prepare your answers for;

Competency Based Interviews

These are structured to reflect the competencies the employer is seeking for the particular job. These will usually be detailed in the job spec so make sure you read it through, and have your answers ready for questions such as ―Give me an example of a time you worked as a team to achieve a common goal.‖

Formal / Informal Interviews

Some interviews may be very formal, others may be very informal and seem like just a chat about your interests. However, it is important to remember that you are still being assessed, and topics should be friendly and clean!

Portfolio Based Interviews

In the design / digital or communications industry it is likely that you will be asked to take your portfolio along or show it online. Make sure all your work is up to date without too little or too much. Make sure that your images if in print are big enough for the interviewer to see properly, and always test your online portfolio on all Internet browsers before turning up.

The Second Interview

You‘ve passed the first interview and you‘ve had the call to arrange the second. Congratulations! But what else is there to prepare for? You did as much as you could for the first interview! Now is the time to look back and review. You may be asked the same questions you were asked before, so review them and brush up your answers. Review your research about the company; take a look at the _About Us‘ section on their website, get to know their client base, search the latest news on the company and find out what the company is talking about.

General Interview Preparation

Here‘s a list of questions that you should consider your answers for when preparing…

• Why do you want this job?
• Why are you the best person for the job?
• What relevant experience do you have?
• Why are you interested in working for this company?
• What can you contribute to this company?
• What do you know about this company?
• What challenges are you looking for in a position?
• Why do you want to work for this company?
• Why should we hire you?
• What are your salary requirements?

4.4 Group Discussions

Group Discussion or **GD** is a type of discussion that involves people sharing ideas or activities. People in the group discussion are connected with one basic idea. Based on that idea, everyone in the group represents his/her perspective.

Types of Group Discussion

There are two types of Group Discussion, which are listed below:

- Topic-Based Group Discussion
- Case Study Based Group Discussion

Topic-Based Group Discussion

There are few candidates in a group, where each group is given any topic. The group members discuss the topic, which is called a Group Discussion.

Case Study Based Group Discussion

The Case study based Group Discussion is generally followed by the MBA Institutes, such as IIM, etc. In such a discussion, a problem is given, and the participants are asked to resolve them. The preparation time is also higher as compared to other discussions. The panelists test the teamwork and decision-making skills of the participants.

The participants need to active and updated with the things around them. It also tests the observation capability of the participants.

The example of Case study based topics can be 'Discussion between boss and manager'.

Rules of Group Discussion

There are some rules of a Group Discussion. The rules of Group Discussion are listed below:

- **Prepare well for the topic.**
  The quick trick is to note all the important points during the preparation time. Do not write brief paragraphs. Try to write short points and explain them briefly in the discussion.
- **Be confident about your content**
  It would help if you always were confident about your content. If you are not confident, you may hesitate while speaking, which will create a negative impression.
- **Participants Introduction**
  Most participants only focus on their content. You should be aware during the introduction of all the participants in your group. To get attention, you can call out the person's name when the discussion gets diverted.
- **Body Language**
  Always take care of your body language. Do not focus only on the content.
- **Leadership**
  Try to take the lead in the group if you are confident about the topic and the knowledge.
- **Avoid false starts or commitments**
  Do not initiate the discussion if you are not sure about your content. Do not present any wrong information.
- **Follow your Domain**
  Every company has its own culture. Prepare your content according to the company requirements. For example, industrial companies will focus more on technical talks, while marketing companies seek the combination of creative and oriented content.
- **Do not fight**
  In the Group Discussion, some candidates often get aggressive. Do not fight during the discussion. Most of the companies require sensitive and polite candidates rather than aggressive ones.

4.5 Presentation Skills

Presenting information clearly and effectively is a key skill in getting your message across. Today, presentation skills are required in almost every field, and most of us are required to give presentations on occasions. While some people take this in their stride, others find it much more challenging.

It is, however, possible to improve your presentation skills with a bit of work.
There are different types of presentations, but they‘re all presentations. There are any number of occasions when you may be asked to speak in public or to a group of people. They include:

- Presenting or making a speech at a conference or event.
- Objecting to a planning proposal at a council meeting.
- Making a speech at a wedding.
- Proposing a vote of thanks to someone at a club or society.
- On behalf of a team, saying goodbye and presenting a gift to a colleague who is leaving.
- Seeking investment or a loan to help you set up a new business.

These can all be considered presentations.

They do not, however, all require the same approach. You would not, for example, use PowerPoint to thank a colleague who was leaving. It would be unusual (though it has been done) to use it in a speech at a wedding. However, a conference audience would be somewhat surprised NOT to see slides projected onto a screen.
It follows, therefore, that there is no single set of rules that apply to all presentations. There are, however, some things that every presentation opportunity has in common. These include:

- **You will present better if you have prepared effectively**. This does NOT necessarily mean that you have written out your speech verbatim and rehearsed it until you know it off by heart—although that might work for some people. It does, however, mean that you have to be confident that you are saying the right thing, in the right way, to the right people.
- **You need to be clear about your audience and your message**. Every presentation will be better if you have clearly considered the message that you want or need to convey, and how best to convey it to your audience. These two pieces of information drive your style, structure, content, and use of visual aids.
- **You must never overrun your allocated time**. In other words, don‘t outstay your welcome. Almost every speech or presentation is better if it is shorter. Nobody minds going for coffee early or finishing before they expected to do so. Everybody minds being held up.
- **Generally speaking, your audience starts on your side.** As a rule, your audience is there (more or less) voluntarily. They have chosen to listen to you, and they want to enjoy your presentation. The occasion is yours to lose.

When you present, you are in charge of the room. The audience has effectively handed you control and is sitting back waiting for you to do something. You may have prepared a specific talk, but if you see that isn‘t working, you can always change it. You are, after all, the expert. You can, for example:

- Skip through some slides to a section that they may find more interesting;
- Ask your audience whether there is particular information that they were expecting that you are not providing;
- Suggest that everyone looks a bit sleepy, and maybe it would be better to start questions early, or have a discussion; or
- Ask the audience at the start of the presentation what they are expecting and what they want you to cover. That way, you can tailor the presentation to fit their expectations.

Just as when you are facilitating, you want to help your audience get the most out of your presentation. The best way to do that is to accept feedback—which may include smiles, nods of interest, or people getting their phones out.

Check your progress 2:

1. What are some ways that will help you prepare for a telephone-interview well?

Ans._____

2. How a topic-based GD is different from a case-study based GD?

Ans._____

3. What are the essentials of a good presentation?

Ans._____

4.6 Summing It Up

Speaking skills are the skills that give us the ability to communicate effectively. These skills allow the speaker, to convey his message in a passionate, thoughtful, and convincing manner. Speaking skills also help to assure that one won't be misunderstood by those who are listening.

Asking questions, making requests and suggestions are an important part of speaking skills. Expressing greetings, apologies and gratitude are an inherent part of efficient speaking skills. These skills allow the speaker to communicate effectively while interacting in a business or social setup.

Participation in group discussions, presentation skills and the ability to face job interviews confidently reflect the speaking skills of the person concerned.

4.7 Further Reading

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4.8 Questions For Practice

Q1. What is the importance of speaking skills in communication?Q2. What is the difference between open and closed questions?

Q3. What should be kept in mind while making requests and questions?

Q4. What could be the various forms of greetings in formal and informal situations?

Q5. When and why should a formal apology be offered?

Q6. Why is it necessary to express gratitude?

Q7. Name some different formats of job interviews.

Q8. How can you prepare well for a group discussion?

Q9. What should you do to make a viable presentation?

UNIT 5: Reading

Structure:

5.0 Objectives
5.1 Introduction
5.2 General Reasons For Reading
5.3 Factors Affecting Reading Efficiency:
5.4 Reading Process
5.5 Reading Different Types Of Texts
5.6 Kwl Reading Strategy
5.7 Types Or Gears Of Reading
5.8 Sq3r Approach
5.9 Visual Regression And Visual Wandering
5.10 Techniques For Improving RETENTION
5.11 Let‘S Sum Up
5.12 Questions For Practice
5.13 References

5.0 Objectives:

After studying this unit, students will be able to:

- State the process of Reading;
- Explain the reading of different texts types;
- Describe different types of reading;
- Understand the techniques of improving Retention;
- Describe the SQ3R Approach;
- Understand the difference between visual regression and visual wandering.

5.1 Introduction:

The four skills of communication are reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Though each skill has its own importance, efficiency in one is dependent upon and also affects the efficiency

in the other. We begin our day by picking up the newspaper and reading the headlines. During the day we read our emails, letters, other books and magazines. While going on the road, we read banners and advertisements on the boards, and before going to bed we read our prayers. Knowingly or unknowingly we spend a lot of time on reading. Executives working in business, industrial, organisations depend daily on the information contained in the official manuals, newspapers, magazines, books, journals, letters, business reports, legislations and office orders. The success of any organisation depends upon its executive‘s ability to read and understand the material quickly and adequately. It is important to note that one must read efficiently so as to understand and retain the studied material for a longer period. At the same time, after knowing how to read efficiently, retention can be improved by sharpening the skills of reading.

Reading as a part of our daily life, expands the horizons of our awareness. It makes us liberated. The more we read, the freer we become. It is an indispensible activity that we perform consciously or unconsciously daily. We should, of course, read regularly. And then we should talk about our reading, which helps us to better understand what we have read and this enriches us.

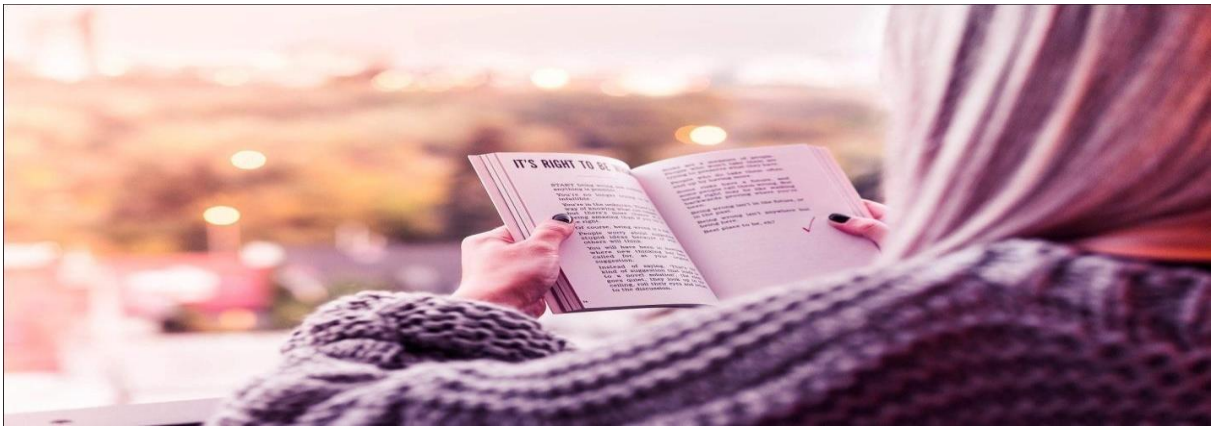
Definition:

Reading is a process of meaning making from a print, usually visual, involving the identification of the symbols or signs or decoding, word recognition, comprehension and interpretation in a fluent manner, based on background knowledge.
Valid reading assessments, therefore, evaluate students' ability to apply their knowledge, skills and strategies to reading situations that are representative of those they encounter in their daily lives.

5.2 General Reasons For Reading:

Everyone has a different reason for reading. It may be for information, literary pleasure, literary experience, for growth, for learning, for responding, for enquiry, etc. People read, think and use text‘s content depending on the nature of text and their requirement. It can be explained in the following ways:
1. Reading for growth: More a person reads, more he grows. The habit of reading is necessary for managing the world around us practically. It is the transmission of ideas, facts, feelings and decisions from the mind and the soul of an author to the mind and soul of the reader. So reading is growth, moral development, and enrichment.

2. When reading is done for Literary Experience: The reader generally reads articles, novels, short stories, poems, plays and essays, and indulges into exploration of the human condition and the interplay among events, emotions and possibilities in the texts. The reader attempts to know what and how the writer might write in these specific genres and forming expectations of how the text will be organized. He is able to guess how the writer explores or uncovers experiences with a feeling of empathy. So, the reader in this way gains a lot of different situational experiences after reading the text.



(https://picjumbo.com/reading-a-book-free-photo/)

3. Reading for responding: Reading acts as a stimulus to images memories and in the identification of fresh and creative thoughts. Reading contributes to the development of values in life. It generates reassurance and makes people achieve experience and knowledge. It also injects curiosity about and zest for living, and develops compassion and courage in a person‘s

personality. Reading, like thinking or problem-solving, occurs always in some context. The cognitive processes involved in reading are those of assimilation and accommodation.

4. Reading for learning: In conducting the reading as an enquiry, a person gathers and processes information from the text. He or she should raise questions on the text and develop hypothesis while going through the pages. Also one should test and evaluate the validity of findings obtained through reading. The reader must program his reading, selecting the text, raising questions, drawing inferences and reaching conclusions.

5. Reading for Information: For this kind of reading, the readers usually look for articles, chapters, entries in magazines, newspapers, textbooks, encyclopedias and catalogs, or maybe entire books on the required topics.

6. Reading to Perform a Task: This involves reading documents such as bus or train schedules, directions for games, classroom and laboratory procedures, tax or insurance forms, recipes, voter registration materials, maps, referenda, consumer warranties and office memos. It requires understanding of the purposes and structure of documents which guide the selection, understanding and application of information.

5.3 Factors Affecting Reading Efficiency:

The factors which affect reading speed, comprehension ability and overall reading efficiency of a person have been observed to vary from one person to another. Though the list of these factors may be very exhaustive, some of the factors are listed below:

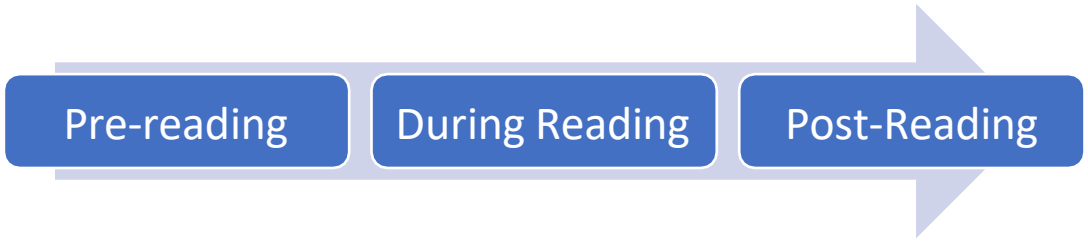
- Educational background: A well educated person may have a higher reading efficiency than one who is illiterate.
- Physical ability: Sometimes some physical defects in a person may hinder his efficiency to read and comprehend.
- Mental ability: People have different mental abilities. While some are born intellectual others acquire intelligence through their efforts. A higher mental capability will definitely lead to a better reading efficiency and retention.
- Interest: If the reader finds reading material interesting he will definitely read it faster understand it and retain it for a longer time. On the other hand, if the reading material is boring or not of interest to the reader, his efficiency will be hindered accordingly.
- Practice: Reading speed is a by product of practice and time spent on reading. Avid readers enhance their reading skills by stepping up their reading. It is rightly said _practice makes a man perfect‘.

Check Your Progress-1:

- Define reading.
- How does educational background affect reading comprehension?

5.4 Reading Process:

The process of reading involve: pre-reading state, during-reading and post-reading stages. These have different situations, different methods, and different purposes:



Pre-reading or Deciding the Purpose:

As it is the initial stage, the reader begins to activate prior knowledge, followed by selecting and previewing of the texts, and deciding the purpose. Then he puts up certain questions while choosing the text. A variety of strategies like KWL, Anticipation Guide, Pre-read Prep, questioning, etc. can be applied to activate this critical reading process. The best way is to start critical reading using the skimming method covering the pages you plan to read and get a general idea out of it. Look at section headings, topic sentences and chapter titles to formulate some ideas about what the author is going to address in the text. This step allows the students to contemplate about the ways the chosen text might connect to self, text, and world.

During Reading or Gaining an access:

This is the stage when the reading has actually started and so now it is expected that the reader is constantly putting up questions, justifying and making predictions. Here the ―Think Aloud―method proves to be quite helpful. Taking the time to make annotations or notes about the text or in response to the text while reading it, is another important technique. After a lot of practice and repetition of the process in a large group, readers become habitual of this process themselves. Another helpful technique is the use of sticky notes to mark content which they find really simple and easy to understand, content which they find difficult to understand, and of course content which brings forth ―burning questions.‖

As you read, in addition to annotations, make a working outline, keeping in mind the ideas you noted in your pre-reading. The reader will be able to understand not only structure, but also observe how the argument is formulated. So as said earlier, repetition and practice makes the students effective critical readers.

Post reading or Justification or Confirming the predictions made in the previous stage:

While writing down the summary of a text one should review the purpose of the reading conducted by him, the author‘s argument/point of view, the organizational logic and structure, key concepts used by the author, and material covered. Also, consider in your summary how the reading connects back to the lecture, discussion or lab work you have done for the class. Now the reader has read a lot and comprehended the content which confirms his or her predictions, questions, thoughts and some non-verbal sounds ―ah ha‘s‖. Here, discussions, rewriting, and retelling prove beneficial. When he re-reads the same content, this enables him to validate its meaning and connections to him and to the writer. Thorough and repeated reading process enable readers to better develop their writer styles and strengthens the vocabulary.

Sticky notes: According to Wikipedia, a _sticky note is a small piece of paper with a re-adherable strip of glue on its back, made for temporarily attaching notes to documents and other surfaces. A low-tack pressure-sensitive adhesive allows the notes to be easily attached,

removed and even re-posted elsewhere without leaving residue. Originally small yellow squares, Post-it Notes and related products are available in various colors, shapes, sizes and adhesive strengths‘.



(https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Sticky_Note_Therapy_(31135998640)_(cropped2).jg)

Think Aloud – In literacy instruction, this is a meta-cognitive technique or strategy in which the teacher verbalizes aloud while reading a selection orally, thus modeling the process of comprehension (vocabulary, connections, questions, etc.). An extension of the think aloud is the recording of the spoken thoughts, thereby providing insight into the thinking processes involved in writing.

5.5 Reading Different Types Of Texts:

There is a wide variety of reading material available if one has an intention of reading. Choosing the right kind of reading material depends on the mood of the person, needof the hour i.e., whether the reader wants to read for pleasure, or to gain informationor the purpose is to conduct an in-depth research. So, one can choose any kind of text depending upon the availability. So we need to understand, first of all, the different types of texts available and their distinct characteristics. Following are some of them:

Discussion Texts:

Sometimes, the purpose of the reader may be to participate in a discussion. So as to explore more points and information and to participate in the discussion effectively, the reader will have to make choice from discussion texts. Discussion texts help in providing some background detailed information on the topic. More similar texts on the same topic can be read which will help the reader in contributing in the discussion in an impressive way. In these texts, writers provide straightforward information and make use of diagrams and charts to support their arguments. Usually these are written in the present tense.

Explanatory Texts:

These texts concentrate on the causes and reasons of why certain things happen and so they help providing more than just the straightforward information. Explanatory texts generally begin with a simple statement introducing the topic needed to be explored, for example, ―Weather these days is changing frequently. Then the various steps are explained one by one. Time connectives such as *first, after, then, next, finally* etc. are used. To elaborate on the topic, diagrams, flowcharts, illustrations, etc., are used. Sentences have direct addressing

e.g. ―You’ll be surprised to learn…, etc.

Instructional or Procedural Texts:

Instructions or procedural texts throw light on the rules or processes to be followed for doing something specific. Like, in the case of instructions about games, household appliances, processes or in recipes, etc. There are lot of similarities between explanatory texts and instructional / procedural texts but the only difference is that instructions or procedural texts tell you what to do, while explanatory texts describe something. Process is described step- by-step using bullet points, numbers, etc. Sometimes, the diagrams or illustrations may replace the written text entirely.

Persuasion Texts:

As the title indicates, the main aim of persuasive type texts is to convince the reader about the possible merits of adopting a particular viewpoint or taking a specific course of action. Usually, starting with an effective opening statement, or thesis statement, persuasive texts start by summing up the viewpoint to be presented. The paragraphs are used to organize, present, and elaborate on different aspects of the topic. A closing statement then restates and reinforces the original conclusion of the text. These texts use facts and evidence to support arguments. These texts move from a general point to specific points.

Literary Text Types:

Another important category is text or genre types in literature. Understanding the various aspects of the different writing genres helps the reader to steer his way to gain such ability to write something very useful and effective. Moreover, this helps the reader in making his own text compositions. He will also be able to organize his own work as per his need.

Readers should be given an exposure to as many different genres as possible, and of course, opportunities to explore how these text types operate. Following are the types of literary texts:

Poetry: Poetry is written in different forms, and sometimes, these forms come with their own specific purposes. Poetry is usually written to entertain, to inform, to amuse, to share knowledge, pass on culture, to advance culture, etc. Like, the purpose of writing elegies is to either praise or mourn a person, and limericks, on the other hand are crafted to amuse readers. The different types of poetry make use of a variety of different structures, metre, rhythm, rhyme schemes, rhythmical patterns, grammatical patterns, and line and stanza length. Language in poetry usually appeals to the readers. Imagery and literary devices are used to control the readers' mind.

Narrative: Narration of any incident or happening or anything which may be told like a story is the basic idea about narratives**.** Like, myths narrate about the natural phenomena and legends, essentially, passing on the cultural beliefs. These generally entertain and inform readers and allow the writers to express themselves creatively and imaginatively. Some more narrative text types are myths, fables, traditional tales, novels, short stories, etc, almost all of these begin by establishing setting and introducing characters, followed by conflicts, problems or complications related to the narrated events. Climax or a resolution is achieved at the end of the story. These are usually the most interesting of all the above mentioned text

types, and usually the plot keeps the reader glued to it till the end.

Drama: Drama is a means of social commentary, communicating culture, amusing, and informing at the same time. It is quite similar to narrative storytelling. But drama narrates the story through enacting it on the stage, involving dialogue. Audience or the reader plays an important role here. Extensive use of dialogue and occasional stage directions are some essential elements of a dramatic text type. These are also source of information, and readers find them quite interesting.

Check your progress-2:

Fill in the blanks:

- is the initial stage, when the reader begins to activate prior knowledge.
- is a small piece of paper with a re-adherable strip of glue on its back.
- texts throw light on the rules or processes to be followed for doing something specific.

5.6 K-W-L Reading Strategy:

KWL is most often used with expository reading materials, such as classroom textbooks, research articles, and journalistic pieces. The K-W-L strategy is a useful tool for teaching reading comprehension. The technique ties together students‘ prior knowledge, their desire to learn more, and the conclusions of their learning.



(https://unsplash.com/photos/XECZHb6NoFo)

Importance of the K-W-L Strategy

KWL is an acronym for ‗know-want to know-learn‘, found to be an effective reading strategy. As per this strategy charts are created and labeled- K (Know), W (Want to know), and L (learned). On the chart with alphabet K, students will list everything they know about the topic of discussion, based on their previous knowledge. On the chart with the letter W, students are supposed to enlist what they want to know about the topic. These two steps should be performed before the reader starts reading. Under the letter L, students make list of

everything that they have learnt after completing their reading. This strategy is useful for individuals as well as in group setting.

It is an instructional technique helpful in improving reading comprehension among the struggling readers. It also improves a student's ability to remember the material. This method is easy to apply and after usage brings forth desired positive results among the readers. The applicants are able to learn efficiently and have been observed to retain. Teachers are able to activate the students‘ prior knowledge about a certain topic. This method also promotes research, active reading, and enhances learning. It is basically, a pre-reading strategy. KWL also helps to:

- **Promotes Active Learning** – Researches have shown that students are able to better comprehend topics and remember them if they actively participate in the activity. KWL method results into active learning by allowing teachers to assess their students‘ learning levels.
- **Encourages Academic Success** –As the participants are actively involved, they are more connected to the class and the subject matter. Interaction of such students with classmates and the teacher increases their chance for academic success.

5.7 Types Or Gears Of Reading:

For reading well it is essential to adopt the right approach to reading a text. Each piece of material decides the approach to be followed. The sense of good reading is to be flexible. The term flexibility in approach means first to decide the speed for a material beforehand, secondly, to vary the speed according to the changes encountered. The approach to reading is with regard to using gears like we do while driving a car. We change gears as we speed up. There are four gears for the sake of classification of reading which are as followed:

- Study reading: This approach is applied when the text is very difficult or 100% comprehension of the text is required. Here the reading speed ranges from 50- 200 words per minute. This is called study reading. Sometimes, the same material is read more than once. This gear is called studying also. It also depends on the purpose of memorizing the text. Such a text is to be read logically considering the problems in the text and tackling then so that the mind finds it easy to assimilate. This is a slow but highly powerful gear of reading with lots of comprehension.
- Slow reading: This type of reading ranges from 200 - 300 words per minute. It is the normal reading speed generally followed by all. This reading is also specifically used when the text is difficult. Normally, it is considered to be an inefficient reading. In this type of reading, word by word progress or line by line progress is done on the basis of the text.
- Rapid reading: The speed in this gear of reading is between 300 to 800 words per minute. This is considered to be the most efficient and the most useful gear or approach of reading, and here one has to practice hard to maintain the speed of reading. The efficiency of reading does not imply understanding each and every word in the very first reading of the text. This approach is used for the texts of average difficulty level, with only 60 to 70% comprehension. However, for efficient rapid reading one needs to do regular breathing exercises.
- Skimming: This is the fastest gear. It is a reading tool or approach for a busy reader. Skimming does not involve reading every word. In this method we intentionally miss words, skip sentences, and sometimes paragraphs too. The speed in skimming ranges

from 600-60 thousand words per minute. The comprehension value of this approach is obviously very less. It is mostly used for getting an overall view of a passage or for finding some specific information from a text. It neither involves line by line progress nor implies reading words in block. Further there are three types of skimming, namely, scanning, sampling and locating:

a) Scanning: In scanning we do not move eyes rhythmically in blocks of words across the page of the text. We allow our eyes to wander around the page without regular fixations. Our eyes move wherever they like to move trying to pick out important words. Scanning may begin from the top or the bottom of the page unlike the regular reading practice beginning at the top. In scanning that begins at the bottom, the reader gradually moves upwards. In scanning one can move his or her eyes diagonally across the page or sometimes even erratically all over the page. The important requisite in scanning is that the reader should not make line by line progress. It doesn't matter if some parts of the text are missed. In this approach of reading we not only try to see a general impression of the text we read but also do it as quickly as we can. We can practice skimming by taking a newspaper article, setting a time limit.

b) Sampling: Sampling differs from scanning in technique and approach but achieves a similar result. In sampling the first step is to choose certain parts of the text that possibly give an outline picture of the whole text. We may, for example, see the introductory paragraph of a text for reading or may even start reading the first line of each paragraph of the written material. For sampling a book we may choose the introduction and conclusion for reading and look at all the chapter headings. Sampling is a more structured way of reading than scanning to achieve the same result that is the general outline of a text.

c) Locating: Locating is to find some material in a text. If we require certain information from a document it is futile to waste time reading it all. We can use the deduction to discover what we require. We do locating using the index given at the end of a book or through the table of contents given at the beginning and then we note the way the sections are headed. Practicing it regularly one may locate details, find relevant parts and extract information from a mass of text faster each time. Skimming is, therefore, a very fast mode of reading but, indeed, it has a very poor capacity of comprehension and retention of a text. However, if combined with other methods it may prove to be a useful aid to understanding. It is a poor technique on its own unless it is used to obtain specific information or general understanding. However, for reading a great deal of material this method proves useful.

- Labelling: Labelling is also a kind of reading technique in which we group letters and label them for understanding. Using this method we try to remember that each letter is used to conceive a text. The words also make us recall the letters. In labelling we also recognise a series of facts in a paragraph or text relating to the same aspect of a subject. Each level reminds of the facts that come under it. Labelling helps as in framing questions, building a picture, or structure of the text. We also help ourselves in retention through labelling and further, the retention is reinforced by recalling the labels at regular intervals of reading.

Check Your Progress-3:

- Give full form of K-W-L reading strategy.
- Define skimming.
- Write a short note on how scanning and sampling are different?

5.8 SQ3R Approach:

SQ3R stands for **Survey, Question, Read, Recall** and **Review**.

It is a proven technique to sharpen text book reading skills. In college you will frequently be assigned multiple chapters for several different courses in books that can be quite complicated.SQ3R approach makes reading purposeful and meaningful so that you use your time most effectively. Here's how this strategy works.

Survey: Survey means to get an idea of what the chapter is about by reviewing the highlights. This can be done by:

- reading the title headings and subheadings
- taking notes of words that are *italics* or bold
- looking at charts, graphs, pictures, maps and other visual material
- reading captions
- reading the beginning and the end of the chapter

Question: As you survey the text ask a question for each section. Ask what, why, how, when, who, and where questions as they relate to the content. Here‘s how you can create questions:

- Turn the title headings and subheadings into questions.
- Rewrite the question at the end of the chapter or after each subheading in your own words.

Write down your questions. Questions help you pay attention, understand the text better, and recall the information more easily later on.

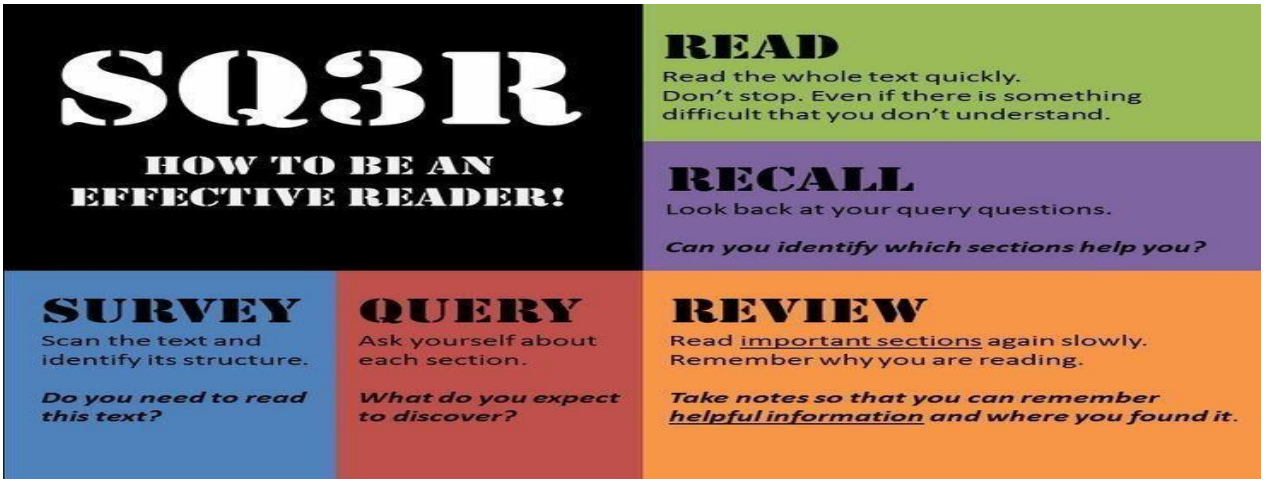
Read: Read one section of a chapter at a time actively looking for an answer to your question for that section. Pay attention to bold and italics in the text that authors use to mark important points. Be sure to review everything in the section, including tables, graphs and illustrations as these features can communicate the idea more powerfully than written text.

Recite: At the end of each section look up from the text, and in your own words recite and answer to your question for that section. Then write down your answer. Be sure to provide examples that support it.

Now repeat the question, read and recite steps for each section of the chapter. First ask question for the next section. Then read to find the answer. Finally, decide the answer in your own words

and write it down. The written questions and answers will help you study in the future.

Review: After completing each chapter and reading assignment, review your notes. Identify the main points of the reading by looking for the most important idea in each section. Recite or write a brief summary of the chapter or assignment.
Review your study notes every week to help you remember the information. When it's time to study for your tests you will find you have created an invaluable guide. So,



(https://miuc.org/sq3r-study-method/)

5.9 Visual Regression And Visual Wandering:

Visual regression is reading backward implying letting the eyes go back to the words and phrases previously read in the printed page. Contrary to this an efficient reader always makes a forward movement. Visual regression not only reduces the speed but also disrupts the smooth and continuous flow of meaning and interferes with one‘s comprehension. To get rid of this habit one may take the help of a 3 inch by 5 inch blank card placed on the top of the line of the written text. As a line is read it is concealed. This would force us to enhance our concentration and practice to understand the words or phrases when read simultaneously increasing the eye span so that fixations provide the appropriate clue to have the brain do the necessary mental activity and comprehend that. This blank card increases our speed of reading.

Visual regression apart from being due to a bad habit and elusive writing also occurs due to boredom and tiredness. Visual wandering on the other hand means drifting from the actual word for a line being read to something else on the printed page. It occurs because the reader may find something or some word more interesting or strange and unconventional as per his expectation. This may also occur because of elusiveness of the words and expressions resulting in boredom. The reader may go to seek some relief elsewhere on the page. This could be a picture, a diagram, something written in bold fonts for impressions, or something in italics, or

any other calligraphic detail. Visual wandering brings discontinuities in perception and understanding causing a decrease in the pace of reading.

Check Your Progress-4:

Give one word for the following:

- Surveying, Questioning, Reading, Recalling and Reviewing to sharpen text book reading skills.
- Drifting from the actual word for a line being read to something else on the printed page.

5.10 Techniques For Improving Retention:

Memory is the store house of our experiences and learning. It is true that all the learning cannot be stored forever. But some experiences and teachings remain forever in our memory. The following steps will improve the practical ability to retain information:

- Using memory aids: Acronyms and abbreviations can be used as effective devices for improving retention. For example 4 P‘s of marketing refer to product, price, place, and promotion, and SWOT in strategic management refers to strengths and weaknesses opportunities and threats.
- Deciding priorities of retention: Human mind has the capability to retain vast amount it of information. At the same time it is difficult to recall information from various layers of access. And the closer to the surface that information lies the easier it is to recall the same. For this the reader should decide his priorities of retention. Instead of retaining relevant information in his mind he should store and concentrate only on priority areas.
- Thinking: If the reader wants to retain reading material he must think about it. If one applies the mind with regard to significance of reading material its relationship with one‘s knowledge utility for future references, etc., will automatically contribute to his retention. Linking the reading material with some personal experiences and persons helps retain the same.
- Eye training: To become an efficient reader, eye training is an important requisite. Mind training is also important. Along with mind training we develop an appropriate strategy to get reading out of a written text, if we learn to use our mind while reading our eyes take care of themselves. For becoming efficient readers we must change ourselves into strategic readers who follow the appropriate system of reading to get the meaning out of the text.

- Reinforcing: Reinforcement means to concretize in the mind what has been read and learnt. This improves retention ability. A brief note should be prepared and periodical reviews of such notes should be done. After reading the speaker should speak to someone and explain in his own words what he has learnt. For improving the quality of repetitive input the materials read should be supplemented by audio visual lectures discussions, etc. The read information should be related with other material and should not be considered as an end only.
- Ensuring determination: It is rightly said where there is a will there is a way. A final set of procedures for retention involves the commitment to retain knowledge. While reading one gets a lot of information but he also keep only that piece of information which he intends to retain. If an individual does not have the will to retain, the retention is not possible.

5.11 Let's Sum Up:

- Reading is one of the four communication skills.
- Various factors like educational qualification, interest, environment, etc., affect the reading efficiency of a person.
- Some of the basic techniques for improving retention are using memory aids; deciding priorities of retention, thinking and reinforcing.
- Visual regression is reading backward implying letting the eyes go back to the words and phrases previously read in the printed page. Contrary to this an efficient reader always makes a forward movement.
- KWL is an acronym for _know-want to know-learn', found to be an effective reading strategy. As per this strategy charts are created and labelled- K (Know), W (Want to know), and L (learned).

5.12 Exercise Questions:

1. Throw light on the factors affecting reading.
2. How do visual regression and visual wandering affect reading?
3. Explain briefly the process of reading.
4. What are sticky notes?
5. What is the importance of KWL strategy?
6. Describe the SQ3R approach.
7. Define skimming and enlist its types.

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