Lecture 1: The Power and Importance of Listening and Speaking Skills

Why is listening important in language learning?

* When learning any language, there are 4 major skills which one has to master. They are:

1.reading

2. writing

3. speaking

4. listening.

* Of the four major language skills, speaking and listening are by far the oldest forms of communication and pre-date formal human writing systems by tens of thousands of years.

*Speaking and listening are fundamental human communicative tools and since the beginning of humankind have been our most basic and primal way of conveying messages.

Why is listening important in language learning?

•Kline (1996) states that being aware of the difference between **hearing and listening** is an important feature for learning and teaching listening effectively. He describes the difference as follows: "Hearing is the reception of sound, Listening is the attachment of meaning to the sound. Hearing is passive, listening is active."

•Listening is defined as an "unconscious process controlled by hidden cultural schemata."

•In psychology and cognitive science, a **schema** describes a mental structure of preconceived ideas, a framework representing some aspect of the world, or a system of organizing and perceiving new information. Schemata influence attention and the absorption of new knowledge: people are more likely to notice things that fit into their schema.

•For example, most people in industrialized nations have a schema for what a car is. Your schema for your friend might include information about her appearance, her behaviors, her personality, and her preferences. Social schemas include general knowledge about how people behave in certain social situations.

Why is listening important in language learning?

•The skill of listening is important in learning any language, and that can be observed in little babies. In observing the development of children over the years an important pattern was discovered; most of them spent their entire first 1.5 to 2 years of their lives listening to their parents, listening to others, and trying to make sense of their surroundings. They can barely talk at that age but that does not mean communication is not taking place. The most powerful indicator that the skill of listening has such a tremendous influence on learning a language is that although children cannot necessarily speak at a young age, they understand many things asked of them.

Why is listening important in language learning?

•The HEAR strategy is important in learning any language. HEAR stands for (Halt – Engage –Anticipate –Replay) which is built on the idea that listening actually takes active work and it is not just a passive skill.

Halt-"[to] free your mind to pay attention to the person speaking"

Engage-"Focus on the speaker" by some sort of physical movement towards his/her direction

Anticipate–Actively think about what the speaker might share next

Replay–Review what the speaker is saying and try to make sense of commonalities, either independently or with peers

•By developing their ability to listen well we develop our students' ability to become more independent learners, as by hearing accurately they are much more likely to be able to reproduce accurately, refine their understanding of grammar and develop their own vocabulary.

Top-down vs. Bottom-up Listening

Definitions:

*Brown (2006) defines top-down processing as the process of "using our prior knowledge and experiences; we know certain things about certain topics and situations and use that information to understand." In other words, learners use their background knowledge in order to comprehend the meaning by considering previous knowledge and schemata.

* Bottom-up processing refers to the process of "using the information we have about sounds, word meanings, and discourse markers like first, then and after that to assemble our understanding of what we read or hear one step at a time" (Brown, 2006, p. 2). During bottom-up processing, learners hear the words, keep them in their short-term memory to combine them with each other and interpret the things that they have heard before.

Top-down vs. Bottom-up Listening

It is important to mention that depending on the purpose for listening, learners may use top-down or bottom-up process more than another.

•Successful listeners are those who can use both bottom-up and top-down processes by combining the new information and the knowledge that they already know.

•In reality, fluent listening normally depends on the use of both processes operating simultaneously.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

* Communication plays a vital role in getting success in all fields. Language is used as a tool for communication. Perfect communication is not possible for people without using a language. Moreover, people cannot achieve their aims, objectives, and goals without using proper language to communicate. Therefore, there is a need for a language to communicate with others those who live all around the globe.

*How can we define speaking?

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves <u>producing</u> and <u>receiving</u> and processing information. Its form and meaning are dependent on <u>the context</u> in which it occurs, including <u>the participants</u> themselves, their <u>collective experiences</u>, the <u>physical environment</u>, and the <u>purposes for speaking</u>.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

•The way we speak differs according to the situation we are in. We do not speak to our professors the same way we speak to our friends.

•Context is important, then. It defines the way we use language to communicate certain ideas to certain people.

•The purpose of talking also plays a role in the way we speak. If we are chatting to spend time it is different than lecturing to transfer information, for example.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

•This is what we call "discourse." We can define it as:

"a mode of organizing knowledge, ideas, or experience that is rooted in language and its concrete contexts."

* A speaker's skills and speech habits have an impact on the success of any exchange. Speakers must be able to <u>anticipate</u> and then <u>produce</u> the <u>expected patterns</u> of <u>specific</u> <u>discourse situations</u>. They must also manage discrete elements such as:

1. Turn-taking

2. Rephrasing

- 3. Providing feedback
- 4. Redirecting.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

1. Turn-taking:

The process where each party of the conversation speaks at a certain time in reply to the other person, the thing that allows both of them to express their thoughts and ideas.

2. Rephrasing:

The process of expressing the same idea in a different way, using different words.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

3. Providing feedback:

Agreeing or disagreeing with the other speaker about a certain statement said by him/her. It is the process of stating your opinions on the other speaker's ideas.

4. Redirecting:

It means to change the dialogue according to each situation.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

*Speaking skills are also useful for learners when they have to settle down well in their professions.

*The professionals have to give oral presentations as they have to promote the products or their companies or give training to the other colleagues. Furthermore, an effective speaker can inspire the audience a lot and gain the complete attention of the audience and maintain the same tempo until the end of his/her speech. So the audience involves completely in the speaker's speech and they sometimes forget the real world and put their complete concentration on the speech.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

•The main advantages of speaking skills are:

To participate actively in pair or group activities in the classrooms.

To give an impressive speech on different occasions.

To participate actively in debates and group discussions.

To pursue higher studies in foreign countries.

To interact with people all around the globe.

To promote the sale of products in the business.

To make living abroad simpler and easier.

To get better employment opportunities.

To perform well in job interviews.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

To acquire more knowledge.

To give presentations for all purposes.

To communicate effectively with others.

To boost up the speakers' self-confidence.

To know the different cultures of the world.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

The capacity to put words together in a meaningful way to reflect thoughts, opinions, and feelings provides the speaker with the following important advantages:

1. Ability to inform, persuade, and direct:

Business managers, educators, military leaders, lawyers, and politicians, among others, seek to develop their speaking skills to such a level that they are transformed into master communicators. Speaking clearly and confidently can gain the attention of an audience, providing the golden opportunity for the speaker to make the message known. Wise is the speaker who gains and then holds the attention of an audience, with well-chosen words in a well-delivered presentation, forming a message that is effective, informative, and understood. The Importance of Speaking Skill

2. Ability to stand out from the rest:

The ability to stand before others and speak effectively is not an ordinary ability. Many people are afraid of public speaking; others have little ability to form thoughts into sentences and then deliver those words in a believable way. A speaker whose skills are honed and developed with constant application and hard work can stand out.

3. Ability to benefit derivatively:

Well-developed verbal skills can increase one's negotiation skills. Self-confidence is improved. A growing sense of comfort comes from speaking in front of larger and larger audiences.

The Importance of Speaking Skill

4. Career enhancement:

Employers have always valued the ability to speak well. It is, and always will be, an important skill, and well worth the effort.

5. Personal satisfaction:

Speakers who have experienced a connection with an appreciative audience through a well-composed and well-delivered presentation often find a deep level of fulfillment that is seldom achieved in other forms of communication. The normal sense of nervous tension can give way to feelings of accomplishment and exuberance when an audience expresses its outward appreciation to a speaker. It's a reward, of sorts, for all the hard work and preparation that goes into honing your skills.

Kinds of Speaking Situations

There are three kinds of speaking situations:

1. Interactive

- 2. Partially-interactive
- 3. Non-interactive.

Kinds of Speaking Situations

1. Interactive Speaking:

Telephone calls and face-to-face conversations are included in interactive speaking situations where speaking and listening are alternatives in English. In the interactive speaking situations, there will be a chance to ask for repetition, clarification or request for a slower speech from the conversation partner. Therefore, interactive speaking situations are more useful situations both for the speaker and the listener as they can understand the matter without having any further doubts.

Kinds of Speaking Situations

2. Partially-interactive Speaking:

In partially interactive situations, a speech is given to the live audience and the audience does not interrupt the speaker's speech. In partially interactive conversations, the speaker can directly see the audience and also judge from their facial expressions and gestures whether the participants have understood his/her speech or not. Here the audience can clarify their doubts through the question-and-answer session that generally takes place at the end of the speech presentation.

Kinds of Speaking Situations

3. Non-interactive Speaking:

In non-interactive speaking situations, there will not be any interaction of the audience where speakers have to just record their speech for a radio broadcast.

Other Skills

•Other skills that have to do with having a good speaking skill:

•Producing the sounds, stress patterns, rhythmic structures, and intonations of the language correctly;

•Using grammar structures accurately;

•Assessing characteristics of the target audience, including shared knowledge or shared points of reference, status and power relations of participants, interest levels, or differences in perspectives;

•Selecting vocabulary that is understandable and appropriate for the audience, the topic being discussed, and the setting in which the speech act occurs:

•Applying strategies to enhance comprehensibility, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, or checking for listener comprehension;

Other Skills

•Using gestures or body language;

•Paying attention to the success of the interaction and adjusting components of speech such as vocabulary,

•Rate of speech, and complexity of grammar structures to maximize listener comprehension and involvement.

Other Skills

•Speakers are supposed to keep their hearers in mind and watch their reactions.

•A speaker cannot be considered good if he/she is unable to use the correct vocabulary and to use the suitable form of formality or informality as required by the situation.



Lecture 2: Forms of Address & Encoding and Decoding

Forms of Address: Formal and Informal Language

•Formal and informal language serve different purposes. The tone, the choice of words and the way the words are put together vary between the two styles.

•Formal language and informal language are associated with particular choices of grammar and vocabulary.

•Knowing when to use formal or informal English at work will depend on the business, the industry, who you are speaking with, and what you are talking about.

Forms of Address: Formal Language

•We use formal language in situations that are serious or that involve people we don't know well.

•It is more common when we write.

•Spoken English can be very formal, for example, in a speech or a lecture.

•More formal vocabulary commonly involves longer words or words with origins in Latin and Greek. Examples: commence, terminate, endeavor.

•Formal language is less personal than informal language. It is used when writing for professional or academic purposes like university assignments. Formal language does not use colloquialisms, contractions or first-person pronouns such as 'I' or 'We'.

•We speak formally when we address our employers or our professors, for example.

Forms of Address: Formal Language

•We often choose to use certain modal verbs to be more formal and polite. Examples:

•Can I suggest you try this dish?

•May I ask a question?

•Might I have a word with you?

•When you are working cross-culturally or with people you do not know very well, using formal language helps eliminate any misunderstandings and helps you sound polite and professional.

Forms of Address: Informal Language

•Informal language is more commonly used in situations that are more relaxed and involve people we know well.

•Informal language is more common when we speak. However, there are times where writing can be very informal, for example, when writing postcards or letters to friends, emails or text messages.

•Contractions and ellipsis are more common in informal language.

•Example of ellipsis: "Went to Barcelona for the weekend. Lots to tell you."

•More informal vocabulary commonly involves shorter words, or words with origins in Anglo-Saxon. Example: start, end, try

Forms of Address: Informal Language

•Informal language is more casual and spontaneous. The tone of informal language is more personal than formal language.

•Using very formal English in everyday situations can sound pompous, so always think about the context and your target audience.

What is Formal and What is Informal?

•1.Know in which situations you can use informal language:

We use informal language:

•A. In situations that are more relaxed and that involve people that you know well or know each other well.

- •B. In everyday conversations.
- •C. Personal emails.
- •D. Social media.
- •E. Spontaneous speech.
- •F. Text messages

What is Formal and What is Informal?

•1.Know in which situations you can use informal language:

We use formal language:

- •A. When you are communicating with someone that you don't know very well.
- •B. Business emails.
- •C. Academic writing/ articles.
- •D. Presentations.
- •E. Official documents.
- •F. Talking to superiors.
- •G. Job interviews.

What is Formal and What is Informal?

•2. Grammar:

In formal language, grammar is more complex and sentences are generally longer. For example:

•We regret to inform you that the delivery will be delayed due to adverse weather conditions [formal]

- •Sorry, but the delivery will be late because of the weather [informal]
- •Have you seen my glasses? [formal]
- •Seen my glasses? [informal]

What is Formal and What is Informal?

3.Modal verbs:

Formal language uses modal verbs. For example:

- •We <u>would</u> be grateful if....
- •<u>Could</u> you kindly inform us as to whether..?

What is Formal and What is Informal?

4.Pronouns:

Formal language is less personal, and is more likely to use the 'we' as a pronoun rather than 'l': For example:

•<u>We</u> can assist in there solution of this matter. Contact us on our help line number [formal]

•I can help you solve this problem. Call me! [informal]

•<u>We</u> regret to inform you that......[formal]

•<u>I'm</u> sorry, but.... [informal]

What is Formal and What is Informal?

5.Vocabulary:

In formal language, words are generally longer. For example:

•<u>Require[formal]</u> vs <u>need[informal]</u>

•<u>Purchase[formal]</u> vs <u>buy[informal]</u>

What is Formal and What is Informal?

6.Pronunciation:

Speech is generally slower in formal language, allowing for correct and clear pronunciation, and the tone of the voice is more **serious**.

7.Contractions

These are not used in formal language. In informal language they are used for easier flow and faster speech. For example:

•She has decided to accept the job offer [formal]

•She's decided to accept the job offer [informal]

What is Formal and What is Informal?

8. Abbreviations and Acronyms:

These are not used in formal language. For example:

- •'As soon as possible' [formal] vs 'asap' [informal]
- •'Advertisement' [formal] vs 'ad' or 'advert' [informal]
- •TAFE = Technical and Further Education

•QANTAS = Queensland and Northern Territory Aerial Services

What is Formal and What is Informal?

9.Colloquial language

This is not used in formal language. For example:

•Would you like a cup of tea? [formal] vs Fancy a cuppa? [informal]

•10.Emojis are never used in formal language.

What is Formal and What is Informal?

•Forms of address play an important role in determining the type of relationship between the addressor and the addressee.

•Consequently, unawareness of their correct use or deviations from the norm create problems in communication.

•So, the situation determines the terms that are needed to be used and how and when to be used.

•Speaking to others needs thinking of the beginning of the conversation for a while. The beginning is usually a "word" to draw the attention of the person spoken to i.e. the addressee. This word is never chosen at random but is dependent, to a large extent, on the conversing people i.e. the addressor and the addressee.

What is Formal and What is Informal?

•Forms of address are situational (depend on the situation). Place plays a crucial role in determining how this relationship is going to happing or what kind of relationship or what type of speech is going to be used.

•A child cannot address his/her uncle by his first name because there are social limitations which restrict us when we speak to others. Forms of address, then, have a great impact; the case is not the same when somebody is addressed by "**sir**" or by the personal pronoun "**you**" in contexts like "**sir come here!**" or "**you come here!**" The former is polite and is used to respect the addressee, whereas the latter is impolite because saying "you come here!" to someone may be considered as an insult most of the time.

What is Formal and What is Informal?

•Forms of address are most of the time culture-specific.

•Therefore, they are considered a problematic area in translation. A good illustration of this is seen when Arabs use a certain term to insult the address like the term "owl". The term suggests that the addressee is ominous and not welcome as his presence causes pessimism. The same term, however, if translated as it is into English carries, most of the time, exactly the opposite meaning. The term "owl" especially in modern English stands for positive qualities. Ilyas (1989: 124) explains this idea and argues that:

•Suppose one comes across the occurrence of the English term ((owl)) in a modern literary text which is to be translated into Arabic. The fact that the term "owl" refers to a universal creature (or semi-universal creature), i.e. bird does not necessarily mean that it is less difficult for translation. In English, it stands for or carries positive connotations (wisdom, and grace), but in Arabic it is a symbol of pessimism and other negative associations.

What is Formal and What is Informal?

•As translators, how can we solve this problem?

•We translate it depending on the meaning in the source language. We give the sense of the original language. However, we can add footnotes to clarify the cultural differences concerned.

•If you are not acquainted with both contexts of the source language and the target language, your translation will not be good.

•Thus one cannot translate without understanding the two cultures and consequently we, as non-native speakers of English, are supposed to understand the connotations of forms of address before we use them in English.

Telephoning

•Telephoning in a language which is not your own is not easy. You should be aware that the person you are speaking to may have difficulties too. Therefore keep the following points in mind:

•1. **Speak clearly.** Us e clear articulation and try to avoid difficult words and long sentences if it is not necessary to use them.

•2. **Do not speak too fast.** Keep in mind that many people tend to speak to fast when they are nervous. Hardly anyone ever speaks too slowly.

•3. **Confirm what you have understood.** This is especially important if the other person gives addresses or dates.

•4. **Be polite.** Start and end the conversation politely. Try to avoid being too direct. In English this is often done by using would. Compare: I want some more information –I would like to have some more information.

Telephoning

•5. **Be efficient.** Make sure that you have prepared the call and know what you want to say and how you want to say it in advance.

•6. Know frequently used expressions.

•7. Listen carefully, so that you do not need to ask the other person to repeat information

Telephoning

•If I do not understand what is said, I use these words:

•Pardon me -excuse me -I did not understand what you said, could you repeat please (or rephrase please).

•If you were giving someone an address or a date, or giving him a phone number, If he understands, he says, for example:

I got it, understood

Encoding and Decoding

•Encoding refers to the process of taking an idea or mental image, associating that image with words, and then speaking those words in order to convey a message. So, if you wanted to explain to your aunt the directions to your new apartment, you would picture in your mind the landscape, streets and buildings, and then you would select the best words that describe the route so your aunt could find you.

•Decoding is the process of listening to words, thinking about them, and turning those words into mental images. If your aunt were trying to find her way to your apartment, she would listen to your words, associate these words with streets and landmarks that she knows, and then she would form a mental map of the way to get to you.

Communicator

•The term **communicator** refers to all of the people in the interaction or speech setting. It is used instead of sender and receiver, because when we are communicating with other people, we are not only sending a message, we are receiving messages from others simultaneously.

•When we speak, we observe others' **nonverbal behavior** to see if they understand us and we gauge their emotional state. The information we gain from these observations is known as feedback.

•Over the telephone, we listen to paralinguistic cues, such as pitch, tone, volume and fillers (i.e., "um," "uh," "er," "like," and so on). This means that communication is not a one-way process.

Communicator

•In a public speaking situation, we watch and listen to audience members' responses. If audience members are interested, agree, and understand us, they may lean forward in their seats, nod their heads, have positive or neutral facial expressions, and provide favorable vocal cues (such as laughter, "That's right," "Uh huh").

•If audience members are bored, disagree, or are confused by our message, they may be texting or looking away from us, shake their heads, have unhappy or confused expressions on their faces, or present oppositional vocal cues (like groans, "I don't think so," "That doesn't make sense," or "You're crazy!"). Thus, communication is always a transactional process—a give and take of messages.

Message

•The **message** involves those verbal and nonverbal behaviors, enacted by communicators, that are interpreted with meaning by others.

•The <u>verbal portion</u> of the message refers to the words that we speak.

•The <u>nonverbal portion</u> includes our tone of voice and other non-vocal components such as personal appearance, posture, gestures and body movements, eye behavior.

•If there is ever a conflict between the verbal and the non-verbal aspects of a message, people will generally believe the nonverbal portion of the message.

•The message can also be intentional or unintentional.

Message

•When the message is <u>intentional</u>, this means that we have an image in our mind that we wish to communicate to an audience or a person in a conversation, and we can successfully convey the image from our mind to others' minds with relative accuracy.

•An <u>unintentional message</u> is sent when the message that we wish to convey is not the same as the message the other person receives.

•Thus as communicators, we cannot always be sure that the message we wish to communicate is interpreted as we intended.

Channel

•The **channel** is very simply the means through which the message travels.

•In face-to-face communication the channel involves all of our senses, so the channel is what we see, hear, touch, smell and perhaps what we taste.

•When we're communicating with someone online, the channel is the computer; when texting the channel is the cell phone; and when watching a movie on cable, the channel is the TV.

•The channel can have a profound impact on the way a message is interpreted. Listening to a recording of a speaker does not have the same psychological impact as listening to the same speech in person or watching that person on television.

Noise

•Noise refers to anything that interferes with message transmission or reception (i.e., getting the image from your head into others' heads).

•There are several different types of noise:

1.Physiological Noise: this refers to bodily processes and states that interfere with a message. For instance, if a speaker has a headache or the flu, or if audience members are hot or they're hungry, these conditions may interfere with message accuracy.

2.Psychological Noise: this refers to mental states or emotional states that impede message transmission or reception. For example, if someone is worried about his/her grandmother who is in the hospital, or if they are thinking about their shopping list, this may interfere with communication processes as well.

Noise

•3. **Physical Noise:** this would be simply the actual sound level in a room. Loud music playing at a party, a number of voices of people talking excitedly, a lawnmower right outside the window, or anything that is overly loud will interfere with communication.

•4. **Cultural Noise:** refers to message interference that results from differences in peoples' worldviews. The greater the difference in worldview, the more difficult it is to understand one another and communicate effectively.

Worldview

•Although the encoding and decoding process may appear to be fairly straightforward, it is actually much more complicated than it seems.

•The reason for this is because we all have different worldviews. **Worldview** is the overall framework through which an individual sees, thinks about, and interprets the world and interacts with it.

•It is important to understand worldview because it has a profound impact on the encoding and decoding process, and consequently on our ability to be understood by others.

•Abstract words(words that refer to ideas or concepts that are removed from material reality) like "peace," "love," "immoral," "justice," "freedom," "success," and "honor" can have a number of different meanings; each of which is predicated on one's worldview.

Worldview

•Communicators have their own unique worldviews that shape both the encoding and decoding processes, which means that we can never be completely understood by another person.

•Never take communication for granted, and never assume your listener will understand you. It takes hard work to make yourself understood by an audience.

Worldview

•There are five core components to our worldview:

•1. Epistemology is the way that we acquire knowledge and/or what counts as knowledge. Epistemology is linked to public speaking because it governs audience members' preferred learning styles and who or what they consider to be credible sources.

•2. Ontology refers to our belief system, how we see the nature of reality or what we see as true or false. Speech writers should be careful not to presume that audience members share the same beliefs.

•3. Axiology represents our value system, or what we see as right or wrong, good or bad, and fair or unfair. Our values represent the things that we hope for—they do not represent reality. Values can have an impact on multiple levels of the public speaking process, but in particular values impact speaker credibility and effectiveness in persuasion.

Worldview

•4. **Cosmology** signifies the way that we see our relationship to the universe and to other people. Cosmology dictates our view of power relationships and may involve our religious or spiritual beliefs. Cosmology would also play a role in such logistical points as who is allowed to speak, the order of speakers on a schedule (e.g., from most to least important), the amount of time a speaker has to speak, the seating arrangement on the dais, and who gets the front seats in the audience.

•5. Praxeology denotes our preferred method of completing everyday tasks or our approach to solving problems. Some speech writers may begin working on their outlines as soon as they know they will need to give a speech, while others may wait until a few days before their speech to begin preparing. Praxeology may also have an impact on a speaker's preference of delivery style and methods of arranging main points

Context

•Context is where the speech or interaction takes place.

•In the 1980's context was taught as the actual physical setting where communication occurred, such as in a place of worship, an apartment, a workplace, a noisy restaurant, or a grocery store.

•People communicate differently in each one of these places as there are unwritten rules of communication (called **norms**) that govern these settings.

•More recently the concept of context has evolved and expanded to include the type of relationships we have with others and the communicative rules that govern those relationships.

•In sum, the context refers to the norms that govern communication in different situations and



Lecture 3: Presentations

What Is a Presentation?

<u>A presentation</u> is the process of communicating a topic to an audience. It is typically a demonstration, introduction, lecture, or speech meant to inform, persuade, inspire, motivate, or to build good will or to present a new idea or product.

Types of Presentations

•Presentations have a clear and realistic purpose.

•The purpose of your presentation indicates how you want to achieve the aim of your presentation.

•The purpose can be:

To describe, to instruct, to persuade, or to entertain.

Describe

•The aim of this type of presentations is usually to give information or to explain a situation.

•The content is often rather general or factual.

•When the speech is over, the audience should have knowledge that they did not have before they started listening.

Instruct

•The aim of this type of presentation is to teach the audience knowledge and skills.

•After the presentation, the listener should be able to do something he/she did not know how to do before.

Persuade

•This type of presentation aims at stimulating people to do something.

•After the presentation you want the listener to believe something he/she did not believe before he/she started listening.

Entertain

•This type of presentation aims at entertaining people.

•It mostly aims at making the audience feel happy, but there may be hidden goals—for example: revealing important truths.

•A crucial element in this type of presentation is humour.

The Structure of Presentation

•The elements of a good presentation are:

1.Introduction

2.Body

3.Conclusion

The Introduction

•In the introduction, you should make clear to the audience what you are going to talk about and why your presentation is worth listening to. Therefore, in the introduction should:

•1. Introduce yourself (if the audience does not know you).

•2. Provide impact; catch the attention of the audience.

•Sometimes, it is a good idea to start with an anecdote, an illustration, a question, a quotation, or a humorous remark.

The Introduction

•3. indicate the aim of the presentation. By explaining the aim of the presentation, you also indicate the relevance of it for the audience.

•4. Indicate the main topics of the presentation. Clarifying the structure of the presentation will help the audience to get a clear picture of what you are going to discuss.

The Body

•In the body, you discuss the main ideas of your presentation.

•The ideas should be supported by facts, illustrations, and/or claims.

•The topics discussed in the body should be organized in a logical way—for example:

>Chronological order: starting with the oldest event and ending with the most recent.

Spatial order: discussing one topic in different places. For example, unemployment in the East and West.

The Body

Cause and effect: describe cause and effect of something. This is especially suitable when you want to explain why something happened. For example: the causes of a disaster, the effects of a measure.

> Problems and solutions: offers a solution for a problem. For example: how a new product solves the problem of unremovable stains.

Sequential order (step by step): this order is related to chronological order. It explains the steps in a process.

The Body

General to specific: starts with a general picture then moves on to details. For example: a general overview of the company structure followed by an explanation of the function of the Sales Department.

>Specific to general: starts with details then moves to a more general context.

>Magnitude: starts with something small and familiar then moves on to something larger and less familiar.

The Body

•After you have decided on the order of the topics, you should make a framework in which you order the topics into main points and minor points.

The Conclusion

•In the conclusion, you should either summarize the main points of your presentation or put what you have said in a certain perspective.

•For example, you can end with your own opinion or somebody else's opinion (quotation).

•You should not add new facts to your presentation in the conclusion.

•After the summary or interpretation, you should thank the audience and end the presentation.

The Conclusion

•If there is a question-answer session, you should clarify that.

•A common mistake with conclusions is that the speaker gives a brief summary and then walks away, saying "that's it" or something similar. You should take time to finish your presentation. Use a phrase like "with this I would like to conclude my presentation."

Challenges of the Audience

- •People may be afraid of speaking to an audience.
- •Fears can be of two main types: fears about the audience, and fears about themselves.

•Fears about the audience:

- >They will interrupt the speaker which will confuse him/her
- They will ask difficult questions
- >They will see that the speaker is fearful
- >They will hear the speaker's mistakes

- >They will not understand what the speaker means
- >They will dislike the speaker

Challenges of the Audience

•Fears about the speakers themselves:

- >The speaker may think that he/she has failed before and probably will fail again
- >The speaker may think that he/she does not have the necessary skills
- >The speaker may think that he/she will make mistakes
- > The speaker may think that he/she will forget what he/she wants to say
- > The speaker may think that he/she will not be able to bring out a single word
- > The speaker may think that he/she will be very nervous

Challenges of the Audience

•These fears are very common and most speakers experience them.

•The audience will not notice your fears better than you were able to notice them in speakers you have listened to.

•The following points may help you overcome your fears:

1)War!

2)Stress

3)Rational

4)Black-out

War!

•Many speakers feel that the audience is the enemy and doing a presentation is like going to war.

•You should be aware that nearly always the audience is friendly and wants to help you rather than condemn you.

•They want you to succeed because they are aware of the difficulties of speaking in public.

Stress

•To some extent, stress is good. It guarantees that you are alert. That is why you feel stressed when you play complex computer games, for example. The trick is to control stress.

•Some advices:

•Accept your body's reactions as normal.

•Try to relax your boy; take some deep breathes.

•Move hands, arms, feet.

•If you feel extreme stress, realize that this must be what great people feel when they deliver a speech. Still, they look confident and calm.

Rational

•Be aware that many fears are not rational.

•An irrational fear is often a fear of fear itself.

•Try to break the vicious circle by rationalizing your emotions.

Black-out

•<u>A blackout</u> is a temporary condition that affects your memory. It's characterized by a sense of lost time.

•Many speakers experience a black-out to some extent. Some strategies to fight blackout:

1.Stop and admit that you had a black-out. Pause then think back to the point you discussed before the black-out and start again from there.

2.Look at the material you have: cards, notes, etc...

3.Ask the audience where you were.

4.Skip the point you were going to discuss and continue with the next point.

5. Make a joke about it.

6-Step Method

•This method can also help with diminishing your fears of speaking in public to an audience:

1)Face your fear and investigate the nature of it: is it realistic? What is its cause?

2)Focus on increasing your confidence.

3) Have a positive attitude. Consider errors as learning experiences.

4)Prepare thoroughly beforehand.

5)Imagine yourself succeeding.

6)Do not have the "wait and see" attitude. Take control over the situation by anticipating the things that can go wrong.

Ways to Improve Your Presentation Skills

•1. Practice:

•Naturally, you'll want to rehearse your presentation multiple times.

•Try to practice where you'll be delivering your talk.

•Some acting strategists suggest rehearsing lines in various positions –standing up, sitting down, etc. The more you mix up your position and setting, the more comfortable you'll feel with your speech.

•Do a practice run for a friend or colleague, or try recording your presentation and playing it back to evaluate which areas need work.

•Listening to recordings of your past talks can clue you in to bad habits you may be unaware of.

Ways to Improve Your Presentation Skills

•2. Transform Nervous Energy Into Enthusiasm:

•Studies have shown that an enthusiastic speech can win out over an eloquent one.

•Channel your stress into a state of enthusiasm.

•The more energetic you are while delivering your speech, the more interested your audience will be.

•3. Attend Other Presentations:

•If you're giving a talk as part of a conference, try to attend some of the earlier talks by other presenters to scope out their presentation skills and get some context.

•This shows respect for your fellow presenters while also giving you a chance to feel out the audience. What's the mood of the crowd? Is the audience in the mood to laugh or is it a bit more stiff?

Ways to Improve Your Presentation Skills

•4. Use Positive Visualization:

•When we imagine a positive outcome to a scenario in our mind, it's more likely to play out the way we envision.

•Instead of thinking "I'm going to be terrible out there" and visualizing yourself failing, imagine yourself getting tons of laughs while presenting with enthusiasm. Positive thoughts can be incredibly effective.

•5. Take Deep Breaths:

•When we're nervous, our muscles tighten--you may even catch yourself holding your breath. Instead, go ahead and take those deep breaths to get oxygen to your brain and relax your body.

Ways to Improve Your Presentation Skills

•6. Smile:

•Smiling increases endorphins, replacing anxiety with calm and making you feel good about your presentation.

•Smiling also exhibits confidence and enthusiasm to the crowd. And this tip works even if you're doing a webinar and people can't see you.

•7. Work on Your Pauses:

•When you're nervous, it's easy to speed up your presentation and end up talking too fast, which in turn causes you to run out of breath, get more nervous, and panic.

•Don't be afraid to slow down and use pauses in your speech. Pausing can be used to emphasize certain points and to help your talk feel more conversational. If you feel yourself losing control of your pacing, just take a nice pause and keep cool.

Ways to Improve Your Presentation Skills

•8. Actively Engage the Audience:

•People love to talk and make their opinions heard, but the nature of presentations can often seem like a one-sided proposition. It doesn't have to be, though.

•Asking the audience what they think, inviting questions, and other means of welcoming audience participation can boost engagement and make attendees feel like a part of a conversation.

•It also makes you, the presenter, seem much more relatable.

•Don't be put off by unexpected questions –instead, see them as an opportunity to give your audience what they want.

Ways to Improve Your Presentation Skills

•9. Admit You Don't Have All the Answers:

•Very few presenters are willing to publicly concede that they don't actually know everything because they feel it undermines their authority. However, since we all know that nobody can ever know everything about a given topic, admitting so in a presentation can actually improve your credibility.

•If someone asks a question that surprises you, it's okay to admit it. This can also increase your credibility with the audience, as it demonstrates that, no matter how knowledgeable a person might be, we're all learning, all the time. Nobody expects you to have answers for everything to start with.

Ways to Improve Your Presentation Skills

•10. Enhance your body language:

•Practicing confident body language is another way to boost your presentation skills.

•When your body is physically demonstrating confidence, your mind will follow suit.

•Quick tips for a strong body language for your presentation: Smile, don't slouch, assume a power pose, make use of the space, don't forget facial expressions, don't be afraid to gesture, maintain eye contact.

•11. Don't overrun your allocated time:

•In other words, don't outstay your welcome. Almost every speech or presentation is better if it is shorter.

•12. Use less text and more visuals in your presentation.



Lecture 4: Drills on Speaking and Listening

(1)

Last night Suzan had a long talk with her husband John, she told him that she was unhappy with the amount of time he was spending away from her and the children he looked guilty and agreed that it was excessive when she asked him why he was away so often he explained that he often found the house noisy and untidy and said he often felt like escaping for some peace. Suzan asked him how he expected children to be quiet and tidy all the time. He had to admit that it was almost asking for a miracle. When she suggested that the answer was actually to become more involved with them and take some responsibility for keeping the place tidy. John smiled and said he know he was no angel as for as tidiness was concerned. He promised to spend more time with them and told Suzan to sit down while he went and tidied living room and made her a drink.

(1)

1. Why was Suzan unhappy?

2. Why did her husband often runaway?

3. Was John an expert in tidiness?

4. What was that the answer Suzan suggested?

5. Do you think that the husbands are supposed to share the housework with their wives? Why? Why not?

6. Are children always noisy and untidy? What can the parents do about that?

7. Who is more important for bringing up children, the father or mother? Why?

(2) Why Worry?

There are two things to worry about in this life.

Either you are well, or you are ill.

If you are well, there is nothing to worry about.

If you are ill, there are two things to worry about.

Either you will live, or you will die.

If you live there's nothing to worry about.

If you die, there is there are two things to worry about.

Either you will go to heaven or you will go to Hell

If you go to heaven, there is nothing to worry about.

If you go to Hell you would be busy shaking hands with old friends, teachers, and bosses and there will be no time to worry.

(2) Why Worry?

1. What is the thing that is the most important for you? Is it always the same?

2. Do you agree with the ideas mentioned in the above text?

3. Is money more important than your health?

(3)

A man entered a restaurant. He ordered a chicken.

Man: I don't want this chicken because one leg is longer than the other.

Waiter: Have you come here to eat the chicken or to dance with it?

(3)

- 1. Do you like eating out? Why? Why not? What places do you usually go to?
- 2. Do you usually tip waiters? Why?
- 3. Do you usually criticize the food in restaurants or do you accept things as they are?

(4) Making a Doctor's Appointment

•Caller 1:Dr. Peterson's office. How may I help you?

•Caller 2:I'd like to make an appointment to see the doctor.

•Caller 1:Certainly, are you ill at the moment?

•Caller 2:Yes, I'm not feeling very well.

•Caller 1:Do you have a fever or any other symptoms?

•Caller 2:Yes, I have a slight fever and aches and pains.

•Caller 1:OK, Dr. Peterson can see you tomorrow. Can you come in the morning?

•Caller 2:Yes, tomorrow morning is fine.

(4) Making a Doctor's Appointment

•Caller 1:How about 10 o'clock?

•Caller 2:Yes, 10 o'clock is fine.

•Caller 1:May have your name?

•Caller 2:Yes, it's David Lain.

•Caller 1: Have you seen Dr. Peterson before?

•Caller 2:Yes, I had a physical exam last year.

•Caller 1:Yes, here you are. OK, I've scheduled for 10 o'clock tomorrow morning.

•Caller 2:Thank you.

•Caller 1:Drink plenty of warm fluids and get a good night's sleep.

•Caller 2:Thank you. I'll do my best. Goodbye.

•Caller 1:Goodbye.

(4) Making a Doctor's Appointment

•1. Why did David call the doctor's office?

•2. Is he ill or does he only want to do a checkup?

•3. What was the nurse's advice to David?

(5) World War II Bomb Found in London

Police have evacuated a number of streets in central London after an unexploded World War II bomb was discovered. The device was found near Soho's Dean Street by construction workers and police were called at 1:42 p.m. local time on Monday, the

Metropolitan Police said. Thousands of workers were told to leave their buildings and police expanded a cordon across a number of streets in the busy neighborhood. Dozens of police officers were limiting access to the area. Police are evacuating a large part of Soho after an unexploded WW2 bomb was found just off Dean Street. Cordon is being expanded and several streets are closed off. Dozens of police around and thousands of people being told to leave work. UmikaVerma, a public relations officer, told CNN the incident occurred by the Soho Hotel, opposite her office. "Police said to our receptionist that everyone has to get out," she said. "We came out of the office and were told to move. No time limit at all was given --it was just 'get out of the office' immediately. Within five minutes we all had to go." Soho is a lively part of the British capital, housing a number of businesses, restaurants and bars. Around two hours after the device was found, police were telling workers at several of the neighborhood's shops and offices to leave work and move away from the area. They also blocked off a number of streets not initially included in the cordoned-off zone.

- (5) World War II Bomb Found in London
- 1. Who found the bomb?
- 2. Who decided that people should evacuate the area?
- 3. How much time were people given to evacuate?

4. Do you think you have enough awareness to avoid being harmed by explosive ordnance?



Lecture 4: Language Variations

Slang Language

•No living language is simply one set of words which can be used the same way in all situations.

•The nature of language is such that there are in infinite variety of different ways to arrange its elements.

•What this means is that there are many ways to say the same thing, depending on where you are, who you are talking to and how you feel.

•It is easy to realize that you do not talk to a roommate the same way you talk to your roommate's mother.

•One of the main factors which determine which words and structures are appropriate is the degree of formality of the situation in which you are using the language.

Slang Language

•What is "slang?"

•Slang is a subset of a language used by one particular group.

•It consists of words and expressions which will not be found in the dictionary, and can be distortions of existing words or entirely invented terms.

•It is used in informal situations. It is not appropriate in formal situations.

•It is also a subcategory of language that is used by a group of people, like teenagers, for example.

•African-American people for example have also their slang language or their codes which belong to them in order to distinguish themselves as a group in the society as a whole.

•Slang used in informal situations in speech mostly more than in writing.

Slang Language

•Some slang words:

•Lit: When something is very good, enjoyable, or exciting, you can say it's "lit".

•Extra: When someone is "extra", it means they are unnecessarily dramatic, excessive, over the top or a "drama queen".

•**To ghost someone**: When you cut off communication with someone you're no longer interested in.

•To flex: Another way of saying someone is showing off.

•Tea: When someone is "spilling the tea", it means they are gossiping.

•Hangry: When you are so hungry that you are angry.

•Squad: a group of friends.

Who Uses Slang?

•Slang is used by all kinds of groups of people who share situations of interests.

•The group which uses these words is always in the minority. And often use slang to set themselves apart or make it difficult for ordinary people to understand them.

•An example of minority is African-American people.

•When a particular expression is known and used by a large majority of the population, it is no longer slang, but part of the large regular language or usage.

•Slang and informal English are not the same. Some slang can be used in formal situations, and some of the words that can only be used in formal situation are not slang.

Who Uses Slang?

•Example: the word "crestfallen." It means sad and disappointed. This word is used now in formal situation. It's a very old term and it was used first among people as slang, but this word is actually used now in formal situation, so this is how slang words after being used for a long time turn into formal.

•"Try" is an informal term and "endeavor" is formal, so "try" isn't slang but informal.

Why Does Slang Exist?

•Slang fulfills at least two different functions, depending on whose point of view you take. For the groups that use slang, it is a way to set themselves apart, to express themselves in a distinct and individual way, and sometime to keep secrets form being known by others.

•But for the society in general, and the development of language, slang is like a linguistic laboratory, where new words and forms can be tested out, applied to a variety of situations, and than either abandoned or incorporated into the regular language.

•It is like a trail period for new words. If they allow people to say something that cannot be said using traditional language, and a majority of people accept them, then these words and expressions join their regular language.

Why Does Slang Exist?

•The aim of using slang is seldom the exchange of information. More often, slang serves social purposes:

A.to identify members of a group,

B.to change the level of discourse in the direction of informality,

C.to oppose established authority.

•Sharing and maintaining a constantly changing slang vocabulary aids group solidarity and serves to include and exclude members.

•Slang is the linguistic equivalent of fashion and serves much the same purpose. Like stylish clothing and modes of popular entertainment, effective slang must be new, appealing, and able to gain acceptance in a group quickly. Nothing is more damaging to status in the group than using old slang.

Why Does Slang Exist?

•Counterculture or counter-establishment groups often find a common vocabulary unknown outside the group a useful way to keep information secret or mysterious.

•Slang is typically cultivated among people in society who have little real political power (like adolescents, college students, and enlisted personnel in the military) or who have reason to hide from people in authority what they know or do (like gamblers, drug addicts, and prisoners).

Jargon

•Every profession has its own terminology, but it is only meant to be used with people who are able to understand it.

•The use of jargon can be frustrating for those on the outside. Yet, the impulse to have an in-group way of communicating is obviously a strong one, which is why business jargon is always being developed and copied, despite being mocked or despised.

•Examples: The following expressions are often used in the world of commerce and finance:

•**Opportunity cost** = The value of something that will be lost by taking an alternative action.

•**Drill down** = Look in detail.

•Amortise= Gradually reduce the cost of an asset in the company's account.

•Footfall= Measure of the number of people who visit a venue or retail outlet.

Jargon

•'Slang' and 'jargon' are terms often used interchangeably because they are both sociolects. In other words, they are both varieties of language used by a particular social group or class.

•However, while **jargon**(written or spoken) tends to be terminology associated with certain professions or social activities, **slang** is more commonly associated with the spoken language, and with social groups whose values and practices differ from, and sometimes antagonize, those of the majority or dominant group in their society. The values, beliefs and practices of such minority/non-dominant groups are sometimes referred to as 'subcultures'.

•When specialists talk about their field they may tend to use technical language that can only be understood by other specialists. Being aware of your audience's background and adapting your language accordingly is an important communication skill.

Jargon

•The reasons for using words that outsiders may not understand are not necessarily related to a need to keep people in the dark or to assert group identity. In most areas of human activity, the use of specialist vocabulary may be needed in order to refer to specific concepts that everyday language would not be able to express as concisely or accurately. Many professions have developed their own specialist terminology.

•A professional with good communication skills is aware of the appropriate register to use with each target audience, and adjusts the amount of specialist terminology accordingly.

Dialect

•A dialect is variation in grammar and vocabulary in addition to sound variations.

•For example, if one person utters the sentence 'John is a farmer' and another says the same thing except pronounces the word farmer as 'fahmuh,' then the difference is one of **accent**.

•But if one person says something like 'You should not do that' and another says 'Yahadn't oughtado that,' then this is a dialect difference because the variation is greater.

•The extent of dialect differences is a continuum. Some dialects are extremely different and others less so.

•So, it is a regional variety of language distinguished by features of **vocabulary**, **grammar**, and **pronunciation** from other regional varieties and constituting together with them a single language.

Dialect

•The term is applied most often to regional speech patterns, but a dialect may also be defined by other factors, such as **social class** or **ethnicity**. A dialect that is associated with a particular social class can be termed a **sociolect**, a dialect that is associated with a particular ethnic group can be termed an **ethnolect**, and a geographical/regional dialect may be termed a **regiolect**.

•According to this definition, any variety of a given language can be classified as "a dialect", including any standardized varieties.

•In this case, the distinction between the "standard language" (i.e. the "standard" dialect of a particular language) and the "nonstandard" (vernacular) dialects of the same language is often arbitrary and based on social, political, cultural, or historical considerations or prevalence and prominence.

•Features that distinguish dialects from each other can be found in **lexicon**(vocabulary) and **grammar**, as well as in **pronunciation**.

Dialect

•Where the salient distinctions are only or mostly to be observed in pronunciation, the more specific term **accent**may be used instead of dialect.

•"Accents have to be distinguished from dialects. An accent is a person's distinctive pronunciation. A dialect is a much broader notion: it refers to the distinctive vocabulary and grammar of someone's use of language. If you say eetherand I say iyther, that's accent. We use the same word but pronounce it differently. But if you say I've got a new dustbin and I say I've gotten a new garbage can, that's dialect.

•Dialects do not always correspond with a standard written system this is the case for most spoken dialects. For example, spoken dialects of the Arabic Language do not have their own writing system that is distinguishable from other dialects.

•However, these dialects are not always mutually intelligible from one another. For example, speakers of the Levantine Dialect of Arabic may have trouble understanding speakers of the Egyptian Dialect. This leads to some debate among scholars of the status of Arabic dialects as their own regionalectsor their own separate languages.

•<u>Idiolect</u> is an individual's distinctive and unique use of language, including speech. This unique usage encompasses vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation.

•An idiolect is the variety of language unique to an individual. This differs from a *dialect*, a common set of linguistic characteristics shared among some group of people.

•The term is etymologically related to the Greek prefix **idio**-(meaning "own, personal, private, peculiar, separate, distinct") and **-lect**, abstracted from dialect (meaning "I speak" in Greek).

•Idiolect reflects how every individual uniquely utilizes the many different facets of language to create their own individual way of speaking. Every person has a unique idiolect depending on their language, socioeconomic status, and geographical location.

•So, An idiolect is the distinctive speech of an individual, a linguistic pattern regarded as unique among speakers of a person's language or dialect. But it is even narrower than just all the speakers of a particular dialect.

Idiolect

•Your idiolect includes the vocabulary appropriate to your various interests and activities, pronunciations reflective of the region in which you live or have lived, and variable styles of speaking that shift subtly depending on whom you are addressing.

•To illustrate just how individual an idiolect can be, take this dialogue from Tomin a show called "Parks and Recreation," where he explains his own personal "slanguage":

•"Zertsare what I call desserts. Tray-trays are entrees. I call sandwiches sammies, sandoozles, or Adam Sandlers. Air conditioners are cool blasterz, with a z. I don't know where that came from."

•So, idiolect is like a micro-dialect.

•So, a man living in Manchester will likely speak the Manchester dialect, but he may have certain ways of saying things that are unique to him (or at least not regarded as specific features of the dialect he speaks).

Diglossia

•Diglossia is a situation in which two distinct varieties of a language are spoken within the same speech community.

•Bilingual diglossia is a type of diglossia in which one language variety is used for writing and another for speech.

•When people are **bidialectal**, they can use two dialects of the same language, based on their surroundings or different contexts where they use one or the other language variety.

•Examples include the differences between standard and Egyptian Arabic.

•In the classic diglossic situation, two varieties of a language, such as standard Arabic and EgyptionArabic, exist alongside each other in a single society. Each variety has its own fixed functions—one a 'high,' prestigious variety, and one a 'low,' or colloquial, one.

Diglossia

•Children learn the low variety as a native language; in diglossiccultures, it is the language of home, the family, the streets and marketplaces, friendship, and solidarity. By contrast, the high variety is spoken by few or none as a first language. It must be taught in school. The high variety is used for public speaking, formal lectures and higher education, television broadcasts, sermons, liturgies, and writing. (Often the low variety has no written form)



Lecture 6 Situational Dialogues

•A dialogue is a conversation between two people and when we say this dialogue is a situational one, this means that it depends on the place, the situation between addressor and addressee.

•At a bank

I.

1st PersonI'd	like to change these Euros please.
2nd Person	How do you want it?
1st Person	It's all the same to me.
2nd Person	Did you want anything else?
1st Person	Yes, I'd like to open a deposit account.

Situational Dialogues

II.

1st Person	A new cheque book and these dollars into sterling, please.
2nd Person	How did you want it?
1st Person	The biggest you have, please.
2nd Person	Do you want anything else?
1st Person	Yes, I'd like to know the rate for Japanese yen.

Situational Dialogues

Booking airline ticket

I.

A Man	I want to fly to Geneva on or about the first.
A Woman	I'll just see what there is.
A Man	I want to go economy and I'd prefer the morning.
A Woman	Lufthansa Flight LH 203 leaves at 9.20.
A Man	What time do I have to be there?
A Woman	The coach leaves for the airport at 8.15.

Situational Dialogues

II.

A Man	What flights are there from London to Vienna tomorrow?
A Woman	If you'd like to take a seat, I'll find out for you.
A Man	I'd like to travel first class, please.
A Woman direct.	BEA flight BE 502 takes off from Heathrow at 9.25 and flies
A Man	What time have I got to get there?
A Woman latest.	You'll have to be at West London Air Terminal by 8.10 at the

Situational Dialogues

Coffee Bar

I.

1st Person	What would you like to drink?
2nd Person	A black coffee for me please.
1st Person	How about something to eat?
2nd Person	Yes, I'd love a portion of that strawberry tart.
1st Person	Right. I'll see if I can catch the waitress's eye.

Situational Dialogues

At a Hotel

I.

1st Person	I wonder whether you have any vacancies for tonight.
2nd Person	Yes, I can offer you Room 24 on the first floor.
1st Person	How much is it?
2nd Person	£27.50 a night excluding service.
1st Person	Can I see it, please?

2nd Person

Certainly. Would you take a seat for a moment?

Situational Dialogues

At a Railway Station

I.

1st Person	Which platform for London Bridge, please?
2nd Person	9.27 from Platform 1.
1st Person	What time does it arrive?
2nd Person	It takes roughly two hours. So, you'll arrive just before 11.30.
1st Person	Is it necessary to change?
2nd Person	No, there's no need to change.

Situational Dialogues

At a Theatre

I.

1st Person	I'd like to book two seats for tomorrow.
2nd Person	Would you like something in the front stalls?
1st Person	I suppose there is nothing further back, is there?
2nd Person	Not unless you come to the matinee.

Situational Dialogues

Police Registration

I.

1st Person	I've come along to register with you.
2nd Person	Has your passport been up to the Home Office
1st Person	Yes, they granted me three months
2nd Person	I'd like your address in this country, please.
II.	

1st Person	I was told to report to the Aliens' Officer.
2nd Person	Has your permission to stay been extended
1st Person	Yes, I'm all right until July.
2nd Person	I shall have to see your work permit as well, please.

Situational Dialogues

At a Chemist Shop

I.

1st Person	The doctor's given me this prescription.
2nd Person	It'll only take five minutes, so perhaps you'll wait.
1st Person	Have you got something suitable for sore lips?
2ndPerson	Rub in this cream every four hours.
II.	
1st Person	Could you make up this prescription for me, please?
2nd Person	I'll do it for you straight away.
1st Person	By the way, what do you suggest for sunburn?
2ndPerson	This ointment should clear up the trouble.

Situational Dialogues

Complaining

I.	
1st Person	I wish you wouldn't have your TV so loud.
2nd Person	Sorry! Were you trying to sleep?
1st Person	Yes, and while I think of it, please ask when you borrow the iron.
2nd Person	I really ought to have known better. Sorry!
II.	
1st Person	Do you have to have that music on quite so loud?
2nd Person	Sorry! Is it bothering you?

1st Person asking.	Yes, and while I'm about it, please don't use the phone without
2nd Person	So sorry! I meant to ask you, but you were out.

Ask If, Ask To, or Tell To

•Report the following short dialogues using ask if, ask to, or tell to:

1. "Would you mind if I open the window?" The boy said to the teacher:

The Boy <u>asked the teacher if</u> he could open the window.

2. "Make sure that you look in the mirror before turning right" the driver instructor said to me: The driver instructor <u>told me</u> to make sure to look in the mirror before turning right.

3. "Please do not tell anyone the new, because I want to keep it a secret" Janet said to her sister:

Janet asked her sister not to tell anyone the news because she wants to keep it a secret.

Ask If, Ask To, or Tell To

4."Don't drive so fast" said Henry to his wife:

Henry told his wife not to drive so fast.

5." Would It be all right for me to come to work a little late tomorrow?" she asked her boss:

she asked her boss if it would be all right if she comes to work late the next day.

6."Is it Ok if I borrow your tennis racket?" Michael asked Graham:

Michael <u>asked Graham if</u> it was Ok to borrow his tennis racket.

Ask If, Ask To, or Tell To

7. "Do you think you could turn the music down a little?" Tim said to his son:

Tim <u>asked his son to</u> turn the music down.

8. "Would it be Ok for me to use the phone to call my parents?" He said to Mrs. Robinson:

He <u>asked to Mrs. Robinson if</u> it Would be Okay to use her phone to call his parents.

Parts of Conversations

•When making new friends, there are usually three parts to the conversation you will have with your new friend.

•The first is **greeting**. In this part, you and your new friend will greet each other and tell each other your names.

•The second part is the **conversation**. Sometimes the conversation is **small talk**. "Small talk" is American slang term. It means that the conversation is about matters that are not very customary to give information about your family, your work, your new friend.

•The third part of the conversation is the leave-taking. In this part, you end the conversation.

Greetings

Formal:

•Good Morning / Good Afternoon / Good Evening

•How do you do?

•Nice to meet you / Pleased to meet you

•How have you been?

Informal:

•Hello / Hi / Hey

•Morning / Afternoon / Evening

•How are you doing? / How's it going?

•Long-time no see / It's been a while

•What's up?

Small talk

- •Talking about the weather
- •Talking about current events

Sports

Entertainment

•Asking someone about their day, or you can talk about yours

•Common Interests

Leave-taking

Informal:

•It was nice talking to you.

•We should really hang out again.

•I'll call you later.

•See you later.

•I enjoyed talking to you.

Formal:

•Goodbye.

•Sorry, I have to go now.

•I think I must go now.

•Let's hope we meet again soon.

Prepositions: in, from, at, on, to

<u>In</u>:

•(TIME):

•months / seasons	•in August / in winter
•time of day	•in the morning
•year	•in 2006
•after a certain period of time(when?)	•in an hour

•(PLACE "POSITION AND DIRECTION"):

•room, building, street, town, country	•in the kitchen, in London		
•book, paper etc.	•in the book		
∙car, taxi	 in the car, in a taxi 		
•picture, world	 in the picture, in the world 		
From:			
•in the sense of <i>where from</i>	•a flower from the garden		
At:			
•(TIME):			
•fornight	•at night		
 forweekend 	•at the weekend		
a certain point of time(when?)	•at half past nine		
•(PLACE "POSITION AND DIRECTION"):			
•meaningnext to, by an object	•at the door, at the station		
•fortable	•at the table		
•for events	at a concert, at the party		
 place where you are to do something ty (watch a film, study, work) 	•at the cinema, at school, at work		

On:

•(TIME):

•days of the week

•on Monday

•(PLACE "POSITION AND DIRECTION"):

•attached	•the picture 动作的 the wall
•for a place with a river	•London lies ປາການອາກາໄສຄາຍາ .the Thames.
 being on a surface 	•on the table on the table
•for a certain side (left, right)	•on the left •on the left
•for a floor in a house	•on the first floothe first floor
•for public transport	•on the bus, conationables, on a plane
•for television, radio	•on TV, on the radio • on TV, on the radio

TO:

•(TIME):

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•(PLACE "POSITION AND DIRECTION"):
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•Telling the time

•ten to six (5:50)

•(PLACE "POSITION AND DIRECTION"):	
 movement to person or building 	•go to the cinema
 movement to a place or country 	•go to London/ Ireland
•for bed	•go to bed

•A: Excuse me can you tell me where the hospital is?

B: yes, go to the next street and at the traffic light turn right.

It is the first white building on your left.

A: Thank you.

•A: How can I help you sir?

B: I need to know where the manager's office is?

A: His office is on the second floor, take the elevator to he second floor and you will see it.

B: Thanks.

•A: Okay, where can I meet you?

B: I will wait for you atthe door to Ikea in city center.

A: Great, I'll see you at5:00.

B: Okay.

•A: where's Mahatoday?

B: She's ather sister's house inHamriya.

A: Okay, I'll call her later

•A: Excuse me, teacher. I need to go tohospital tomorrow.

B: Okay, Ahmed, but you need to read pages 56-57 in your book because you will miss the class.

•A: Where are you from?

B: I am fromSyria.

A: Oh, really. My uncle has a flat in Damascus.

•A: What are the names of the Bridges inDubai?

B: There are two bridges: the GarhoudBridge and the Maktoum Bridge.

Lecture 7 Tongue Twisters

•What is a tongue twister?

•A sequence of words or sounds, typically of an alliterative kind, that are difficult to pronounce quickly and correctly, as, for example, **tie twine to three tree twigs**.

•They are used to get rid of an accent, improve fluency in English, or just for fun.

•They are usually read aloud.

•The meaning of those tongue twisters is not important. Students are not expected, nor asked, to know the meanings of them. Their purpose is to practice speaking and to reach a certain level of fluency.

Tongue Twisters

•Some examples:

•How much wood would a woodchuck chuck if a woodchuck could chuck wood?

•Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers. How many pickled peppers did Peter Piper pick?

•Can you can a can as a canner can can a can?

Alliteration

•What is Alliteration?

•It is the repetition of usually initial consonant sounds in two or more neighboring words or syllables (such as **wild** and **woolly**).

•The repeated sounds are usually the first, or initial, sounds—as in "seven sisters"—but repetition of sounds in non-initial stressed, or accented, syllables is also common: "appear and report."

•Alliteration is a common feature in poetry, but it is also found in songs and raps and speeches and other kinds of writing, as well as in frequently used phrases, such as "pretty as a picture" and "dead as a doornail."

Alliteration

- •Other examples:
- •"And the silken sad uncertain rustling of each purple curtain." –Poe
- •"The fair breeze blew, the white foam flew/ The furrow followed free." -Coleridge
- •"I have stood still and stopped the sound of feet." –Frost

Malapropism

•A malapropism is the mistaken use of an incorrect word in place of a word with a similar sound, resulting in a nonsensical, sometimes humorous utterance.

•For example, "dance a flamingo" (instead of flamenco).

•Malapropisms do not occur only as (intentional) comedic literary devices. They also occur as a kind of speech error in ordinary speech.

•In his essay "A Nice Derangement of Epitaphs", philosopher Donald Davidson suggests that malapropisms reveal something about how people process the meanings of words. He argues that language competence must not simply involve learning a set meaning for each word, and then rigidly applying those semantic rules to decode other people's utterances. Rather, he says, people must also be continually making use of other contextual information to interpret the meaning of utterances, and then modifying their understanding of each word's meaning based on those interpretations.

Malapropism

•Examples:

•Mrs. Malaprop said, "Illiterate him quite from your memory" (obliterate) and "She's as headstrong as an allegory" (alligator).

•Unfortunately, my affluence over my niece is very small. (influence)

•Good punctuation means not to be late. (punctuality)

Bilingualism

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

•Bilingualism, multilingualism and polyglotism can all be used as synonyms for the same phenomenon.

•Simultaneous acquisition occurs when, for example, a child learns several languages simultaneously within its social environment (also called **Compound bilingual**).

•Successive acquisition means that different languages are learned at different stages during different phases of life. It is also called **Coordinate bilingual** when the two languages are equally used / important or **Subordinate bilingual** when one language (usually the Mother/Native tongue) dominates the daily life.

Bilingualism

•Natural acquisition means that a language is learned without formal instruction.

•Guided acquisition means that the knowledge of a language is acquired by means of instructions (e.g., learning at school).

•Symmetric acquisition means that several languages are equally mastered with a similar proficiency.

•Asymmetric acquisition means that one language dominates the other.

•A specific bilingual person is not necessarily "completely" coordinated, compound or subordinate. Indeed, a bilingual can be coordinated for certain parts of the linguistic system, at the level of syntax and semantics, for example, but subordinate to the phonological level. He can have a strong accent in his 2ndlanguage, while having impeccable syntax and a rich lexicon.

Bilingualism

•Thus, an ideal coordinated bilingual would have two completely separate linguistic systems and there would never be a mix of languages at any level.

•It should also be noted that the organization of the linguistic system and thus the state of bilingualism of a person can change depending on his or her experiences during life.

•The **mother tongue**, **L1**, or first language all refer to the language first learned by a child during development. It is the language of communication used with the child before it learns to speak. In child development, language acquisition extends generally from 0 to 3 years. A language learned after the age of 12 is regarded as a **second language designated L2**.

Bilingualism

•In the bilingual "first language acquisition" ("natural" simultaneous learning of two languages), there are different constellations.

1)A family language (L1), an environment language (L2) (kindergarten, outside world).

2)Mixed-languages families A (father speaks L1, mother speaks L2, the environment speaks L1 or L2).

3)Mixed-languages families B (father speaks L1, mother speaks L2) in a different-language environment (L3).

Pidgins

•A grammatically simplified form of a language, used for communication between people not sharing a common language.

•Pidgins have a limited vocabulary, some elements of which are taken from local languages, and are not native languages, but arise out of language contact between speakers of other languages.

•It is most commonly employed in situations such as trade, or where both groups speak languages different from the language of the country in which they reside (but where there is no common language between the groups).

•A pidgin is not the native language of any speech community, but is instead learned as a second language.

Pidgins

•A pidgin may be built from words, sounds, or body language from a multitude of languages as well as onomatopoeia.

•Onomatopoeia is the process of creating a word that phonetically imitates, resembles, or suggests the sound that it describes. Such a word itself is also called an onomatopoeia. Examples: hiss, mew, moo.

•Pidgins have historically been considered a form of **patois**, unsophisticated simplified versions of their lexifiers, and as such usually have *low prestige* with respect to other languages.

•However, not all simplified or "unsophisticated" forms of a language are pidgins. Each pidgin has its own norms of usage which must be learned for proficiency in the pidgin.

Creole

•Pidgins generally consist of small vocabularies (Chinese Pidgin English has only 700 words), but some have grown to become a group's native language. When this happens, the pidgin becomes a creole.

•A creole language, or simply creole, is a stable natural language that develops from the simplifying and mixing of different languages into a new one within a fairly brief period of time: often, a pidgin evolved into a full-fledged language.

•Creoles are often characterized by a tendency to systematize their inherited grammar.

•Like any language, creoles are characterized by *a consistent system of grammar, possess large stable vocabularies, and are acquired by children as their native language*. These three features distinguish a creole language from a pidgin.

Creole

•About one hundred creole languages have arisen since 1500. These are predominantly based on European languages such as English and French due to the European Age of Discovery and the Atlantic slave trade that arose at that time.

•With the improvements in ship-building and navigation, traders had to learn to communicate with people around the world, and the quickest way to do this was to develop a pidgin, or

simplified language suited to the purpose; in turn, full creole languages developed from these pidgins.

•The base or essential vocabulary of a creole language is largely supplied by **the parent languages**, particularly that of the most dominant group in the social context of the creole's construction. However, there are often clear phonetic and semantic shifts. On the other hand, the grammar that has evolved often has new or unique features that differ substantially from those of the parent languages.



Lecture 8: Sociolinguistics

What is Sociolinguistics?

•Sociolinguistics is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and society's effect on language.

•It differs from <u>sociology of language</u>, which focuses on the effect of language on society.

•Sociolinguistics' historical interrelation with <u>anthropology</u> can be observed in studies of how language varieties differ between groups separated by <u>social variables</u> (e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc.) and/or <u>physical variables</u> (a mountain range, a desert, a river, etc.).

•Such studies also examine how such differences in usage and differences in beliefs about usage produce and reflect social or socioeconomic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place, language usage also varies among social classes, and it is these sociolects that sociolinguistics studies.

Speech community

•Speech community is a concept in sociolinguistics that describes a distinct group of people who use language in a unique and mutually accepted way among themselves.

•To be considered part of a speech community, one must have a <u>communicative</u> <u>competence</u>. That is, the speaker has the ability to use language in a way that is appropriate in the given situation. It is possible for a speaker to be communicatively competent in more than one language.

•Speech communities can be members of a profession with a specialized jargon, distinct social groups like high school students or hip-hop fans, or even tight-knit groups like families and friends. Members of speech communities will often develop slang or jargon to serve the group's special purposes and priorities.

Speech community

•There are several different types of age-based variation one may see within a population. They are vernacular of a subgroup with membership typically characterized by a specific age range, age-graded variation, and indications of linguistic change in progress.

•Variation may also be associated with gender. Men and women, on average, tend to use slightly different language styles.

High Prestige and Low Prestige Varieties

•Crucial to sociolinguistic analysis is the concept of <u>prestige</u>; certain speech habits are assigned a positive or a negative value, which is then applied to the speaker.

•Prestige varieties are language or dialect families which are generally considered by a society to be the most "correct" or otherwise superior. In many cases, they are the standard form of the language.

•It is generally assumed that non-standard language is low-prestige language. However, in certain groups, such as traditional working-class neighborhoods, standard language may be considered undesirable in many contexts. This is because the working class dialect is generally considered a powerful in-group marker, and especially for non-mobile individuals, the use of non-standard varieties (even exaggeratedly so) expresses neighborhood pride and group and class solidarity.

Social network

•Understanding language in society means that one also has to understand the social networks in which language is embedded.

•A social network is another way of describing a particular speech community in terms of relations between individual members in a community.

•A network could be <u>loose</u> or <u>tight</u> depending on how members interact with each other. For instance, an office or factory may be considered a tight community because all members interact with each other. A large course with 100+ students would be a looser community because students may only interact with the instructor and maybe 1–2 other students.

•The looseness or tightness of a social network may affect speech patterns adopted by a speaker.

•A social network may apply to the macro level of a country or a city, but also to the interpersonal level of neighborhoods or a single family. Recently, social networks have been formed by the Internet, through chat rooms, Facebook groups, organizations, and online dating services.

Differences According to Class

•Sociolinguistics as a field distinct from <u>dialectology</u> was pioneered through the study of language variation in urban areas.

•Whereas dialectology studies the geographic distribution of language variation, sociolinguistics focuses on other sources of variation, among them class. Class and occupation are among the most important linguistic markers found in society.

•One of the fundamental findings of sociolinguistics, which has been hard to disprove, is that class and language variety are related.

•Members of the working class tend to speak less standard language, while the lower, middle, and upper middle class will, in turn, speak closer to the standard. However, the upper class, even members of the upper middle class, may often speak 'less' standard than the middle class. This is because not only class but **class aspirations**, are important.

Class Aspiration

•Studies have shown that social aspirations influence speech patterns. This is also true of class aspirations.

•In the process of wishing to be associated with a certain class (usually the upper class and upper middle class) people who are moving in that direction socio-economically may adjust their speech patterns to sound like them. However, not being native upper-class speakers, they often *hypercorrect*, which involves overcorrecting their speech to the point of introducing new errors. The same is true for individuals moving down in socioeconomic status.

•In any contact situation, there is a **power dynamic**, be it a teacher-student or employeecustomer situation, this power dynamic results in a hierarchical differentiation between

CHALLENGES ARE WHAT MAKE LIFE INTERESTING. OVERCOMING THEM IS WHAT MAKES LIFE MEANINGFUL. -JOSHUA J. MARINE