SPOKEN ENGLISH

Raju Govindrao Munghate
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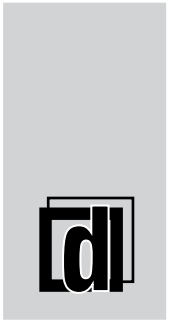

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Knowledge is Our Business

SPOKEN ENGLISH
By Raju Govindrao Munghate, Sonia Jayant

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CONTENTS

Chapter 1. Vital Role of Vocabulary Knowledge for Second Language Learners 1
— *Sonia Jayant*

Chapter 2. Comparing Methods: Analyzing Written and Spoken Grammar 9
— *Indu Tripathi*

Chapter 3. Investigating Speaking Frequency Dynamics in Grammatical Function 16
— *Zareen Usmani Farooq*

Chapter 4. Language and Written Forms: Examining the Unity and Complexity of English Grammar 23
— *Kanchan Gupta*

Chapter 5. Lexical Requirements for Understanding Academic Spoken English 31
— *Anuradha Pawar*

Chapter 6. Understanding Academic Spoken English: Variability in Vocabulary Requirements 41
— *Neha Anand*

Chapter 7. Conjunction in Speak English: A Review 47
— *Sonia Jayant*

Chapter 8. Corpora's Changing Role: English Language Pedagogy and Authority 56
— *Indu Tripathi*

Chapter 9. Fostering Spoken English Proficiency through Individual Accountability in Cooperative Learning. 64
— *Zareen Usmani Farooq*

Chapter 10. Comparing the Use of English in Cooperative Learning: Traditional Group Work in EFL Classes 71
— *Kanchan Gupta*

Chapter 11. Symbols and Typographic Standards: Visual Communication and Design Guidelines 80
— *Anuradha Pawar*

Chapter 12. Importance of Phonology and Phonemic Awareness in Language Learning 88
— *Neha Anand*

CHAPTER 1

VITAL ROLE OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE FOR SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT:

The use of extensive, all-encompassing, and diverse corpora of the language, including corpora of spoken dialogue, has recently helped progress research on spoken English grammar. As a result of the availability of such corpora, a growing body of research has emerged, most of it highlighting the need for novel conceptions of spoken grammar to replace the prevailing dependence on grammatical models that are focused on written language. I give reasons supporting the idea that spoken and written language use the same underlying grammatical repertoire, despite the fact that their implementations of it may vary, despite the fact that such research tends to emphasize the necessity for a new descriptive apparatus for the language of speech. It demonstrates how corpus studies have spawned new ideas about spoken language, concentrating on elements like loose, the sentence's inappropriateness for the examination of spoken grammar; the comparatively unintegrated structure with a wide-ranging usage of independent, non-clausal units; the simplicity of phrase structure the consistent employment of a small set of lexigrams; Grammatical characteristics that represent interaction and online use restrictions on processing. However, this article issues a warning. against the risk of presuming that spoken grammars There are vast differences between spoken and written English One may argue that each of the given characteristics a perspective that there is compatible with in through above Speech and writing are both based on the same grammar, however that speech has a propensity for being too simple, poorly integrated, and disjointed. construction, which provides grammatical structure with less significant part than writing does in the process of communication as a whole.

KEYWORDS:

Academic, Corpus Research, Reading Comprehension, Speaking, Word List, Vocabulary Frequency.

INTRODUCTION

One of the biggest obstacles for second language learners in English-medium universities is understanding academic spoken English, such as in lectures or seminars. One of the main causes of these students' poor understanding of academic spoken English is a lack of vocabulary knowledge. According to research, language proficiency is a crucial component of effective listening comprehension Examining the vocabulary size required to understand academic spoken English is crucial for aiding students in improving their understanding of it. The most efficient strategy for L2 students to increase their understanding of academic written content. However, because to a lack of study on the subject, it is unclear if the AWL can enhance understanding of academic spoken language to the same degree as it enhances understanding of academic written

literature The purpose of this research is to estimate the AWL's coverage in academic spoken English as well as the vocabulary size required to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of academic spoken English both with and without the AWL. This allows the current study to suggest a vocabulary objective for English for Academic Purposes courses that, when met, may enable students to comprehend academic spoken English. This research could show how useful the AWL is for enhancing spoken academic English comprehension.

Convergences: The Rise of Spoken English Grammar in Popular Culture

There has been a considerable convergence of interests in the spoken language field during the last 20 years, which has increased knowledge of spoken language's properties and, in particular, its grammar. It is hardly necessary to remark on the rising importance of oracy in language teaching or on the strength and impact of spoken media in general. However, it is necessary to highlight the enormous expansion of the usage and accessibility to electronic text corpora, or the corpus revolution. This revolution has made it possible to perform in-depth quantitative and qualitative studies of spoken language's heretofore evasive characteristics [1]. It has provided a chance to examine comprehensively and in-depth the grammatical traits of spoken language for the first time. As a result, fresh perspectives, new examples, and new knowledge of spoken language's grammar are emerging at a time when there seems to be a special need for them.

The current study makes an effort to be both informative and provocative by identifying contentious areas of disagreement and by providing background information on this key area of intellectual progress. Why do I focus on grammar more so than on other language levels There are converging factors once again. Grammar has long been intimately linked to writing in the academic tradition1, and this connection has been strengthened by a pedagogical tradition that has prioritized grammatical awareness in the development of writing abilities. The availability of spoken corpora, some of which include tagging and parsing as built-in grammatical analysis, motivates us to reevaluate and question this written grammar legacy. However, it's also important to consider the restrictions of electronic corpora and the possibilities they provide. First, there has been a delay in the production of spoken corpus materials the early English computer corpora, such the Brown corpus of written materials were unavoidably created between 1961 and 1964 various examples of text. Later beginning in the middle of the 1970s, when Speaking language corpora have grown in both amount and variety. things remained primarily orthographic in nature transcriptions. In actuality, the vastly expanded amount of spoken Today's linguistic corpora has tended to strengthen the link very massive spoken corpora like COBUILD's and the British National Corpus, which was created largely to better It was necessary to swiftly and accurately transcribing English language at minimal unit cost, i.e., an orthographic transcription that is straightforward [2].

This has had the effect of making grammar, in addition to One of the few domains of language that may be more or less generalized is lexis using such orthographically transcribed corpora, effectively examined. Prosodic analysis and several discourse components for instance, analysis cannot be researched with such basic In the lack of precise and comprehensive phonological, contextual, and turn-taking information, transcriptions are used. So, even at a time when a has been made possible by the availability of machine-readable corpora a significant gain in understanding of the spoken language in our However, the oral medium is still subject to the restrictions and

impact of the written language [3]. However, in the study of spoken language, there has also a significant cultural gap between the rapidly rising Discourse analysis DA traditions associated with sociolinguistics and corpus linguistics CL and conversation analysis CA, both of which mainly depend on speech transcription.

These customs have a varied in a variety of ways In contrast to DA, which places a high value on the accuracy of each recorded and transcribed text, CL prefers to compile representative samples of the language4 or of other genres without demanding that these be whole texts. For DA, the data collector, transcriber, and user-analyst are often the same individual, whereas for CL, they are typically distinct persons perhaps located far apart in time and space. Unlike DA, which makes its data exceptionally accessible to users, CL makes its data as broadly accessible to consumers via electronic media as feasible. DA has a propensity to see data as the property of a particular transcriber, not out of self-interest but rather because of the belief that only the collector transcriber possesses the level of in-depth expertise required for a thorough grasp of the data. As opposed to DA, which has a history of computationally relying on qualitative analytic software like Nudist and ATLAS. The use of search engines like Word Cruncher and WordSmith6 that can find, show, and count all occurrences of words, phrases, or any other phenomena that can be formally identified in texts is prevalent in CL since it tends to foster the abstraction of data from larger contexts. DA has a propensity to emphasize nongrammatical features of the spoken record while downplaying other, often interactional components of discourse turn-taking, repairs, discourse markers, etc [4].

As crucial to the orthographic representation of speech. Contrarily, CL makes use of resources like concordances and grammatical taggers to offer numerous examples of the same general phenomena typically core linguistic features7 like lexis and grammar, which may then be distinguished by in-depth qualitative analysis as well as by quantitative analysis, frequently involving comparison of various linguistic varieties. However, this cultural gap between DA and CL is now closing; there is overlap, particularly in the areas covered by discourse-functional grammarians like Chafe, Du Bois, Fox, Given, Hopper, and Thompson for more information, see Cumming & Ono, 1997. Additionally, the Child Language Data Exchange System program is very instructive. Although it sprang from the DA tradition of individualized transcriptions and analysis by academics, this has evolved into a global archive or corpus collection that resembles a CL resource in many aspects. As a result, it encourages data sharing and reuse, as well as uniform mark-up, documentation, and transcription standards which include phonetic, contextual, and turn-taking information, as well as related techniques for computational data retrieval and annotation.

A widely read e-mail from MacWhinney on June 7, 1999, revealed that CHILDES and the LDC Linguistic Data Consortium were joining forces to develop Talk Bank, a new, comprehensive resource that would be a distributed, web-based data archiving system for transcribed video and audio data on communicative interactions. Up until this point, the LDC had been closely involved in the industrial-academic development of tools, such as corpora, for language engineering such as for automatic speech recognition, dialogue systems, etc., and had created and disseminated spoken language corpora that were largely geared toward that goal. Therefore, this is yet another

prominent example of the convergence toward the computer corpus-oriented study of spoken language, a subject that is appropriate to discuss at this moment [5].

The Corpus Revolution: A Review of Spoken English Corpora

A computer corpus is always seen as a resource that the whole world may use with optimism. In theory, it is just as simple to print and distribute a CD-ROM of a corpus as it is a book or a CD of recorded music. The in principle access is, however, restricted in reality by copyright and secrecy laws., while others are not. A collection of some practical spoken language corpora, including the spoken components of mixed corpora spoken + written. The London-Lund corpus was the first spoken corpus to become accessible In the days before computers, when the Survey of English Usage was established for the description of current similar to how the corpus was built at London University was a groundbreaking project for gathering spoken data that included many people hundreds of hours of meticulous prosodic transcription, so computerization and corpus analysis spoken English grammar conducted in Sweden and Norway revealed a lot about how grammar and super segmental phonology interact. between conversation analysis and grammar. The Lund Group's work School as the Scandinavians who are constructing the LLC and Other spoken corpora might be referred to as is still in use today and is distinguished by its excellent descriptive and linguistic scholarship purpose [6].

The Spoken English Corpus by Lancaster/IBM profited from meticulous, thorough prosodic transcription. Both of these corpora, nevertheless, had flaws as well. In The original audio recordings weren't widely accessible, LLC. The limitations on the spoken data in both corpora make them problematic. contain. In the days, recordings for the LLC were made. very large, bulky reel-to-reel tape recorders, and in actuality a subset of the data from spontaneous conversations was gathered from London University employees and students in academic contexts. For instance, academic discussion topics often take precedence over personal ones. The SEC's scope of coverage was much more constrained; it was essentially restricted to public communication that was prepared, like radio broadcasts. Additionally, only British speakers were allowed to access both corpora Speaking corpora with a considerably wider scope began to arise in the 1980s and 1990s. British publishers gathered these corpora as part of megacorpora that were primarily created to improve dictionaries, grammars, reference resources, and educational materials.

The earliest of them was COBUILD HarperCollins, and it continues to be the biggest with a primary corpus of 329 million words under the name The Bank of English. Although spoken language only makes up a relatively tiny percentage of this enormous data bank, with over 20 million words, this transcription represents an exceptionally big sample of speech by any historical standards. A second release of the British National Corpus BNC; 100 million words is now becoming accessible for study and development worldwide. This mega corpus was compiled in the early 1990s, with around 10 million words or about 10% of the corpus comprised of spoken English. A additional sizable spoken corpus with a current word count of 5 million, the CANCODE corpus was compiled with the support of Cambridge University Press and is a component of the broader Cambridge International Corpus CIC of speech and writing Although these publisher-sponsored corpora have the drawback of having rudimentary orthographic transcription, lacking particularly prosodic information, they are suitable for many aspects of grammatical and

lexicographic research in addition to serving their primary lexicographic purpose It appears natural to begin by mentioning a corpus' size when discussing it, as if this were its most important characteristic.

However, it has sometimes been observed that even a tiny corpus may be enough for the analysis of several frequent grammatical properties. The makeup of a corpus in terms of genres or other design elements such as stratified demographic sampling in the BNC that provide for comprehensive and representative coverage of the spoken language is probably more significant than quantity when evaluating the research utility of a corpu [7]. Each LLC, BNC, and CANCODE is chosen based on standards that provide a wide and representative representation of various spoken forms. As a result, one may extrapolate from the results of them to spoken English in general with a fair amount of confidence. The fact that these three corpora are mostly restricted to British speech means that this step of extrapolation can only be used in practice with a few caveats. The perfect corpus of spoken English does not yet exist.

However, a number of initiatives in English-speaking nations throughout the globe are now providing a counterweight to the British provenance of most of the spoken corpus data should be made of the International Corpus of English project, which, since the 1980s, has expanded to over 20 nations or regions. In each of these locations, a 1-million-word corpus is being assembled using a standard design, with each corpus being split roughly evenly between written and spoken material. The first of these corpora to be widely accessible is, once again, the British variety ICE-GB which has been annotated with parse trees throughout, allowing data to be retrieved from the corpus using flexible syntactic search parameters. Recently, more ICE corpora such as the versions from Australia, East Africa, and New Zealand have also been accessible in their finished state. It may seem odd that the United States has delayed the creation of extensive spoken corpora given that the Brown Corpus marked the beginning of the English electronic corpora period.

The creation of spoken corpora of American English seems to be hampered by the infamous Chomskyan rejection of corpus data in the 1950s, a period when the revelatory potential of large computer corpora was unthinkable. However, things are evolving. At the University of Michigan, the MICASE corpus of spoken American academic English is already producing results. A Corpus of Spoken American English CSAE is being developed in Santa Barbara, and a portion of it was just made accessible via the LDC. In order to mirror the British demographic corpus that Longman gave to the BNC, the publishers Longman created their own corpus of around 5 million spoken words in American English.

Grammar Based on Corpora

After analyzing corpora as a whole, we now discuss the many grammatical investigations that may be supported by them, notably those that focus on spoken language. Corpus-based studies often have an observational focus, which, depending on your perspective, may be a strength or a drawback. As a result, corpus-based grammatical or syntactic studies always focus on E-language externalized language, rather than I-language internalized language, this may cause linguists who hold an I-language rationalist perspective to believe that corpora have little use in linguistic research [8]. In contrast to competence grammars, corpus-oriented studies of grammar are clearly

performance grammars to use an earlier Chomskyan word. Their fundamental argument is that language usage should be taken into consideration rather than treating grammar as a mental process. This does not imply that they lack theoretical interest, as Leech notes that cognitive grammars may be well suited to the explanation of corpus data. According to corpus linguists, relevant ideas or hypotheses must be able to be verified or refuted by empirically seeing language in use. This is more in line with certain theoretical viewpoints than others. The idea is consistent with several grammar theories, such as conversation grammars, construction grammars, and many kinds of functional grammar that the way language is employed closely mirrors a grammar as a mental system, and some like probabilistic grammars can Almost never be tested or developed without using a corpus. Additionally, one may argue that performance grammars are the majority of students' objectives while studying a second or foreign language include to effectively or receptively communicate using the language, we pick up languages so that we can communicate. It is hard to imagine that we may learn to successfully employ a language's syntax without being aware of the restrictions and circumstances governing its usage. A corpus, like the spoken BNC, offers the tools to analyze these circumstances and make use of data that is unique range and depth, gathered in real environment [9].

To demonstrate the features of such a performance grammar, I provide the fundamentals of an enunciated grammar Similar performance-based frameworks have been adopted by grammarians; such a grammar is inclusive rather than exclusive in its design. It considers more than just the isolated grammar. system of a language, but also of how decisions made by the system are influenced by outside factors, and how the system interacts with other systems. elements of linguistic exchange. I'll provide a little explanation here. A grammar that is responsible is what is meant by the term data-oriented grammar. based on actual facts, not simply what the grammarian wants to see notice. Building a performance grammar is not simply a simple task, however matter of abstracting rather than obtaining data from a corpus or using the combination of facts and theory to represent language. The idea of functional grammar has many different applications All of them are functional because they explain grammar in terms of the broader context of human psychology and behavior. Variety grammars are more difficult to locate, but may be shown by Biber and colleague, who cover four primary English dialects: journalism, literary literature, and conversation especially academic writing. A grammar that integrates other language levels with grammar is referred to as an integrative grammar similar to what is often referred to as communicative grammar Compared to an autonomous system, syntactic point of view [10].

DISCUSSION

The development of second language learners academic spoken English comprehension depends critically on their vocabulary knowledge. Students are typically obliged to participate in academic material that is presented via lectures, seminars, and debates in English-medium institutions. For people whose primary language is not English, it may be especially difficult to comprehend and participate in these environments. This conversation examines the role that vocabulary knowledge plays in improving academic spoken English comprehension and provides tips on how second language learners might get beyond this obstacle. Academic spoken English often uses specialized, complicated language that is not always present in regular speech or written materials. The usage

of discipline-specific terminology by professors and lecturers might be confusing for students who are still honing their English language abilities. As a consequence, second language learners could struggle to understand subtleties of academic speech, participate in meaningful conversations, and follow lectures. Research repeatedly emphasizes how crucial terminology is to understanding what others are saying. Students that have a broad vocabulary can identify and comprehend the words and expressions used by speakers, which speeds up the processing of spoken information. Lack of vocabulary may make it difficult for pupils to grasp words and paragraphs, which can cause misconceptions and make it harder for them to engage with academic material.

CONCLUSION

The importance of vocabulary knowledge in enhancing academic spoken English comprehension cannot be stressed in the field of English language education, especially for second language learners pursuing their academic ambitions. The road to mastering academic spoken English is undoubtedly difficult, but it is one worth taking because of the transformational effects it will have on academic performance and other areas. The importance of vocabulary knowledge in enhancing academic spoken English comprehension cannot be stressed in the field of English language education, especially for second language learners pursuing their academic ambitions. The road to mastering academic spoken English is undoubtedly difficult, but it is one worth taking because of the transformational effects it will have on academic performance and other areas. Vocabulary is the foundation of listening comprehension, according to both academic research and pedagogical practice. It serves as a bridge for comprehending spoken language, allowing students to grasp and take in the rich tapestry of intellectual conversation. Students that have a strong vocabulary are better able to understand complicated concepts, comprehend sentences, and participate actively in their academic endeavors.

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CHAPTER 2

COMPARING METHODS: ANALYZING WRITTEN AND SPOKEN GRAMMAR

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ABSTRACT:

With the introduction of corpus linguistics, the study of grammar whether in written or spoken form—has experienced a shift. This summary gives a general overview of the subject of Comparing Methods for Analyzing Written and Spoken Grammar. It dives into two different theories: Approach A, which stresses spoken grammar's distinctiveness, and Approach B, which maintains that spoken and written grammar are comparable. These methods are contrasted, emphasizing the consequences and benefits they have for our comprehension of language structure. The relationship between form and function, quantitative and qualitative assessments, and the significance of having a thorough grasp of grammar in many language situations are all stressed in the proposal of a unified performance grammar approach. These abstract lays the foundation for a more in-depth investigation of the techniques and revelations that result from comparing these strategies in the investigation of written and spoken language.

KEYWORDS:

Analysis, Approaches, Comparative, Function, Grammar, Language Structure, Methodology, Spoken Grammar, Written Grammar, Unified Approach.

INTRODUCTION

A major area of concentration for linguistic research has traditionally been the study of language and the underlying grammar. Written language and spoken language are the two main manifestations of language, a multidimensional phenomenon. Although these two forms of communication have different qualities, they are similar in the manner that they organize words and transmit meaning. A basic dilemma emerges when linguists and language aficionados dive into the nuances of grammar: Do the techniques employed to examine written and spoken grammar disclose fundamental differences, or do they highlight underlying similarities. This subject, Comparing Methods for Analyzing Written and Spoken Grammar, sets off on an adventure to investigate the many methods and procedures used in analyzing the grammatical structures of these two ways of expressing language. We want to learn more about the intriguing field of linguistic analysis and its role in solving the puzzles of human communication by studying the parallels, contrasts, and difficulties presented by various approaches.

Grammar Based on Corpora

After analyzing corpora as a whole, we now discuss the many grammatical investigations that may be supported by them, notably those that focus on spoken language. Corpus-based studies often have an observational focus, which, depending on your perspective, may be a strength or a

drawback. As a result, corpus-based grammatical or syntactic studies always focus on E-language Externalized language, rather than I-language internalized language, according to Chomsky. This may cause linguists who hold an I-language rationalist perspective to believe that corpora have little use in linguistic research [1]. In contrast to competence grammars, corpus-oriented studies of grammar are clearly performance grammars to use an earlier Chomskyan word. Their fundamental argument is that language usage should be taken into consideration rather than treating grammar as a mental process. This does not imply that they lack theoretical interest, as Leech notes that cognitive grammars such as those proposed by Langacker in 1987 and 1991 may be well suited to the explanation of corpus data. According to corpus linguists, relevant ideas or hypotheses must be able to be verified or refuted by empirically seeing language in use. This is more in line with certain theoretical viewpoints than others.

Some grammar theories, such as conversation grammars, construction grammars, and other forms of functional grammar, are agreeable to the idea that a grammar is closely reflected in the way that people think. Language is utilized, and some can hardly be verified or constructed without using a corpus such as probabilistic grammars. Additionally, one may argue that performance grammars are precisely what applications to language learning need. The majority of students' objectives while studying a second or foreign language include to effectively or receptively communicate using the language, we pick up languages so that we can communicate. It is hard to imagine that we may learn to successfully employ a language's syntax without being aware of the restrictions and circumstances governing its usage. A corpus, like the spoken BNC, offers the tools to analyze these circumstances and make use of data that is unique range and depth, gathered in real environments. To demonstrate the features of such a performance grammar I provide the fundamentals of a Menunciated grammar example for description of language use written by the corpus grammarian Aarts, such a grammar's structure is inclusive as opposed to exclusive [2].

It considers more than just the isolated grammar. system of a language, but also of how decisions made by the system are influenced by outside factors, and how the system interacts with other systems elements of linguistic exchange. A grammar that is responsible is what is meant by the term data oriented grammar. based on actual facts, not simply what the grammarian wants to see notice. Building a performance grammar is not simply a simple task, however matter of abstracting rather than obtaining data from a corpus or using the combination of facts and theory to represent language. The idea of functional grammar has many different applications. All of them are functional because they explain grammar in terms of the broader context of human psychology and behavior. Variety grammars are more difficult to locate, but may be shown by Biber and colleagues, who cover four primary English dialects: journalism, literary literature, and conversation especially academic writing. A grammar that integrates other language levels with grammar is referred to as an integrative grammar. Similar to what is often referred to as communicative grammar Compared to a autonomous system, syntactic point of view [3].

The Dissimilarities and Similarities of Spoken and Written Grammar

A new, radical emphasis on speech grammar has emerged as a consequence of the recent availability of spoken English corpora, with illuminating findings. In this section, I contrast one approach, which highlights how spoken grammar differs from previously articulated grammatical

models, with another, which maintains that spoken and written grammar are fundamentally the same despite some obvious disparities in frequency [4]. The University of Nottingham's Carter, Hughes, and McCarthy henceforth referred to as the Nottingham School work best illustrates Approach A Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan best illustrate Approach B Biber 1999. I shall, however, first focus on some additional crucial papers on spoken grammar that illustrate these diametrically opposed trends Despite not being exhaustive corpus-based research, these We heavily depend on corpus data [5].

Approach A: Spoken Grammar's Differentness From Classical Written Models

As an important example, Brazil 1995 proposes that we need a completely different model from those often used for written language in order to grasp spoken grammar. He rejects earlier constituency-based models of sentence grammar such as IC analysis and phrase structure in favor of a process-oriented, linear grammar that demonstrates how speakers assemble their utterances a bit at a time as they go along. Grammar in speech must be constructed and interpreted in a linear manner. Brazil provides a thorough explanation of this linear language, which is an enlarged version of a well-known formal model called finite-state grammar. Brazil, on the other hand, views grammatical constructs as being developed piece by piece to meet communication needs, giving his language a strong communicative and discoursal focus[6]. However, Brazil purposefully does not specify whether this approach should also apply to written language. Other authors on spoken grammar likewise take the rhetorical approach of Brazil. The takeaway is that both the academic mainstream and grammatical tradition have disregarded the character of spoken language, and corpus data may provide a ground-breaking new perspective.

This viewpoint is strongly supported by the work of Carter, Hughes, and McCarthy at Nottingham as well as Miller and Weinert's 1998 research, which highlights the discord between spoken and written syntax. This brings to mind the Nottingham School's position once again, who’s often convincing and illuminating assessments of spoken English, based on the CANCODE corpus highlights the improvement over earlier standard grammars, too much reliance on textual communication. While preparing for typical McCarthy uses the space between spoken and written syntax. even go so far as to claim that there should not be a presumption that the There are similarities between the grammars of speech and writing framework Always expound on spoken grammar on your own terms utilizing verbal information. If, at the conclusion of the activity, the differences between spoken and written language are evident inif it's common, then we should be grateful for this convenience, and without thorough investigation, it cannot be prejudged. The Nottingham School has really made an argument for a new form of speech grammar, like an elaborated The clause's example is found in Pre-clause and Post-clause Satellites, below. Additionally, they promote the intimate integration of spoken grammar as well as discourse analysis [7].

Method B: The Fundamental Sameness of Written and Spoken Grammar

The strategy advocated by Biber et al 1999, in contrast, is holistic in that it employs the same set of categories, structures, and guidelines for both spoken and written language. In certain ways, Biber et al. carry on the heritage of the Quirk grammars by assuming a single grammatical

framework for both spoken and written English. This framework is basically that of Quirk et al. 1985. In reality, wherever spoken and written language are concerned, this kind of presumption is prevalent and contrasted. For instance, Halliday makes the following point in his illuminating and accessible book Spoken and Written English 1989 Spoken There are two types of English spoken English and written English, and the However, grammar is more understandable. compared to that of Quirk et al., it is more performance-based and corpus-based: It typically indicates considerable frequency disparities in the manner Both spoken language and written language need grammar. Longman Spoken and Written English LSWE a corpus of 40 million words, was used by Biberet al. compare a substantial sub corpus of conversation with similarly constructed a sizable sub corpus of academic, journalism, and fiction writing to highlight the variations between spoken and written English and literary genres or registers. Despite this, the four-way Comparatively speaking, dialogue is the classic spoken form [8]. Definitely distinguishes itself as often being significantly distinct in terms of Grammar probabilities based on written forms. Some grammatical characteristics such dysfluency problems, to the extent that they are grammatical are virtually exclusively spoken only the same descriptive framework often applies to a wide range of All four registers were used as a foundation for comparison since without them, it would be impossible to distinguish between these kinds' grammars.

A Comparison of the Two Methods

Do the variations in emphasis and attitude between these two perspectives really have any real-world effects? It is possible to explain their divergence by noting that those adopting Approach A have primarily focused on spoken corpus data, while Biber et al. have defined spoken grammar via a comparative examination of both spoken and written corpus data. The main distinction between views A and B, however, is one of rhetorical emphasis. Brazil's viewpoint A, for instance, might be claimed that the rhetoric of his strategy depends on the incompatibility of his grammar of grammatical tradition in speech[9]. He compares finite state and phrase structure models, which in fact may be restated in employing a well-known analogy between process-oriented automata and structure-oriented grammars. Therefore, let me propose that the distinction between It is simple to overemphasize Methods A and B. Some of these distinctions that seem to be of substance Example The assertion that the It seems that a phrase is not a suitable speaking language unit. It's challenging to reconcile with Approach B. While on the other side, I shall assert that Approach B can be used together with Biber et al, stating that what has been learned on the nature of spoken.

The claim that there is a common language is consistent with grammar underpinning grammar structure. In this manner, the new knowledge of spoken language revealed by Method A corpus investigations may fit within an English grammar that is uniform. I will Clarify this topic by thoroughly defining the idea of performance grammar first. I shall argue that this idea relies Considering the earlier idea of a descriptive gramma A descriptive English grammar identifies the system or English writings and discourses have a wide range of norms, structures, and categories that they use. An expressive grammar uses the descriptive toolbox as stated and demonstrates how it is used in one or more variations language such as the four registers investigated by Biber et al. The use of the repertoire is shown in terms of relative frequencies, which transforms relative

frequencies as seen in a corpus inside a grammatical behavior prediction model for native speakers NS, into estimated probability [10].

Given this approach, there is a good chance that some grammatical errors might characteristics will have a probability that is either 0 or extremely close to zero. are there repertoire pieces that will just not be utilized in specific situations variety. By accommodating statements made from a differentness stance, the model of performance grammar enables us to take into account. Occasionally, spoken grammar has quirks that are difficult to understand mirrored in written grammar, or the opposite. Although, nevertheless on the basis of corpus data, this performance model enables one to state evidence showing that trait X is almost exclusively found in variation Y, or Such claims, in accordance with Approach, are excluded from variety Z. B are only significant as extremes on a quantitative scale. Probability scale. Taking this stance permits one to claim, therefore, that despite two variations of the language let's despite the fact that spoken and written languages have the same descriptive grammar a shared repertoire, they are significantly different in terms of Specifically, performance grammars are the probabilistic implementations of that list of songs.

There are two benefits to this unified approach. It is compatible first of all based on the notion that the grammar and syntax have a scalar relationship of writing and speaking, respectively. understanding that textual texts that spoken writings mimic speech to varied degrees and There are several levels of written texts as statistically shown by For instance, Biber 1988 may be accommodated more readily in Rather of using a model that insists on a fundamentally different method of spoken grammar, use this one. It also has the benefit of being a suited for competence- and performance-based grammars. that is It seems logical to believe that something like this In the native speaker's NS mind, repertoire is represented. A split competence in the system would have to be posited otherwise. the literate NS's cognition, as if the NS used distinct Grammars for both writing and speaking. I'm sure there's more. it's conceivable to think that the NS makes both oral and written an often quite diverse implementation of what is essentially the same repertoire. As a result, the claim is that if both methods are consistent with the evidence, Approach B, on the basis that. It's best to keep things simple.

DISCUSSION

A fascinating issue in the study of linguistics is the contrast of approaches to studying spoken and written grammar. It encourages us to investigate the subtleties of language usage in many circumstances as well as the various strategies academics use to elucidate its underlying structures. Here, we examine several crucial facets and factors related to this debate. Speaking and writing are two different forms of communication, each with unique qualities. While spoken language tends to be spontaneous, context-dependent, and impacted by elements like tone, intonation, and nonverbal clues, written language is often more formal, prepared, and edited. These variations provide particular difficulties when examining grammar. The study of grammar in spoken and written language has undergone a radical transformation since the development of corpus linguistics. Linguists have access to a variety of information via corpora, vast collections of real language samples, to study trends and variances. This methodology enables systematic and data-driven examinations of grammar, yielding previously elusive insights. The distinctiveness of

spoken grammar is often highlighted by Approach A in the comparison. This school of thought contends that since spoken language is dynamic and real-time, it requires a unique set of analytical techniques. This approach is often emphasized by researchers, who concentrate on discourse analysis and how language operates in context. They contend that the best way to comprehend spoken language is to look at how speakers put together utterances as they go to satisfy their communication requirements.

CONCLUSION

The investigation of approaches for deciphering spoken and written grammar has shed light on the complex field of linguistic research. We have learned a lot about the nature of linguistic analysis and the subtle variations between spoken and written language by contrasting these methods. As we wrap up, the following important conclusions become clear Diversity in Linguistic Analysis: The techniques comparison highlights the variety of linguistics-related methodologies. The Function of Context: Context is a basic component that influences the syntax and use of language. The Importance of Corpora: The advent of corpus linguistics has revolutionized the discipline. Approach A vs. Approach B. The debate between Approach A, which emphasizes the Differentness of spoken grammar, and Approach B, which emphasizes the Performance Grammar's Function: The idea of performance grammar is a viable way to bring the various methods together. through contrasting grammar analysis techniques have real-world applications for teaching and learning languages. Language teachers may best prepare students for real-world communication by having a thorough grasp of how grammar works in various settings. In conclusion, the contrast of approaches for deciphering spoken and written grammar highlights how dynamic linguistic research is. It serves as a reminder that language is a complex, context-dependent phenomena, and that our analytical approaches must change to reflect this. We add to the continual development of our knowledge of language and its astounding complexity as we investigate these techniques and their ramifications.

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CHAPTER 3

INVESTIGATING SPEAKING FREQUENCY DYNAMICS IN GRAMMATICAL FUNCTION

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ABSTRACT:

The detailed investigation of the complex dynamics of speaking frequency within the context of grammatical function is captured in this abstract. When spoken as opposed to written, language reveals unique characteristics as a dynamic and living creature. This research explores the complex interactions between spoken and written language, revealing the subtle grammatical underpinnings of human communication. Approach B, a strategy that makes use of corpus analysis and performance grammar to understand the subtle differences between spoken and written performance, is at the core of this inquiry. This method acknowledges the formal, grammatical properties that texts naturally possess as well as the useful relationship between these qualities and the outside variables that influence grammatical choices, such as psychological, interpersonal, and discursive elements. Grammar patterns in the context of dialogue develop as the inquiry proceeds. The research also shows that shared context in speech favors simplicity in syntax, eliminating the need for detailed linguistic word definitions. The analysis also identifies constraints in conversational grammar's lexicogrammatically repertoire, which is marked by repetition and a constrained vocabulary. This thorough investigation, which offers a holistic knowledge of language in motion, explores the dynamics of speaking frequency in grammatical function. It demonstrates the complex interactions between form and function, the viewpoints of the speakers and the addressees, the common background of dialogue, and the flexibility of grammar in real-time processing. In this work, grammar is shown to be a lively representation of social interaction and cognitive processes, giving us important insights into the living, dynamic thing that is language.

KEYWORDS:

Corpus Analysis, Discourse Dynamics, Language Processing, Lexicogrammatically Repertoire, Real-time Communication, Verbal Interaction, Linguistic Adaptation.

INTRODUCTION

Language is a flexible and dynamic form of human communication that is continually adapted to the demands of its users and the situations in which it is used. The study of language, especially spoken language, provides a rare insight into the complex interaction between linguistic structures and the time-sensitive requirements of communication. This study explores the intriguing topic of Investigating Speaking Frequency Dynamics in Grammatical Function, in an effort to understand the complex patterns and adaptations that underpin spoken language. Our investigation will touch on the shared context that supports conversational dynamics, the participatory aspect of spoken language, and the immediate processing requirements that guide grammatical decisions. We'll also

examine spoken language's lexical and grammatical features, revealing the constrained yet extremely useful repertoire that speakers depend on. We want to elucidate the subtleties of speaking frequency dynamics in grammatical function via a rigorous investigation of corpus data and linguistic events. This study adds to our knowledge of spoken language and offers important new information on how human communication is adaptive. We ask you to join us on this trip as we explore the core of spoken language, where each word and each utterance is evidence of the astonishing relationship between form and function, and where the dynamics of speaking frequency disclose the fundamentals of human interaction.

Speaking Frequency: Indicators of Grammatical Function

The fact that Approach B enables us to functionally describe the key distinctions between spoken and written performance is another supporter of the approach. A performance grammar with a corpus is both formal and practical: It is formal in that it recognizes formal, grammatical qualities that can be seen internally in texts and functional in that it connects these formal features to outside forces that affect grammatical choice, such as psychological, interpersonal, and discursive forces. Additionally, a third binary division between the quantitative and qualitative study of corpus data aligns with these two binary ones. We must employ quantitative approaches to capture grammatical variations as they are applied in various areas of a corpus. On the other hand, we rely on qualitative analysis in order to relate these quantitative discrepancies to elements that are not related to language [1]. The way that Approaches A and B address the form-function or internal-external connection seems to be different. Brazil goes farther than other countries in suggesting that grammatical decisions are based on communication requirements, arguing that form follows function.

The Nottingham school has also correctly highlighted the tight connection between spoken grammar and discourse analysis even asserts that discourse drives grammar, not the reverse. Comparatively, Biber et al. observe the corpus data as showing the frequency of grammatical features or categories in various varieties of English and then as a second step seek to account for these quantitative differences in terms of functional explanations. This approach is arguably fundamental to corpus-based grammar. it seems that these two strategies adopt the differing directionalities described below: Grammar and discourse go hand in hand, and vice versa. These distinctions, meanwhile, unquestionably reflect different points of view and are more rhetorical than substantive. When we consider grammar from the speaker's perspective, we naturally perceive it as a way to accomplish communication objectives inside a conversational setting. However, when we perceive grammar from the perspective of the addressee or, for that matter, the observer, when reviewing corpus data, we see it as a linguistic phenomenon that has to be explained. Specifically, at the level Both points of view are required for a scientific explanation. speech than in the three textual forms of scholarly, journalism, and fictional writing. At a preliminary stage, this indicates that there is an intriguing explanation to be made [2].

Most of these qualities organize themselves into groups at a later explanatory stage based on the functional properties of conversation. There is a list of the most significant functional categories. With the grammatical characteristics that go along with them, are provided below in declarative form.

Grammar in Conversation Reflects a Shared Context

Private, in-person communication is based on a shared setting that includes physical, psychological, and social factors. The high differential frequency of elements that shorten utterances and make them simpler by drawing on information obtainable from the nonlinguistic or linguistic background reflects this aspect of dialogue. Such attributes consist of the following Personal pronouns in contrast to nouns, which are noticeably more common in written registers substitute and other pro-forms like so as a substitute for a clause, do as a pro-verb, do it and do that as pro-predicates, etc.; various types of ellipsis, like front ellipsis as in Doesn't matter or You want a double where the subject and/or auxiliary is omitted [3].

Conversational grammar forgoes elaboration or reference-specification

The tendency for discussion to use simple syntax also has a bad side. Because of shared context, it is often not necessary to describe in great detail what linguistic terms signify. Both clausal and noncausal structures avoid complexity. An obvious connection can be seen between this discovery and the high frequency of personal pronouns mentioned above. Conversation has a very short mean phrase length, especially for noun phrases [4]. The use of elliptic genitives like hers, mine, yours, and theirs is very common in conversation. Low levels of specification or precision in meaning are also associated with the avoidance of syntactic elaboration. For instance, general hedges like sort of, kind of, and like as an adverb and coordination tags like and stuff and that sort of thing are frequently used in conversation, allowing a speaker to hide behind tactical imprecision. The low lexical richness of conversational writings is another sign of the trend for conversational writing to reduce explicit information. a small percentage of all words are content words, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

Grammar Used in Conversation Is Interactive. Another essential conversational skill, closely related to those Interactivity is discussed above. The action of conversation is shared by several individuals, and moving through the replies from participants to one another's contributions, and placing a focus on response, immediateness, and reciprocity. In readily distinguishable dialogic characteristics in grammar Include directives and questions using this function, as well as Pronouns in the first and second person which are very common especially when compared to personal pronouns as a whole [5]. The propensity of participants in interactions to partake in the for instance, co-construction of grammatical elements, when one Completes a sentence that was started by another speaker I participated; my opponent was Southend. Less overtly, negatives and the conjunction but are often used in conversation; they represent speakers' tendencies to engage in conversation using opposing viewpoints. The participation Routined particles that are only marginally, often entirely, integrated with sentence grammar further emphasize the significant presence of discourse independent components. These contain auxiliary verbs or connecting words like in any case, really, vocatives mom, Attention, discourse markers like Fran, etc, well now that you mention it signals like hey, acknowledgements like sure, and greetings.

The Lexico grammatical Repertoire of Conversational Grammar is Limited and Repetitive

The Lexicogrammatically Repertoire of Conversational Grammar is Limited and Repetitive. The tendency for speakers to depend on fewer linguistic resources in terms of lexical and grammatical

choice than writers is related to routinization and a lack of specificity[6]. The frequency of these locutions is often far greater in conversation than in academic writing, according to Biber et al.'s research of recurrent word sequences likely accessible from lexical formulas in the NS's long-term memory. In contrast to written registers, speech has a low type-to-token ratio. Both of these results highlight the relative dearth of conversational lexical resources, which is also demonstrated by a strong reliance on a select group of favorite words to fill specific grammatical positions, such as favorite subordinators like if, because, and when, favorite modals like can, will, would, and could, and favorite adverbs like could. There, simply, so, then, anyway, however, now. This conversational trait has a practical purpose and of naturally occurring spoken language generally has a strong relationship to real-time processing demands [7].

Grammar Used in Conversation Is Adapted to Real-Time Processing Needs

Spontaneous speech is produced in real time, impromptu, and with no opportunity for editing, whereas written language is generally produced with pauses for thought and with much editing, Contrary to written registers, conversation is subject to the stresses of real-time processing, which causes overload on the short-term working memory, especially for the speaker. First, common dysfluencies like hesitation pauses, hesitation fillers, repetitions, retrace-and-repair sequences, incompletions, and syntactic blends anacolutha are recognized syntactically relevant reflexes of this restriction Uh he's a closet yuppie is what he is serves as an example of the latter. As seen by the parenthesis and braces, the noun phrase a closet yuppie is really the end part of one sentence and the initial portion topic of another clause, where both clauses overlap in terms of structure. Second, a second kind of real-time limitation on discourse is shown by omissions and other reductive mechanisms that reduce the message, such as contractions of the negative and the verb, ellipsis/elision of auxiliaries, and others [8].

Dysfluency and reduction are two strategies for coordinating the preparation and delivery of an utterance. Dysfluencies happen when planning delays implementation. When preparation takes longer than actual delivery, reduction enables the speaker to catch up. For instance, discovered that the speaker's employment of preset routines, such as Don't know or Good thing, which ostensibly involve no recollection or preparation work, increases the likelihood of an initial ellipsis. The most intriguing real-time processing effect on grammar is the third one since it affects spoken language syntax the most. To ease the strain on the working memory, spoken grammar seems to be streamlined in a number of different ways. One is the employment of brief, autonomous grammatical units, referred to as C-units in the explanation that follows. The sentence, which is thought of as the greatest unit of written grammar, has often been noted as being inadequate for the study of spoken language.

The maximal operational units of spoken syntax are instead units with an average length of fewer than six words, according to Biber et al. The action of what can be referred to as the add-on principle is the second. Even while spoken utterances might become somewhat complicated, closer examination reveals that they can often be broken down into small clause-like chunks that are linked together in a straightforward stepwise manner for processing. This notion is most apparent in storytelling; in the following example, vertical lines are used to divide the add-on portions. The vertical lines in this example mark the beginning of a new phrase, whether that clause is connected

to the one before it by coordination, parataxis, or subordination. According to Chafe 1987, these chunks are closely related to intonation units. In addition to often indicating a certain form of relationship, words like and, but, or, so, and because may also be used to link clauses directly. Both linking types are shown in. It was rather cool and laid-back. Additionally, the meal was excellent. The simplicity of the structure, especially as it relates to the start and middle of sentences, is another indication of the real-time processability of spoken syntax, keeping in mind the restricted working memory.

For instance, subject noun phrases in speech often consist of a single word a pronoun, in contrast to written grammar, where a sentence frequently starts with a somewhat complicated subject. Subject noun phrases longer than two or three words are uncommon. As a result, in above, all subjects are either I, you, or 0. The end-weight concept is especially useful in spoken syntax Although even here the noun phrases consist of no more than two or three words the trunk, the batteries, etc, they nevertheless do not prevent the decoding of the sentence as a whole since they appear after the verb [9]. More might be said about how well-spoken syntax works for real-time processing, but for now it will be useful functional description of the formal aspects of conversational grammar. Following are some explanations of the links between the functional topics. In the sense that interactive discourse makes grammatical shortcuts possible due to continual shared context, shared context is related to interactiveness.

Additionally, low specification is linked to shared context: We often depend on implicit reference, which needs little to no explication, when we exchange context. Low specification also relates to a limited vocabulary since the speaker may depend on a repetitious vocabulary of often used words and phrases because there is no need to clarify or describe. Because online demands foster dependence on a small repertoire of objects that are easily retrieved from memory, a narrow repertoire also interferes with real-time processing. Affectivity and interactiveness are inextricably linked since they both include interpersonal and experience elements of communication. The two main concepts that describe the functional character of conversation are shared context and real-time processing. In spite of the fact that these two situational aspects exist independently of language, they have the greatest impact on the linguistic structure of speech. Conversely, poor specificity and a limited repertory are more directly related to the linguistic and cognitive aspects of conversation. The six aspects mentioned above are only one example of how such functional explanations consistently demonstrate the multifunctionality of linguistic traits. For instance, the two key functional components of shared context and real-time processing may be used to jointly explain the overall phenomena of simplification or reduction in spoken language [10].

DISCUSSION

Specifically focused on the dynamics of spoken language, the study of Investigating Speaking Frequency Dynamics in Grammatical Function gives insight on an important area of language research. Understanding how language adapts and operates in the context of spoken communication is important because it has important discoveries, ramifications, and relevance. Changes made in real time. Common Context A key feature of speaking frequency dynamics is the idea of a shared context. Speaking Language Is Interactive The conversation emphasizes how spoken language is participatory. Syntactic and Lexical Repertoire The constrained and repetitive

lexical and syntactic repertoire of spoken language is another important topic of debate. Improved Grammar In the study, the idea of streamlined grammar in spoken language is introduced. Functional justification The application of functional explanations to comprehend speaking frequency dynamics is a key component of the debate. Communication Implications Understanding the dynamics of speaking frequency in grammatical function has applications in many different domains. The complex ways in which spoken language makes adjustments to satisfy the needs of real-time communication are shown through Investigating Speaking Frequency Dynamics in Grammatical Function.

CONCLUSION

The study of Investigating Speaking Frequency Dynamics in Grammatical Function has shown a subtle grasp of spoken language's functioning in real-time communication. The flexibility, shared context, collaborative nature, and streamlined structure of spoken language have all been examined in depth in this study, giving insight on the complex dynamics at work in daily talks. We have seen throughout this investigation how speakers, whether consciously or unconsciously, choose grammatical constructions that meet the urgent requirements of clear communication. These decisions reveal the speakers' capacity to adjust to the conversation's ever-changing flow, where efficiency and clarity are crucial. Recognizing shared context as a foundational element of spoken language is one of the main lessons to be learned from this investigation. Individuals build on a foundation of shared physical, psychological, and social variables through face-to-face communication. Because of the shared context, speakers are more able to remove irrelevant information and depend on implicit understandings, which results in the frequent use of personal pronouns, ellipses, and simple syntax as a result, the research on Investigating Speaking Frequency Dynamics in Grammatical Function advances our knowledge of the complex principles underlying spoken language. It confirms that language is a flexible and dynamic instrument that connects people in the complex web of human communication. We may have more fruitful and insightful talks in an ever-evolving environment as we study and improve our grasp of these processes.

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CHAPTER 4

LANGUAGE AND WRITTEN FORMS: EXAMINING THE UNITY AND COMPLEXITY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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ABSTRACT:

Linguists have always been attracted by the study of language, both spoken and written, which has led to investigations on the consistency and complexity of English grammar across various modalities. This investigation challenges the traditional distinction between the spoken and written forms of English by delving into their complex connection. This study makes an argument for a single grammar that transcends the distinction between speech and writing by looking at a variety of language aspects, such as subordination complexity, sentence structure, clarity, and efficiency, as well as the special function of satellites in conversation. The data points to a shared pool of grammatical resources rather than separate systems between spoken and written English, with distinctions deriving from their frequency and complexity of use. This viewpoint not only clarifies how we should think about language, but it also highlights how flexible and dynamic human communication is in all of its forms.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Complexity, English, Unity, Grammar, Language, Linguistics, Spoken language, Modality, Written forms.

INTRODUCTION

A vital instrument for human communication, language is a dynamic and diverse phenomenon. It is essential for communicating ideas, thoughts, and emotions in all of its forms. One of the most commonly spoken languages in the world, English, has a diverse range of linguistic expression. The spoken and written languages are the two main forms of communication in the English language. These unique ways of expressing yourself are distinguished not just by the media they use, but also by the linguistic structures they use. In order to understand the unity and complexity that underpin the spoken and written English grammatical systems, this investigation looks deeply into the complicated link between them. Although there are clear distinctions between spoken and written language, each have a general grammar that governs their use. By analyzing how their grammatical structures align and diverge, the current research, which is grounded in the framework of Approach B, aims to close the apparent gap between these two ways of communication. We will examine several facets of English grammar, such as sentence structure, phrase kinds, syntactic components, and discourse traits, during this examination.

The Generally Simple Grammar of Conversation

It is often observed that the grammar of speech and conversation is less structured and simpler than that of the majority of written texts. My job as an advocate of Approach B is to make the case

that, if there is a difference between speech and writing which, in general, I think there is—it can be accounted for both within the framework of Approach B's radical difference and within a unified grammatical system and Miller and Weinert assert that the relative absence of subordination in spontaneous speech is one area of grammar where it is less complex and integrated than writing. However, as shown by Biber et al., several subordinate clause types such as that complement clauses and finite adverbial clauses are actually more common in conversation than in the three written modes [1]. It is impossible to tell if conversational grammar is in this regard easier than the other kinds in terms of subordination since there are multiple metrics for determining frequency of subordination.

However, the overall picture from Biber et al. is that nonfinite clauses are more common in conversation, whereas finite clauses apart from those in the noun phrase are more frequent often seen in written registers. However, the most noteworthy variation in complexity, in terms of numbers Speaking generally, the greater simplicity of phrase distinguishes conversational syntax from the syntax of the three written modes. spoken language's structure, notably the concision of nouns prepositional phrases and phrases. very different in such ways have been, and they only concern frequency. A less fixable problem associated with grammatical clarity is the sentencehood issue in spoken grammar. many others have maintained, it is required to exclude the for spontaneous speaking, despite using the phrase as the main grammatical description unit of the typical key status it has received in the syntax that of the written word. Instead, Miller and Weinert choose the sentence complex as the maximum form, an analytical grammar unit. A less extensive unit in Biber et al., the C-unit has an average length of 5 to 6 words instead of the pages that are the standard length. It is decided that the largest syntactic chunk of spoken grammar is the words for a written sentence [2].

In addition to the term C-unit In spoken language, maximal chunk refers to text units Keeping away from technical detail, we might characterize this C-unit as a major clause or a subclause. Stand-alone noncausal unit and any embedded clauses. another method of Consider it as the largest parse able unit possible a portable unit grammatically examined but that cannot be joined to another sentence to create a longer syntactic unit. The assertion that Englishers dialogue may be explained by Such often straightforward syntactic elements seem to amount to a assertion that conversational grammar is lacking at the top end Integrated sentence structure definitely a simplification not only a question of frequency, but of the grammatical system However, it might be claimed that there is no real distinction between the two. Even in written texts, there is no grammatical unit that corresponds to the canonical sentence; hence it may be claimed that this is not a system difference. The phrase is really a graphological unit, or a unit of the writing system. The next section examines this claim mechanism, but that there is no grammatical check even in printed documents unit identical to the model sentence. Instead, the phrasing is a graphological unit, or a unit of the writing system. The next section examines this claim [3].

Conversational Grammar's Lack of Sentence

One of the strongest reasons in support of Approach A, the idea that when analyzing spoken language, we need a separate approach to grammar, has been the inability to partition conversational syntax into units matching to written sentences. I will take that argument into

consideration in this and the subsequent parts before asserting that it also applies to written grammar. The easiest technique to convince someone that sentences in spontaneous spoken language are unviable is to simply ask them to break up a transcription of the speech into sentences. The segmentation will probably turn out to be arbitrary in a variety of ways. Punctuation at the end of sentences, the most evident segmentation criteria, is unreliable. There are no periods in speech as such, hence any periods seen in a voice transcription must be the result of the transcribing process. Second, if one attempts to use the standard criteria for categorizing sentences into simple sentences having a main clause only, complex sentences having a main clause plus embedded clauses, and compound sentences having coordination of main clauses by and, or, but, etc., two major problems arise The first difficulty About one-third of the syntactically independent units C-units that are used in conversational language are nonclausal meaning that they do not have a clause structure with a primary verb and instead often consist of a single non-verb phrase or word [4].

Despite being sometimes referred to as minor clauses or minor sentences by different grammarians, they do not meet any of the conventional requirements for a sentence. Another difficulty is that the major clause coordination condition is not always met in conversational language. Only when the two sentences have a same structure, such, Consequently, they might be seen as collectively comprising a bigger unit. In different scenarios, a coordinator like As well as, is not a sign of grammatical correctness. link, given that these coordinators often have an informal discursive linking mechanism that introduces new sentences any changes. Consequently, there is justification in to choose the first a grammatical connective, but not the second Turn- and utterance-initial words like So and shown. These have a low grammatical position, comparable to or turn carelessly upon another in an utterance. Therefore, it is best to but similar occurrences may also be seen in written grammar, although much less often [5].

Even prototypically written registers have a significant amount of grammatical information that is neither sentential nor even clausal. This material is often found in headings, titles, lists, etc., as in, but it may also be found in flowing text, as in. The two instances that follow are from newspapers. To do away with the notion of a compound sentence, every coordinator that starts a new sentence be treated as a discourse connective. a stand-alone clause or a comparable noncausal item. As a result, beginning of C-units are similar that and, or, and but instead of grammatical constructions, use conjuncts like nevertheless or nonetheless conjunctions are connecting words inside a wider grammatical structure. structure. In other words, rather of being seen as grammatical, these coordinators should instead be regarded as connectives. Returning to the opening stumbling block: The broad variety of conversational noncausal C-units will increase clear to everyone who transcribes even a few pages of impromptu dialogue [6].

Here, I provide a selection of common cases. the highest point line shows one-word isolates and other interjections, but the last examples have phrasal structures. Similar arguments in support of Approach B may be made when conjunctions like and, but, so, and since we just spoke about. The case for considering and but as discursive linkers in Speaking grammar was defined as linking grammatically independent components at the highest level and often introducing new turns in conversation. However, there is a distinction between spoken and here, written grammar is just a

frequency issue. Sequences like the ones below, in which and starts a new phrase or paragraph, are far from uncommon in writing, despite normative criticism. As a result, coordinators are described as words that connect and distinguish between C-units and discursively link Both spoken and written language are covered by C-units [7].

Satellites for Pre- and Post-Clause

Finally, we will discuss another area where spoken and written grammar seem to follow distinct structural rules. A number of speech grammarians have observed that spoken language may create more complicated structures by inserting C-units into the front or back of a larger often clausal) unit as satellite slots. Pre-clause and post-clause slots are referred to by Carter and McCarthy with themes and tails filling them, respectively. Like many other conversational structuring tools, topics seem to serve many purposes. They function as theme elements, providing First priority is given to whatever captures the speaker's attention. However, they also support processibility and data management by dividing a statement into smaller pieces, such intricate noun phrases in the topic. This gadget prevents position poor old Doctor Jones remarked. There are many different kinds of tails, both clausal and noncausal, and they sometimes appear together. Similar to subjects, tails may have several purposes, often acting as an emotional while also serving a function. retroactive justification, support, or explanation of what It was simply spoken. They facilitate speaker repair, but not by much [8].

In the previous sentence, a dysfluency had an uncertain communication consequence unit. They may ease the strain on the working memory, too by lowering the C-units' individual processing complexity. For instance, above would be difficult to understand if recast as a He has a unique blind that leads straight and he has across the raised fanlight. Here, see the incongruity of the long noun phrase with no final. These satellite components seem to support what has been said. Grammar is unique, but not in this instance because of how it simplifies sentence form, but in the way the phrase is explained. Clark and McCarthy made a suggestion for a prolonged clause form that allows for the addition of subjects and tails to the body of a clause, sometimes in conjunction, as in the example in above. According To this idea, the spoken English version of the expanded clause contains a Pre-clause + clause + post-clause is a possible structural pattern. However, my personal choice which is consistent with my liking for reducing the syntax's range when C-units are connected by coordinators is to see these satellites as linguistically separate from the core structure they before or after. There are five reasons why this is preferable.

Analysis A topic's or a tail's linkages to its body are connective elements like lexical repetition, pronoun anaphora, In other contexts, coordination and parataxis operate independently of grammatical form. Pronoun anaphora, for instance, may connect a section of a sentence that serves a topic-affirming purpose comparable to that of a front-dislocated noun phrase. There's this one person, who appears on the station in Ann Arbor in the evening but also appears on stations around the nation. The extended structure's body may be nonclausal, as in Also, stop grinning so much. In the first you serve as the topic's affirmer in situations involving front dislocation. However, the primary structure is a nonclausal C-unit rather than a clause. I take the conclusion from these five considerations that the co-occurrence possibilities listed above cannot be accommodated by a series of grammatical slots. In order to understand pre-clause + clause + post-clause, one has to

think about discourse linking or cohesiveness rather than grammatical structure. These don't need any grammatical justification since they are discursive patterns involving several C-units.

Additionally, keep in mind that phenomena like front and end dislocation, although typical of spoken language, may also be seen in written works like prose fiction However, Anna-Luise, what possibly drew her to a guy in his forties at first, he was unable to make sense of the hazy whiteness and fluttering, like snowflakes. Despite being in quote marks, these passages are really sections of the author's story rather than exact imitations of speech. Therefore, it cannot be maintained that this structure is exclusive to the syntax of speech, even if the position is adopted that such extended clause patterns are a component of syntax elements that fall both within and outside of clause or sentence boundaries [9]. These connections are neither structural, or syntactic, but rather the area of coherence inside a text. The usual nonclausal nature of themes and tails in They are not syntactically dependent due to their form. Speech uses nonclausal C-units a great deal. sequences were used to count the clausal and nonclausal C-units.

All C-units except one third were nonclausal. As opposed to that, parts of the pre- and post-clauses, such as front-dislocated End-dislocated sentences are uncommon, however and was limited in just a tiny portion of the phrases that would normally qualify as C-units on their own. A few satellites have reversible faces, acting as a satellite to both an earlier clause and a later clause I don't want something too enormous, as I've already said, but should even the most recent ones, you should be able to get one for roughly £70 it just moves backwards and forwards, that's all. ideally perform. They hired one of the professors about whom we often make jokes they persuaded one of the young ladies to compose it. The noun phrase in that is highlighted occupies a tail slot. Regarding the previous sentence explaining the pronoun one in fills the subject space with regard to the preceding unit, as well as the subsequent clause. The dysfluent transition from singular to plural go is unimportant at this stage. When is divided by has a dual use that is comparable. C-units with a purpose comparable to pre-clause components can also function as clauses. For instance, the first highlighted.

Review of Written and Spoken Grammar: One System or Two

It could still seem unbelievable that Approach B uses a single grammar. One key assertion is that the sentence is a unit that belongs exclusively to written language, and that the maximum parable unit in speech is a C-unit, which is often significantly shorter than the typical sentence. Another aspect is that the C-unit often consists of a lower-level unit instead of a sentence, such a phrase or a word. This must imply that the sentence-based grammatical system for written English is more complex than the C-unit-based system for spoken English, which is why they are different. This argument essentially rests on the conventional wisdom that the sentence, as a canonically defined structure comprising one or more clauses, is a basic building block of written English grammar. It's undeniable that a unit of this sort prevails in English's prototypically written registers, such as news and academic writing. It is not a grammatical unit, nevertheless, despite what this may imply. Contrarily, my claim is that the phrase is an orthographic unit distinguished by the capitalization of the first letter and the punctuation at the end that may or may not correlate to a single C-unit. An example of a phrase made up of two syntactically distinct C-units is the following: A period of her life that she had enjoyed was coming to an end.

As a result, the C-unit, although mainly designed to describe spoken grammar, also offers a useful working foundation for written grammar. The claim that written language is based on sentence grammar and is basically distinct from speech grammar is not supported in this context. If we take a look at other forms of written language as well, this combining of the grammars of speech and writing has the further benefit of allowing one grammar to be used for mixed registers like prose fiction. Fictional texts are mixed in that they include a mixture of grammatical phenomena that are distinctly distinctive of speech and are often imitative of speech in addition to elements of written grammatical style. The incorporation of spoken grammar, however, is not restricted to overt imitations of spoken language; it may also be seen more subtly in private monologues and other narrative motifs. Additionally, this admixture may be seen in other literary registers as well, such journalistic prose, as can be seen in the example above. The case for Approach B that spoken and written English use the same grammar repertoire, but at different frequencies has been made in the previous arguments on the presumption that if Approach B can be squared with known facts, it is a simpler hypothesis than Approach [10].

DISCUSSION

The debate over the consistency and complexity of English grammar in both spoken and written forms is instructive and crucial to our comprehension of language in general. It raises new questions and provides fresh perspectives on how these two forms of communication interact. Here, we explore the main themes of this conversation. A unified grammar system The unified grammar structure proposed by Approach B is applicable to both spoken and written English. This viewpoint questions the conventional wisdom that these two languages have different grammatical systems. Instead, it argues that the disparities seen are essentially a function of how often and how often certain language elements are used. Periodicity and Variation The notion that the frequency of certain grammatical components in spoken and written English varies is one of the main justifications for Approach B. For instance, spoken language often utilizes shorter sentences and more nonfinite clauses than written language, which may have more intricate sentence structures. This variance in frequency indicates a difference in communication demands rather than a distinct grammar. C-Units and Sentences: According to conventional grammar, sentences are the basic building block of written language. Approach B, on the other hand, disproves this idea by proposing the C-unit as a superior unit for comprehending spoken language. C-units are composed of clauses, phrases, or even single words and are often shorter than sentences. The importance of pragmatics and real-time processing in spoken language is highlighted by this change in viewpoint. Discourse Elements: The manner in which discourse elements are used in spoken and written language also varies. In order to promote real-time communication, spoken language makes greater use of discourse markers, fillers, and interactive components. In written language, when the reader has more time to comprehend the text, these characteristics are less common. According to Approach B, these variations are caused more by pragmatic factors than by different grammatical structures.

CONCLUSION

Whether or whether the viewpoint of differentness Approach A or sameness Approach B is prevalent in the thinking of the investigator, new research on spoken English grammar using

electronic corpora may improve our knowledge and comprehension of the grammar of speech in many ways. Additionally, there are certain beneficial ramifications for language instruction. With a little exaggeration, we can say that the Nottingham school, like Brazil, views spoken language grammar as a sort of terra incognita for which the official maps of the grammatical tradition, being focused on the written language, provide insufficient assistance. According to Carter and McCarthy, such characteristics of spoken grammar have either been excluded from or neglected in that tradition, therefore there isn't currently a widely acknowledged metalanguage for addressing them. The spoken grammar atlas has yet to be produced, but research is becoming better at assisting the explorer. The corpus grammarians listed in this review have conducted some very beneficial research in this area and have brought back some great maps that are useful for both study and the classroom. Instead, Carter and McCarthy recommend It is hard to argue against using actual data. However, the controversy surrounding the use of real speech data in the classroom not been biased in any way. For instance, while appreciating the benefits of corpus resources for education, Podromou raises worries that conversational data's elliptic, context- and culture-bound character would lead to inappropriate understanding difficulties for the student. More extensive worries are expressed from Widdowson in 2000. The corpus revolution often promotes a pragmatic way to teaching grammar that places a strong focus on accessibility using relevant actual data, and where required computational tools, in addition to the incorporation of spoken grammar and functions, both lexical patterning and discourse.

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CHAPTER 5

LEXICAL REQUIREMENTS FOR UNDERSTANDING ACADEMIC SPOKEN ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT:

Both students and professionals alike need to be able to understand academic spoken English. However, the lexical requirements of this particular kind of speech are still largely unexplored in linguistic studies. What lexical criteria are essential to properly understand academic spoken English is the topic of this abstract. We explore the idea of coverage, which denotes the proportion of well-known terms in a text, to address this question. While there are several aspects that affect comprehension, coverage stands out as a crucial component in determining the amount of the vocabulary needed for efficient understanding. Even while written texts and everyday talk have been the subject of substantial study, spoken academic discourse has not received as much attention. This abstract explores the intricacies of vocabulary needs for academic spoken English comprehension by drawing conclusions from second language research and practical investigations. This abstract concludes by highlighting the significance of lexical needs in understanding academic spoken English. It draws attention to the complexity of coverage criteria and the possible benefit of specialist languages like the AWL for improving comprehension. This study advances our knowledge of the language subtleties that support successful academic communication.

KEYWORDS

Academic Word List, Academic Discourse, Lexical Coverage, Vocabulary Requirements, Vocabulary Size.

INTRODUCTION

Academic spoken English, like lectures or seminars, can be really difficult for students who are learning English as a second language in English-medium universities. Many students struggle to understand academic spoken English because they don't know enough words. Studies have shown that knowing many words is important for understanding what you hear. To help students understand academic spoken English better, we need to figure out how many words they need to know. Learning Coxhead's AWL could be the best way for students who are learning a second language to get better at understanding academic written text. But it is not known if the AWL can help people understand academic spoken text as much as it helps them understand academic written text, because not much research has been done on this. This study wants to find out how often the AWL words are used in academic spoken English. It also wants to know how many words a person needs to know in order to understand 95% and 98% of academic spoken English, with or without using the AWL. This research could help English for Academic Purposes courses by setting a vocabulary target. Once students reach this target, they may be able to understand

academic spoken English better. This study might also show how helpful the Academic Word List (AWL) is for understanding academic English when it is spoken [1], [2].

One way to figure out how many words are needed to cover specific points in a text is by calculating the number of words required. Coverage refers to how many words in a text you already know. Measuring coverage is helpful because it tells us how many words we need to understand a text. There are many things that can affect how well we understand something, but one thing that has a big impact is how much information we have about the topic. No one has studied how much English you need to understand academic speaking. However, research on the level of language proficiency needed to understand written texts and everyday conversations may give us an idea of how many words are needed to understand academic spoken English. Many studies have looked at how much information people need to understand written text. Laufer said that if we understand 95% of the words in a difficult academic text, it should be enough for us to understand it reasonably well. However, it is necessary to understand 98% of the words in order to comprehend a relatively easy fiction story in a second language without any assistance [3], [4].

Schmitt, there is a direct connection between how many words you understand and how well you understand something. Even though they didn't find a specific coverage number that guarantees understanding, they mentioned that the amount of coverage needed might change depending on how much understanding is required. They said that it might be necessary to cover 98% if you want comprehension test scores of 60% or more. This agrees idea that there are two levels of understanding for vocabulary: a minimal level at 95% comprehension and an optimal level at 98% comprehension. Research has shown that the connection between how much information you have and how well you understand what you read has been somewhat consistent. However, when it comes to how much information you have and how well you understand what you hear, different studies have shown conflicting results. sometimes learners understood what they heard quite well when they understood 80-89% of the words being said. Bonk also suggested that learners who have good ways of dealing with challenges could understand what they hear even if they understand less than 95% of the words [5], [6].

This works better for shorter texts. Nevertheless, when examined Bonk's findings more closely, it appeared that learners who understood 90% or less of the information may not have fully grasped what was being said, whereas those who understood 95% or more had a good understanding. Up until now, a study conducted by Xue and Nation in 1984, as well as another, have been the most thorough research on how the words you know impact your ability to understand what you hear. When studying how well people understand informal stories, researchers discovered that how many words people need to understand depends on how well they want to understand the story. They are saying that aiming for 98% coverage is a good goal for understanding information very well, and aiming for 95% coverage is a good goal for understanding information well, but not necessarily understanding everything in informal stories. The given text is incomplete and cannot be further simplified without more context or information. Please provide more information or complete the text. The differences in the results indicate that the amount of information needed to understand something may change depending on the type of conversation and how well it needs to be understood. Understanding academic spoken English can be easier than understanding

written texts or radio programs. This is because when people speak in academic English, they use their face and body movements to help them communicate. They might also use things like papers, books, and pictures on a screen to help explain their ideas. However, understanding academic spoken English might be harder than understanding informal conversation because informal conversation uses more common words than academic spoken English [7], [8].

Success in higher education and academic contexts requires the ability to understand and interpret spoken academic English. Lectures, presentations, debates, seminars, and other types of communication in academic settings all fall under the broad category of academic spoken English. People require a firm command of the relevant vocabulary and grammatical structures to participate in and understand these spoken exchanges. The lexical requirements for comprehending academic spoken English are examined in this introduction, which also discusses the value of the Academic Word List , vocabulary size, and coverage thresholds in obtaining comprehension. The AWL, a particular list of academic terms created by Coxhead , and the concepts of lexical coverage have both been used in research on the vocabulary needs for academic spoken English. Researchers have looked at the connection between vocabulary quantity and comprehension to determine the minimum covering levels required for efficient comprehension. These standards often lie between 90% and 99% coverage. This review lays the foundation for a thorough investigation of the lexical needs of academic spoken English. The study results on coverage thresholds, vocabulary size, and the distribution of the AWL in academic spoken discourse are covered in detail in the discussion that follows. We want to shed light on the crucial role vocabulary plays in overcoming the challenges of academic spoken English comprehension by examining these characteristics [9], [10].

How many words are need to understand spoken academic English

Calculating the number of words required to attain certain coverage points is one method of identifying the lexical needs of a document. The proportion of words in a text that are recognized is known as coverage. Measuring coverage is important because it may reveal the quantity of the vocabulary required for text comprehension. Although there are other elements that might influence understanding, coverage may have the greatest impact. There haven't been any research looking at the coverage required for understanding spoken academic English. However, studies on the vocabulary size required for understanding academic spoken English from L2 speakers may provide some insight into the coverage required for reading written materials and understanding casual conversation. The majority of L2 studies that gauge the coverage required for comprehension have been done using written material. According to Laufer , 95% coverage might result in passable understanding of an academic paper written in a second language. Hu and Nation discovered that, even for a very simple L2 fiction piece, good unaided reading comprehension required 98% covering. Lexical coverage and understanding were determined to be linearly related by Schmitt, Jiang, and Grabe.

They proposed that the necessary coverage level may vary depending on the desired level of understanding even though they were unable to discover a coverage number that guaranteed comprehension. They said that if understanding test scores of 60% or above are required, 98% coverage could be required. This backs up Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski's recommendation to

employ two lexical coverage standards dependent on the level of understanding: 95% for limited comprehension and 98% for optimum comprehension. Studies examining the connection between coverage and reading comprehension have generally produced consistent findings, whereas those examining the connection between coverage and hearing comprehension have shown rather mixed findings.

According to Bonk, learners with appropriate coping mechanisms may be able to obtain sufficient hearing comprehension at levels much lower than 95% coverage for short texts. Bonk observed that learners sometimes had good listening comprehension at 80-89% coverage. Schmitt 2008, however, went on to further analyze Bonk's findings and found that although students with coverage of 95% or more had acceptable understanding, those with coverage of 90% or less may not have. The most thorough investigation of the connection between lexical coverage and listening comprehension to date may be found in Van-Zeeland and Schmitt's 2012 work. They discovered that depending on the intended level of understanding, different lexical coverage is required for listening comprehension in L1 and L2 learners. According to them, 95% may be the optimal text coverage objective for good but not necessarily complete understanding of informal narratives, while 98% may be a desirable coverage goal for very high comprehension The differences in results imply that the coverage required for understanding may change depending on the style of discourse and the level of intended comprehension.

On the one hand, understanding academic spoken English could be simpler than understanding written books or radio broadcasts. This is so that speakers' facial expressions and hand gestures, as well as additional resources like handouts, textbooks, and visuals shown on the board or overhead projector, can enhance the auditory intake of academic spoken English However, understanding academic spoken English may be more challenging than understanding casual conversation Van-Zeeland & Schmitt, 2012, since informal conversation vocabulary may include more high-frequency terms than academic spoken English vocabulary. Research shows that a coverage of 90% to 99% may be sufficient to understand spoken academic English. The lower and higher thresholds used in the current research to indicate spoken academic English comprehension were 95% and 98% coverage. These coverage percentages were selected because Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski 2010 and VanZeeland and Schmitt 2012 both cite 95% and 98% coverage as indicative of acceptable Laufer, 1989 and optimum Nation, 2006 reading comprehension, respectively.

The size of the vocabulary required to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of various types of written discourse, including graded readers Nation, 2006; Webb & Macalister, 2012, newspapers Nation, 2006, children's literature Webb & Macalister, 2012, and novels Nation, 2006, has been the subject of a sizable number of corpus-driven studies. Fewer studies have focused on spoken speech, and those that have all dealt with spoken discourse in casual conversation as opposed to academic contexts. Nation2006 reported that 3,000-word families gave 95% coverage of unscripted spoken English, while 6,000–7,000-word families provided 98% coverage when proper nouns were included. Similarly, 95% and 98% coverage of TV shows and movies, respectively, required 3,000-word families plus proper nouns and marginal words and 6,000–7,000-word families plus such terms. According to Van-Zeeland and Schmitt 2012, learners would need between 2,000- and

3,000-word families to achieve 95% lexical coverage of spoken text. Together, these analyses indicate that, in order to capture 95% and 98% of common spoken English, respectively, 2,000–3,000-word families and 6,000–7,000-word families, together with proper nouns and marginal terms, are required.

AWL coverage in academic English spoken

The University Word List created by Xue and Nation in 1994 has been replaced by Coxhead's AWL. The AWL contains 570-word families drawn from a 3.5 million token corpus, which was divided into four sub-corpora: arts, commerce, law, and science, based on the criteria of specialized occurrence, range, and frequency. 10.0% of the tokens in Coxhead's academic corpus were covered by the AWL. Across the four disciplines, the AWL's coverage varied from 9.1% to 12% . Numerous research have looked at how the AWL is used in academic written English since it was first developed, and the majority of them have shown results that are consistent with Coxhead's findings. Two studies that look at the distribution of the AWL in interdisciplinary corpora are Cobb and Horst and Hyland and Tse . From the Learned component of the Brown corpus, Cobb and Horst discovered that the AWL accounted for 11.6% coverage of their 14,283 token corpus of text segments in seven disciplines: linguistics, sociology, history, social psychology, development, medicine, and zoology.

Hyland and Tse discovered that the AWL encompassed 10.6% of their 3.3 million token corpora of writings by both professional and student authors in the fields of science, engineering, and social sciences. Research on the AWL's coverage in certain fields further confirms the conclusions made by Coxhead . According to research, the AWL covered 10.07% of articles on medicine , 11.17% of papers on applied linguistics , 9.06% of articles on agriculture , 11.3% of textbooks on engineering , and 10.46% of the Hong Kong Financial Services Corpus . Only Konstantakis made an exception, reporting a rather low AWL coverage rate . The fact that this corpus was made up of Business English course materials may account for the limited coverage of the AWL in it. Research on the AWL has shown how important it is for understanding academic discourse. Nesi , Thompson , and Hyland and Tse contend that conclusions are mostly based on examination of academic writing. Therefore, it is necessary to look into whether the AWL can help with spoken English for academic purposes.

There aren't many research that look at how the AWL is distributed in academic spoken English. This could be due to the challenges associated with gathering and evaluating spoken data . Only three research have examined the AWL coverage in spoken academic material to this point. Hincks discovered that the AWL made up just 2.4% of a token sample of 13,471 oral presentations made by English language learners. The lack of coverage of the AWL in this corpus may be due to the fact that non-native English speakers rather than native English speakers created the academic discourse that was studied. In her effort to create an academic spoken word list to complement the AWL using the BASE corpus, Nesi discovered that her academic spoken word list was made up of both AWL-compliant and non-compliant terms. She omitted to include the number of word families and the scope of this wordlist's coverage in her academic spoken wordlist, however. She also didn't provide the number of words or the proportion of her word list that overlapped the

AWL. The most thorough study of the AWL's coverage in academic spoken English to date may be found in Thompson.

Thompson analyzed the coverage of the AWL in academic lectures by examining the 160 lectures in the BASE corpus as part of his study to develop an academic lecture wordlist. The result demonstrates that there is still a debate about whether academic spoken English is distributed equally across fields in the AWL. Both Cobb and Horst and Hyland and Tse discovered that the AWL was not uniformly distributed across fields in academic written material. The coverage of the AWL varied among seven disciplinary sub-corpora, according to Cobb and Horst , with history having the most coverage and medicine having the lowest . Similar to this, Hyland and Tse discovered that the AWL was unevenly distributed among fields, with the sciences having the lowest coverage and engineering having the greatest coverage . The coverage of the AWL across fields has not, however, been studied in the area of academic spoken text. In actuality, no one in the three studies of the AWL's coverage in academic spoken English looked at the AWL's coverage in specific fields.

Last but not least, it should be mentioned that the AWL was created in reference to West's General Service List , which means that for a word family member to be included in the AWL, it must not be one of the top 2,000 GSL word families. The GSL is relatively outdated and lacks some modern terminology, despite the fact that it still functions rather well . On the other hand, Nation's British National Corpus listings could more accurately reflect modern jargon. In fact, the first, second, and third 1,000-word levels of the BNC include a significant portion of the AWL word families. Therefore, it would be helpful to find out how much the AWL genuinely aids students in understanding academic spoken English who have previously mastered the most common 1,000, 2,000, or 3,000 BNC word families. In other words, if the AWL is known, it may be crucial to consider what vocabulary size is required to obtain 95% and 98% coverage of academic spoken English. There was just 4.9% of the lectures covered by AWL.

Research issues

The research revealed that various studies have looked at the quantity of the vocabulary required to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of spoken and written content, respectively, in everyday communication. The quantity of the vocabulary required to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of academic spoken English must be investigated, however. Additionally, despite the fact that numerous research has looked at how the AWL is covered in written text, relatively few have done so in depth. The discussion of this list in academic discourse, and none of these studies have looked at how the AWL is covered across fields.

Methodology

This research employed the BASE corpus, which is made up of 160 lectures and 39 seminars that were recorded at the Universities of Warwick and Reading between 2000 and 2005. The four major disciplinary sub-corpora that made up this 1,691,997 token corpus are the arts and humanities, life and medical sciences, physical sciences, and social sciences. Except for Physical Sciences, which only has 9 seminars, each sub-corpus has 40 lectures and 10 seminars. Two factors led to the selection of the BASE corpus. First, the BASE corpus displays the academic spoken English that

L2 learners often come across while studying at English-medium institutions since it was created from actual university lecture and seminar conversation. Second, the BASE corpus, which includes sub-corpora, is the biggest academic spoken British-English corpus. Consequently, it seems to provide a helpful contrast to the corpus examined in Coxhead's research. The lecture and seminar components of the BASE corpus are not compared in this research; rather, it compares the four discipline components. Because the seminar had too few tokens, lectures and seminars were assessed together to support their independent study. Receptive knowledge is the topic of this research. As stated by According to Nation and Webb, the term family is the best counting unit. Research centered on understanding. This is because if students have knowledge of one- or Two-word family members need minimal effort to recognize and comprehend different members of the family.

For instance, if the term Change is well-known, and its word family also includes words like changing, changeable, and Unchanged may be identified and comprehended. The transcript's text files were utilized for the analysis. Inaudible words are highlighted in Because of the current study, the academic spoken corpus transcript was eliminated. solely concerned with verbal communication. 15,991 tokens, or 0.945%, were used to present the 2,041 tokens identifying the speakers' names Coughing, sighing, and laughing by speakers that weren't included in the analysis. In a similar vein, incomplete words, Additionally, of the whole corpus was eliminated. It is important to note that the speakers Despite not being included in the study, non-verbal cues and incomplete sentences may In spoken circumstances, they said the listeners' understanding. This attribute shows a distinction between oral and written conversation. Phonetic transcriptions, which made up 145 tokens were also eliminated from the corpus since RANGE cannot identify them. They were perhaps well-known since they were on the show and because they represented words with a high frequency.

Despite the fact that these phonetic transcriptions might by imitating the speakers' pronunciation, listeners may identify the words that are stated. Consequently, they would not have much of an impact on the corpus given their small fraction the outcome Contractions and outdated spellings that appeared in quotes were updated to reflect the word lists from the BNC's spelling guide. They represented 947. 137 tokens of the whole corpus, or 0.056%, and 137 tokens, respectively. Absent the These words would have been mistakenly classed as being bad due to alterations in their spelling. less common than the 14,000-word families with the highest frequency. But it should be mentioned that just because listeners know a word's entire form doesn't imply, they can understand it terms in their shortened versions. The modest proportion of these changes, nevertheless, implies that they may not have much of an effect on the analysis's findings. Similarly, spaces were used in lieu of hyphens in the majority of hyphenated items to make the words that hyphenated words would be categorized based on how often they appeared in wordlists for BNC. The hyphens in the terms full-time and part-time, for instance, they were then categorized based on how often their single-word elements appeared after being eliminated.

In contrast, hyphens were eliminated from nouns like second-hand and peacekeeping. The phrases secondhand and peacekeeping were formed by joining the components. The choice of whether to split hyphenated words or leave them as single words was made determined by determining

whether or not its combined form was present in the 14 base lists of the BNC. In addition, the hyphenated items sometimes revealed how the speakers spelt the phrase. letter-by-letter for instance, euhemerism is E-U-H-E-M-E-R-I-S-M or anarchy is A-N-A-R-C-H.

These items no longer have hyphens and have spaces instead. were included since this precisely represented how the listeners understood the term by hearing the speakers' spellings of the words. But hyphens in abbreviations like B-B-C and O-D-A were eliminated, along with the gaps, to make them seem as their written BBC and ODA versions. This is due to how students interpret these terms in They could sound the same in spoken form as they do in written form. Despite the fact that most hyphens were deleted from hyphenated elements, formulations like C-5-H-6, and C-H-3-O-H were preserved. 2,758 tokens of the whole corpus belonged to them. This choice was taken because the formulae that would result if the hyphens were substituted with spaces represented the low-frequency syllables C-5-H-6 and C-3-O-H, if converted, would have created C 5 H 6 and C H 3 O H, which would have been categorized as high-frequency by the RANGE software words. Despite being included in the proper noun list, proper nouns have a variety of other classifications. Nouns were mistakenly labeled by RANGE as Not in the lists than the top 14,000 word groups in frequency. These things have been classed and added to the list of acceptable nouns. Similarly, a certain amount of marginal terms like 1,080 tokens 0.064% of the corpus were mm, mmhm, aagh, and aahh although being marked as Not in the lists, did not appear in the marginal word list. These The marginal word list was expanded and certain entries were categorized.

DISCUSSION

For students, researchers, and professionals in a variety of sectors, understanding academic spoken English is a crucial ability. However, understanding this specific kind of spoken speech needs a solid lexical base. Due to its extensive vocabulary, particular discipline terminology, and complex language structures, academic spoken English poses a special lexical challenge to listeners. In this discussion, we delve deeper into the lexical requirements for understanding this language, looking at vocabulary size, coverage thresholds, and the significance of the Academic Word List. A large vocabulary size is necessary for understanding since speakers often use a wide variety of words and phrases to communicate complicated concepts. One's capacity to comprehend academic spoken English is strongly influenced by the breadth of their lexical range. A more extensive vocabulary makes it easier for listeners to understand complex arguments, comprehend subtle meanings, and identify and interpret specialist words. A wide vocabulary is essential for adaptability in understanding different academic fields since academic debates usually include a range of topics, from science to humanities. There has been minimal but useful research on the prevalence of AWL terms in academic spoken English. According to Thompson’s survey of academic lectures, the AWL only covered 4.9% of these spoken texts. This shows that although the AWL is a useful tool for academic reading and writing, it may only provide limited assistance for understanding academic spoken English, especially in lecture circumstances when understanding academic spoken English requires a large lexical vocabulary. Size of the vocabulary, coverage requirements, and the particular requirements of academic discourse all play significant roles. Students and teachers alike should be aware of the value of vocabulary learning and take into account that academic spoken English may demand greater coverage levels than

written academic literature. The AWL is still a helpful tool, but for efficient understanding in academic spoken situations, there has to be more emphasis on domain-specific vocabulary and context-dependent words.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, completing stringent lexical criteria is a prerequisite for being proficient in comprehending academic spoken English. The crucial importance of vocabulary size, coverage thresholds, and the Academic Word List in improving understanding of academic spoken language has been clarified by this debate. Academic spoken English is distinguished by its broad vocabulary, subject-specific jargon, and complex grammatical structures. A broad lexical vocabulary becomes essential for efficient understanding as speakers explore various topics and communicate complicated thoughts. People with wider vocabulary sets are better able to understand subtle meanings, decipher technical terminology, and comprehend complex arguments. Therefore, spending money on vocabulary development is crucial for students, researchers, and professionals who want to succeed in academic contexts. Vocabulary coverage, calculated as the proportion of terms in a text that are known, plays a crucial role in determining understanding. According to research, high coverage thresholds often in the 90–99% range are often needed to achieve sufficient understanding of spoken academic English.

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CHAPTER 6

UNDERSTANDING ACADEMIC SPOKEN ENGLISH: VARIABILITY IN VOCABULARY REQUIREMENTS

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ABSTRACT:

This research explores the changing landscape of vocabulary needs for understanding spoken academic English and evaluates how well the Academic Word List (AWL) fills these gaps. A thorough examination reveals that academic spoken English requires a vocabulary that is substantially greater than ordinary spoken English, underscoring the need of having stronger language skills in academic settings. The study also reveals significant differences in vocabulary needs across academic fields, emphasizing the value of terminology that is specialized to a certain field. The AWL, which was initially intended to include the most important academic vocabulary, is discovered to only cover a small portion of academic discourse, highlighting the differences between spoken and written academic communication. This research emphasizes the value of broadening one's vocabulary beyond the AWL while also recognizing the impact of discipline-specific vocabulary problems in navigating academic speaking environments. Overall, the results provide insight into the complex link between vocabulary quantity, academic domains, and the AWL's applicability to spoken English comprehension in academic settings.

KEYWORDS:

Academic Communication, Academic Discourse, Academic Word List (AWL), Lexical Variability, Language Proficiency, Vocabulary Size, Vocabulary Requirements.

INTRODUCTION

A varied and specialized vocabulary characterizes academic discourse, a dynamic area of language usage. Understanding spoken English is a crucial ability for students, teachers, and researchers alike in this academic setting. The degree to which a person can comprehend academic spoken English, however, varies widely and is determined by a variety of elements, including their vocabulary knowledge. This research examines the complexities of understanding spoken academic English by examining the differences in vocabulary needs across academic fields and the function of the Academic Word List (AWL) in facilitating this comprehension. As they engage with spoken academic information from a variety of disciplines, students and researchers come across both a broad range of discipline-specific terms and generic academic language. These language difficulties bring up important issues, including: How much of a vocabulary needs one have to adequately understand academic spoken English? Are the lexical requirements of this context well met by the AWL, a well-known collection of academic words.

This study studies the vocabulary size necessary to obtain high levels of coverage (95% and 98%) in academic spoken English and looks into how these needs differ across various academic fields to provide answers to these issues. It also evaluates how well the AWL matches the vocabulary of

academic spoken English. This research offers important insights for language educators, curriculum designers, and learners attempting to negotiate the challenging landscape of spoken academic discourse by illuminating the diversity in vocabulary needs and the function of the AWL. To improve language skills and facilitate efficient academic communication, it is crucial to comprehend the subtleties of vocabulary needs.

Size of Vocabulary and Its Effects

According to the results of the first study question, academic spoken English is covered by a vocabulary of 4,000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words in 95% of cases, and by 8,000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words in 98% of cases. The results of the present study suggest that in comparison to the vocabulary sizes of 2,000–3,000 word families to achieve 95% coverage and 6,000–7,000 word families to achieve 98% coverage of general spoken English, a larger vocabulary size is required to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of academic spoken English. In other words, compared to general spoken English, learners would need to know 1,000–2,000 additional word families to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of academic spoken English. Adolphs and Schmitt's (2004) findings that learners need a bigger vocabulary to cope with academic/training discourse than casual speech are consistent with this [1]. Additionally, it implies that learners need to expand their vocabulary in order to comprehend academic spoken English.

In response to the second study question, the findings showed that the quantity of vocabulary required to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of each subject varied greatly. Proper nouns and marginal words enable learners to acquire 95% coverage of the Social Sciences sub-corpus with only 3,000 word families, and 98% coverage with 5,000 word families. In comparison, 5,000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words and 13,000 word families plus proper nouns and marginal words, respectively, were the vocabulary sizes required to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of the Life and Medical Sciences sub-corpus. Adolphs and Schmitt's (2004) conclusion that the quantity of vocabulary required for effective comprehension changes according to various forms of spoken discourse is supported by the fluctuation between the vocabulary sizes necessary to accomplish 95% and 98% coverage of each sub-corpus [2].

The difference in vocabulary size required to represent 95% and 98% of academic spoken English across several fields raises the possibility that each discipline may have its own unique lexical requirements, with some being more challenging to comprehend than others. Even while having a working grasp of a particular discipline's technical vocabulary may improve L2 learners' understanding of academic spoken English in that field, different disciplines may have different numbers and definitions of technical terms. Because of this, students must be aware that even while they may have the vocabulary necessary for complete mastery of one field, there can be lexical difficulties with understanding of other disciplines. Social Sciences required the fewest word sizes while Life and Medical Sciences required the biggest vocabulary sizes to achieve coverage values of 95% and 98%, respectively. This shows that when it comes to lexical coverage, Social Sciences may be the least demanding field while Life and Medical Sciences is the most demanding [3].

For two reasons, it is preferable to strive for receptive knowledge of the most common 4,000 word families as the minimal vocabulary size required for EAP students to grasp academic aural

literature. First, in interactive communication, students might employ cues from gestures or communicative techniques to speed up their understanding (Adolphs & Schmitt, 2003; Harris, 2003). The lexical strain on listening comprehension could be lessened as a result. Second, even while coverage of 98% or more may be optimal, learners may still succeed in acquiring a sufficient level of listening comprehension with coverage of less than 95% (Van-Zeeland & Schmitt, 2012). Therefore, if the AWL is unknown, knowledge of the top 4,000 word families may be required for enrollment in EAP courses. It should be stressed, nevertheless, that more coverage ought to enhance understanding [4].

Regarding the third study question, 4.41% of the tokens in the academic spoken corpus were AWL. Comparing this coverage to other studies of academic written corpora reveals that it is quite low: However, Thompson's (2006) results are supported by the AWL coverage offered in this research. The fact that the current study employed data from both lectures and seminars whereas Thompson (2006)'s corpus included just 20 lectures may account for the somewhat greater coverage of the AWL identified in Thompson's (2006) study (4.9%). It's possible that the AWL's limited coverage of the academic spoken corpus results from its development from an examination of written literature. The AWL may not completely cover academic vocabulary in academic spoken English, as seen by the stark contrast between the coverage it offers in spoken and written text. According to the fourth study question, the AWL was not spread equally across all academic fields. This is in line with the results of Cobb and Horst (2004) and Hyland and Tse (2007). In the current research, the Arts and Humanities sub-corpus had the lowest coverage of the AWL while the Social Sciences sub-corpus had the greatest coverage [5].

This implies that students majoring in the social sciences would gain the most by memorizing this list, whilst those majoring in the arts and humanities would gain the least. According to Hyland and Tse (2007), the high frequency of terms in the AWL that are common to business-oriented fields may be the cause of the AWL's increased coverage in the Social Sciences sub-corpus. The AWL may have more terms relating to business-related fields as a consequence of Coxhead's (2000) choice of disciplines. Her commerce sub-corpus comprises of fields like accounting, economics, and finance that are somewhat comparable, but other sub-corpora like sciences contain disciplines like geography, mathematics, and biology that are less related. As a consequence, in the current research, the AWL gave the broadest coverage in the sub-corpus of social sciences that includes topics related to business.

Analysis

The language in the BASE corpus was examined using the RANGE software. This computer application organizes a text's vocabulary according to the word lists that are used with it. 14 lists of word families from the 1,000 to 14,000 word levels were used with RANGE to indicate the 1,000 word level at which the words in the text occurred in order to determine the vocabulary size required to attain 95% and 98% coverage of the corpus These lists were produced using the vocabulary and frequency data from the BNC. The RANGE software classified less common terms that do not belong to the top 14,000 word families as proper nouns, marginal words, or Not in the lists. Because EAP students are likely to know or be able to recognize these words, proper nouns and marginal words items that can only marginally be regarded as words such as interjections,

hesitation procedures, and exclamations were included in the cumulative coverage at the 1,000-word level. Three baseword lists were combined with RANGE to calculate the proportion of academic terms in the BASE corpus and each subcorpus. The first and second 1,000 words in West's (1953) GSL make up baseword lists 1 and 2, whereas Coxhead's (2000) AWL makes up baseword list. The information regarding the coverage of each baseword list in the BASE corpus and each sub-corpus is provided by the analysis using RANGE and these lists [6].

Results

The total coverage for the BASE corpus and its four sub-corpora, including proper nouns and marginal terms. A vocabulary of 4,000 word families gave 96.05% coverage when combined with proper nouns and marginal terms, while a vocabulary of 8,000 word families accounted for 98.00% coverage of the BASE corpus. The vocabulary required to achieve 95% coverage varied by discipline. To attain 96.01% coverage of the Social Sciences sub-corpus, knowledge of the most common 3,000 word families, together with proper nouns and marginal terms, was required. The Physical Sciences sub-corpus was covered with 96.16% and the Arts and Humanities sub-corpus with 96.03% of the most common 4,000 word families, respectively. To attain 95.46% coverage of the Life and Medical Sciences sub-corpus, knowledge of the top 5,000 word families was required. The vocabulary needed to achieve 98% coverage varied more widely amongst fields. In addition to proper nouns and marginal terms, the vocabulary size required to achieve 98% coverage varies from 5,000 to 13,000 word families.

To attain 98.12% coverage of the Social Sciences subcorpus, a vocabulary consisting of the 5,000 word families with the highest frequency combined with proper nouns and peripheral terms was adequate. Larger vocabulary sizes 7,000 word families for arts and humanities, 10,000 word families for physical sciences, and 13,000 word families for life and medical sciences were required to achieve 98% coverage of the other three sub-corpora [7]. The findings show that Life and Medical Sciences was the most lexically demanding at both 95% and 98% coverage, while Social Sciences was the least lexically demanding The distribution of the AWL throughout the BASE corpus and each sub-corpus. 4.41% of the BASE corpus was covered by the AWL. This list was spread out equally to the four sub-corpora. It had the lowest coverage in the Arts and Humanities sub-corpus and the greatest coverage in the Social Sciences sub-corpus (5.21%). The first 3,000 word families in the AWL list contain a significant proportion of AWL word families. Consequently, to estimate the extent of the vocabulary required to achieve 95% and 98% coverage of academic spoken English using It was necessary to look at the AWL and how it was distributed in the BNC word lists [8].

The abundance of technical terminology in this sub-corpus might be one factor.

This shows that in order to comprehend academic spoken English in this sector, learners require a different sort of vocabulary, namely technical terms as well as high-frequency and academic words. Studies by Chung and Nation (2003) and Cobb and Host (2004) lend credence to this. In their anatomy book, Chung and Nation (2003) discovered a significant proportion of technical terminology (37.6%). According to Cobb and Horst (2004), the large quantity of specialised language in the medicine sub-corpus is the reason why the AWL supplied the least coverage in

their medical sub-corpus in contrast to the other six discipline sub-corpora. AWL coverage varied across spoken corpus sub-corpora, although it did so less unevenly than it did between written corpora's sub-corpora, despite the fact that the AWL was not uniformly distributed between sub-corpora of the spoken corpus [9]. In Coxhead (2000), Cobb and Horst (2004), and Hyland and Tso (2007), the means and standard deviations (SD) of the AWL are larger than those in the BASE corpus.

The AWL is still a useful tool to help listening to academic spoken English for various fields, as seen by the little variation in the distribution of the AWL across each sub-corpus of the BASE corpus. In response to the fifth study question, learners with a vocabulary size of 3,000 word families may achieve 95% coverage of academic spoken English with the use of the AWL. A vocabulary size of 8,000 word families is required to achieve 98% coverage. To attain 95% and 98% coverage, respectively, 4,000 and 8,000 word families are required if the AWL is unknown. The results showed that the first three 1,000 word BNC lists contained 79, 199, and 87 items from the AWL. Therefore, L2 learners who are familiar with the most common 3,000 BNC word families would only need to learn the final 205 word families from the AWL to achieve 95% coverage of academic spoken English. As a consequence, compared to the 1,000 items at the fourth 1,000-word level, the AWL places a lower lexical load on L2 learners to achieve 95% coverage. Therefore, despite the AWL's poorer coverage in academic spoken English compared to academic written English, it still provides value in terms of saving students time and effort in order to achieve 95% coverage [10].

DISCUSSION

The debate on the subject of Understanding Academic Spoken English: Variability in Vocabulary Requirements and the Role of the Academic Word List (AWL) explores a number of crucial facets of vocabulary size and its relevance in understanding academic spoken English. We'll examine some of the discussion's important themes here The research emphasises the significant vocabulary needs for efficient understanding of academic spoken English. Vocabulary Size and Its Implications. It shows that in order to obtain 95% and 98% coverage, learners need a vocabulary that is much greater than that of commonly spoken English. This conclusion is consistent with other studies showing that academic speech requires a larger vocabulary because of its complexity and specialised language. It emphasises the need for students to dramatically increase their vocabulary while moving from informal speech to academic environments. The research provides insight into the function of the Academic Word List (AWL) in academic spoken English. It discovers that spoken conversation has much less AWL coverage than written corpora. Finally, the conversation offers insightful information about the complex connection between academic spoken English understanding and vocabulary size. It emphasises the need for students to considerably increase their vocabulary while participating in academic discourse, recognises the variability of vocabulary requirements across fields, and highlights the significance of receptive knowledge and the function of the AWL in EAP situations. This knowledge is critical for both instructors and students as they work to understand and perfect academic spoken English.

CONCLUSION

According to this research, L2 learners require a vocabulary that includes the most common 4,000 word families, together with proper nouns and peripheral terms, in order to cover 95% of academic spoken English. With the AWL in mind, learners may, nevertheless, achieve 95% coverage with a vocabulary that consists of the most common 3,000 word families, together with proper nouns and peripheral terms. Despite only covering 4.41% of academic spoken English, the AWL exhibited very little difference in coverage across fields, according to this study's findings. As a consequence, the results indicate that the AWL may aid in the understanding of academic spoken English.

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CHAPTER 7

CONJUNCTION IN SPEAK ENGLISH: A REVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

In this essay, conjunction use in written English as a Second Language and spoken English are compared. The study demonstrates how ESL authors employ because clauses to establish independent segments, to show relationships between discourse parts, and to convey the knowledge foundation for their statements using the conjunction because as the focus example. Although because clauses are often used for these purposes in spoken English, academic writing generally implements them in other ways. By recognising such usage as unsuitable register choices, one may decipher them as the transfer of spoken English-language methods into a genre of written English where alternative clause-combining techniques are required. This places these erroneous decisions at the discourse level as opposed to the sentence level, demonstrating how ESL authors' limited familiarity with the lexical and grammatical resources of academic registers expresses itself even in conjunction and clause combining tactics. Knowing how grammatical resources are commonly used in realising certain genres is necessary for ESL writers who want to advance their abilities in new genres. This study advances our knowledge of the function of conjunction in the organisation of spoken and written texts as well as the significance of register variations in the development of ESL writing.

KEYWORDS:

Coordinating Conjunctions, Conversational, Discourse Markers, Lexical Cohesion, Oral Communication, Spoken Discourse, Spoken English.

INTRODUCTION

Speech and writing are two distinct modes that are difficult to directly compare since discourse develops in contexts where language creates genres. Genres are seen here as different text or discourse kinds, such as tales, academic articles, or casual chats, which are cultural units made up of lexical and grammatical resources . The various arrangements of these lexical and grammatical resources are known as registers. Different register selections are more or less successful or acceptable depending on the genre being realised. This study studies conjunction and clause combining in English as a Second Language students' essay writing, demonstrating how they sometimes utilise registers that are more suitable for interactional speech genres. The distinctions in register that are represented in various genres have been highlighted by recent examinations of speech and writing [1]. Language users employ various grammatical and lexical resources to produce texts of various forms, and research into the many options A grammar tool for identifying linkages in texts is conjunction.

The many ways that links are expressed in speech and writing have been detailed by linguists. Spontaneous spoken language often utilises phrase chaining procedures, linking discourse parts

with conjunctions and adverbial clauses. This is shown by the fact that spoken language has more finite verbs and sentences connected by conjunctions as well as more adverbial clauses, particularly reason adverbials, than written language does.

Conjunctions' Numerous Purposes and Semantic Flexibility in Spoken English

On the other hand, written language often employs nominalizations. To compress information and ideas into single-clause structures, writers often utilise adjectives, complicated verbs, and prepositional phrases . In academic writing, conjunctions are less often used to connect ideas across propositions than verbs that indicate semantic connections via prepositional phrases or other forms of syntactic condensation [2]. Here, the conjunction because will serve as the main illustration. Because clauses in spoken discourse serve a variety of functions related to interactional concerns, including negotiating meaning and information flow and structuring discourse , despite the fact that because is typically described as indicating a causal relationship between two clauses . In other words, when utilised in various modes or genres, the same grammatical structure performs several discourse roles. Other conjunctions also have this quality. An illustration. According to Ford and Thompson , an if clause may be used to communicate a courteous direction in speech, which is a function that is not often employed in writing. Conjunctions serve a variety of functional purposes and transmit a variety of meanings. By virtue of their semantic meanings, conjunctions assume the inclusion of a number of other components in a text.

When using because, for instance, it would seem that there must be an assertion for which the because clause gives a justification or cause. However, the degree to which conjunctions' semantic power is highlighted varies depending on the context of the conversation[3]. Conjunctions that serve as coherent discourse markers contribute pragmatically to the interaction and structure of speech, but their semantic effects are less noticeable. instance, it has been shown that the prepositions so and because are used to start sentences containing propositions that are informationally similar. Discourse markers and conjunctions do not control the meaning links between the linked phrases, making this conceivable. The total context determines the interpretation rather than focusing on the overt meanings of the sentences, sequencehighlighting of the connections among the text's components. Combinations are indicators of Nonetheless, clause connections also help to understand the significance of conjunctions. Itthe sequential order of the sentences, and the ideational substance, the conjunctions' frequency and the interactional settings in which they are used so we may see the purposes they serve and the meanings they contribute Conjunctions may indicate connections and assist the speaker in control conversation while adding minimal prepositional significance Particularly in spoken speech, this is true. There is no chance that Grammarians and academics who study variations in the roles of Conjunctions generally explain events using spoken English examples [4].

Has practical significance an illustration. According to Quirk et al Because is used pragmatically to refer to disjuncts of reason in several common phrases. English' Various studies of the same conjunction also make use of spoken instances. English, which often uses intonation to differentiate between those cases due to those that have a causal meaning and those that detail the speaker's motivation scholarly literature, such as Conjunctions, however, are more often regarded

in literature as indicators of connections between texts' meanings functions of pragmatics that are frequent and standard in speech uncommonly appear in academic writing The greater significance of conjunctions in discourse organisation in The prevalence of the conjunctions that indicate spoken mode function as speech discourse indicators Since clauses are more common in When studies compare these two modalities, voice is more common than writing and Writing demonstrates that, rather than informative elements, which are normally associated with writing, involved and generalized-content features, which are more typical of speech, cooccur using writing In a bigger database where the ESL samples for this article were taken Come on, college-level ESL authors use twice as many because clauses as Responses from non-ESL authors to the same essay question As stated by Crowhurst , a writer in development, uses it less often because As writers develop, they become more familiar with academic writing etiquette. ESL authors also utilise because more often in addition to because clauses that deviate from what is expected in academic registers, helping to 'Oral' tone in their articles The methods that ESL is used are shown in the next section. Authors use spoken registers The research offers further evidence that Combining techniques for clauses and conjunctions reflect choices in register [5].

Speaking And Writing In Esl

Currently, more immigrant ESL students are enrolling in higher education institutions in the US. Since they have lived in the US for the most of their lives, these students have largely learnt English via conversational contact rather than formal education. When compared to pupils who have studied English as a second language and have high levels of literacy in their native tongues, these students' writing exhibits various traits. Although the immigrant students speak English relatively well, many of them lack fundamental literacy abilities in their native language and in academic English writing. In their writing, they often include elements of spoken English [6]. These characteristics include the inclusion of discourse markers of contact, such as the sure in, which shows an explicit dialogic engagement between writer and reader not typical of academic writing. Growing crops requires a lot of hard effort. Although anybody may plant them using a machine, the greatest results need a patient human. The absolutely in, a colloquial usage of this adverb, is an example of lexical items or phrases that ESL and other emerging writers often employ in academic writing that break register rules I completely agree with Wendell Berry's definition of fulfilment.

Being a city-folk, I was raised to do things with little to no effort, and when I was to complete an obstacle of some sort, I would judge my satisfaction not on what I did accomplish but on what I did atter to make this accomplishment worth mv wild. While we readily recognize these as oral features, there are other features that indicate the speaker is drawing on spoken rather than written models. Analysis of the register aspects of ESL writing may be based on an examination of how the grammatical resources for clause combining are used in spoken genres. This paper explains the strategies second language learners use when attempting unfamiliar genres and identifies some unconscious features of register differences, such as clause combining strategies, that give their writing an inappropriately discursive oral quality. It also shows how ESL writing uses clause combining strategies that are appropriate in speaking but inappropriate for the essay genre [7].

We are able to discover contributions of this conjunction to more general discourse structure by examination of the propositions represented in the phrases connected by because, the sequential distribution of because, and the discourse settings in which it occurs. Schleppegrell, for instance, discovered that there are special roles of because in speech that have not been well defined by English grammars. These activities include of internally conjunctive uses to show the speaker's background knowledge uses that facilitate managing interaction and displaying the discourse's structure which, via extensive theme ties, aid in the coherence of the discourse Because clauses are seldom used in such ways in academic writing, are restricted by ideas of sentence and are joined to a major clause for which, The because clause gives an explanation or cause, however for novice writers Because of their general clause-chaining approach, which is a component of their oral competence, they utilize because as a marker of discourse structure [8].

Tactics that they used to write Understanding that these applications are reflections of oral techniques provide us a more adequate foundation for comprehending how writing in a second language evolves and what grammatical resources are needed more explanation from educators and practice from students. The next three parts go about the roles of since they are often used in conversation but seldom used in writing Examples are provided illustrates how because clauses are misused in ESL writing for such purposes. The speech samples are from numerous reports that have been published in publications. data from ESL students on sentence structural characteristics in spoken English mostly from freshman university students' writings in response a two-hour writing test that includes a reading section Most of the pupils are from Asian immigrants with L1 origins who have stayed in the US for varied amounts of time elapsed times As high school alums from the United States who attended college. They are typically regarded as being of an advanced level and have entry criteria of proficiency in English These pupils' writings were examined to determine cite the roles served by the because clauses and the clauses added by because is employed This essay compares spoken and written because clause use.

Writing in English and ESL, demonstrating how ESL authors use spoken registers erroneously while composing their academic essays Linking based on knowledge Because clauses are often used in spoken genres to convey knowledge-based links When examining the meaning of the two phrases joined by the conjunction because in. We discover that numerous because clauses support a speaker's claim in spoken English. by outlining the facts on which the claim is founded [9]. various applications of conjunction are internal, illuminating the text's rhetorical structure, rather than recounting international events Martin 1983a, 1992 although internal Both spoken and written text have the quality of a conjunction; these relationships are exhibited in many ways across various mediums or genres Because may be used in writing, but usually not in speech, as an internal conjunction In its internal conjunctive function because it connects a claim to the speaker's viewpoint the knowledge base on that claim, or gives information about it in which the speaker asserts something This is seen in case below. And from what you can see, he doesn't appear to be paying all that much attention. Pears drop the dropping of the pears is evidence the speaker utilised to get the conclusion that the pear picker she is portraying is not paying attention.

Her because sentence gives the reason, she has drawn this conclusion rather than stating the explanation or cause for the pear, that conclusion was reached. pickers' lack of focus the negotiated

interplay of these parties makes such usage conceivable. spoken language, while other cues additionally indicate that when delivering the message, the speaker focuses largely on the interpersonal level. link in conjunction Because is an internal conjunction that is often used in speech that follows critical comments and establishes a connection that is discourse-based, explaining or defending the speaker's assertions rather than establishing a connection between the ideas In, a further example of an internal conjunctive relationship that supports a The claim of the speaker and its use as a discourse marker indicate Heres why I claim this There is a fantastic book on this region of Germany before it was invaded. When the Kings Depart by an author published towards the close of the First World War, One must give it to you since American, which was just released, could be intriguing since it's undoubtedly a time I didn't know much about the point at which they were soundly crushed, as they were in 1908.

The speaker is not implying that the book may be fascinating just because it is Rather than discussing a time period, he was unfamiliar with, he explains why he discovered it. The book is educational. Because is a better choice for these internal conjunctive relationships. prevalent in conversation when speakers provide explanation and clarification aimed at the hearer reasons, but these applications are uncommon in academic writing However, just as speakers support their claims with internal connections, ESL authors do the same, as we can see in. In American schools, the schedules are flexible since some pupils don't like History may substitute geography. Romantic people are those that like writing letters to one another. Write in a very official and sophisticated manner [10]. We anticipate the because sentence in paragraph to provide a reason for the flexibility in scheduling of students Instead, the author provides an illustration of how timetables flexible Instead of a justification for why it could be romantic to appreciate, through letter-writing, we learn more about what romance implies. Because clauses are being used by these writers to explain the from which they get their judgements is their knowledge base. We've seen that in phrases may link utterances with interior conversation in spoken speakers' explanations, such as the reason I know this is or my There is evidence to support this. The ESL worksheets in sections are based on this to use a similar linking technique to the speakers in paragraphs four and five. Instead of a justification for the claim the writer makes, we are given a justification for the statement made by the author.

When teachers help students become better readers and writers, they are also helping them do well in school. While not all teachers specifically focus on teaching reading and writing, all teachers have an important role in helping students become better at reading and writing in their own subjects. Actually, whenever a teacher gives students a text to read or write, the teacher has to help the students understand it and do well. Even though it's a bit more complicated, teachers also have the responsibility to help students who are learning a second language and are placed in regular classrooms where only English is spoken. ESOL professionals face a big challenge to help elementary and secondary educators learn how to help SL learners improve their reading and writing skills. This article gives teachers a plan for helping students improve their SL reading and writing skills in the regular classroom. This structure has two sections. First, it tells teachers to think about three SL literacy ideas: talking, patterns, and differences. Every idea is explained using two supporting ideas. These supporting ideas are explained and described using examples of what students and teachers do. Secondly, the framework provides five curriculum guidelines to help

regular teachers incorporate SL literacy into their classes. This two-part framework includes everything that content-area teachers need to know and do to use SL literacy development to help students learn their subjects.

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are crucial skills for understanding and expressing ourselves. However, the main reason these skills are important is for effective communication. When you have learned enough basic skills, literacy means being able to understand, think about, and talk about information, thoughts, and emotions. For students who speak a second language, learning to talk and write in a new language needs lots of listening and reading materials, as well as chances to talk and write to different people. The basic rules of how we send and receive messages are called the principles of Input and Interaction, which make up Communication. How students and teachers can improve their reading and writing abilities for better communication.

When teachers pay attention to what they teach, they focus on the things their students hear and read during lessons. In order for this information to be helpful to someone learning a second language, it should be just a little bit harder than what they can already understand. To summarize, students should read and write frequently for various purposes like enjoyment, learning, exploration, and communication. As students improve their overall language skills and learn more academic words, they become better at understanding and processing information. They can do this more easily and quickly. Similarly, the main job of a teacher is to assist students in improving their reading, thinking, talking, and writing skills. This can be done by finding the right types of texts and encouraging students to read and write. Teachers can also help students understand what they are reading by giving them helpful clues like headings and pictures. These texts should be at an appropriate grade level.

Besides receiving information, learners also need many different chances to communicate and engage with others. When second language learners try to make themselves understood to someone else while communicating, it helps them learn the language. Using literacy skills to communicate and connect texts to ourselves, others, and the world is important for SL learners when they interact in formal and informal situations. This type of student work helps students to think flexibly. Teachers have a job of creating chances every day for real conversations.

When teachers create a place where reading, writing, working together, and talking are valued in everyday learning, SL learners learn important skills for reading and writing. This includes being aware of who they are writing for, why they are writing, having a personal voice, organizing their ideas, developing their thoughts, writing fluently, choosing the right words, and using proper grammar and spelling. In simple terms, the concept of communication for teachers means they need to look at the different things English learners hear and read, the chances they have to talk and participate, and how they can help them understand and join in better. The teacher decides how to listen and communicate with the students, and these decisions are based on what the teacher thinks the students need to learn and grow.

DISCUSSION

Conjunctions, which join words, phrases, or clauses in a sentence, are fundamental parts of the English language. They are essential in structuring and delineating concepts, which improves the

effectiveness and coherence of communication. We'll talk about the value of conjunctions in spoken English and how they support fluid and natural communication in this conversation. Coherence and Clarity By connecting concepts that belong together, conjunctions keep spoken English coherent. Relationships may be expressed in a number of different ways using conjunctions. Conjunctions in spoken English add to the speech's natural flow and rhythm. complicated Sentences: Conjunctions link independent and dependent clauses to form complicated sentences. Different conjunctions may give spoken English more variety and subtlety. Reducing Repetition: By effectively connecting related concepts, conjunctions assist speakers avoid needless repetition. Formal vs. Colloquial Language: The use of conjunctions may also affect how formal English is spoken. For English language learners to become fluent, mastering the usage of conjunctions is essential. Conjunctions are crucial for efficient communication in spoken English because they link concepts, convey connections, and give language more nuance. Much of the actual process of spoken language learning happens instinctively and below the level of conscious control of the learner. Conversational English develops quickly with SL learners, owing to direct and repeated interactions with peers and instructors in rich social situations.

On the other hand, understanding language as a code is crucial to literacy development. Few individuals learn to read and write without being explicitly taught the nature of the code. Phonemic awareness, knowledge of sound-symbol connections, vocabulary, morphology, syntax, cultural understanding, and relevant world information are all required for fluent reading and writing. With specific teaching, these sub-skills, as well as the capacity to organize, coordinate, and recognize audience and goal, grow through time. The idea of pattern requires all grade levels of mainstream instructors to grasp the basic road to literacy and how that path may differ for SL learners. The pattern is characterized by two principles Development Stages and Errors and Feedback. There are two primary phases of reading development for the content-area teacher to consider: learning to read and reading to learn. The learning-to-read stage begins for SL students when they begin acquiring print abilities and concepts in a second language. When pre-reading activities in schema building and vocabulary development position learners to understand the specific book selected for them, they progress to the reading-to-learn stage. The ultimate developmental objective is to help SL readers and writers become active, flexible, selective, cognitively sophisticated, self-monitoring, and critical thinkers about what they read and write.

Work for SL learners varies widely based on their original language and existing SL abilities. In general, they will need to increase their vocabulary size, develop phonemic awareness in the new language, comprehend and produce increasingly complex texts in multiple genres, and transfer whatever native language literacy skills they have to the task of becoming a strategic and critical reader and writer of the new language. If instructors have expressly prepared for and anticipated students to engage in a range of language and literacy activities, pupils will complete these tasks.

The teacher's role in supporting literacy development is to pay closer attention to text selection and to give strategic assistance for text understanding. Teachers must examine the cognitive, social, emotional, and linguistic aspects that may impact pupils' developmental trajectories in order to do so successfully. Bilingual students, for example, may be completely literate, verbally fluent, or simply receptively proficient in their original language; yet, they approach English literacy with

two language systems in mind. When kids read or write, both language systems are active. Students' understanding of terminology, society, or the world may differ significantly among languages. Second, unlike our monolingual pupils, a bilingual student may begin the stage of learning to read English as a toddler, a seventh-grade student, or an adult. As a result, the bilingual's timeline for English literacy development may vary from what a teacher expects a monolingual to know and perform at various ages or grades.

Literacy development is structured but not linear. Students' knowledge of English is continually reconstructing as they acquire more vocabulary, grasp more, and become more fluent, automatic, and efficient in their reading and writing. Their development is seen in both correct and incorrect word and grammatical choices. Correcting low-level grammatical faults involves more than just understanding the grammar rule behind the problem; it is also about embedding the right grammatical pattern into the learner's language system. Students and instructors must detect and monitor which components of language are now within the learner's ability to acquire, correct, or master and which aspects of language are currently resistant to direct teaching. Accepting tough tasks and seeking help when required is essential for student success in literacy development. Learning skills for monitoring and correcting misconceptions, as well as receiving and reacting to criticism, are critical for students to improve the quality of their work. Individual accountability for defining learning objectives and monitoring success is also essential.

The role of the teacher is to react to mistakes by providing appropriate feedback, learning opportunities, or services. If a second language learner lacks phonemic awareness and print concepts, a teacher should enroll the pupil in a progressive reading program. However, if kids are just reading below grade level, instructors should be prepared to give other resources to promote subject understanding in addition to the grade-level book. Supplements such as simplified texts with grade-level information, supporting texts in the local language, and visual representations such as video, photography, and picture books might all be beneficial. Feedback should also be timely, useful, encouraging, and detailed in order for students to enhance the quality of their goods and performances. The utilization of the writing process: prewrite, compose, revise, edit, is an effective method for boosting SL learners' fluency and accuracy with written language. Even if students are unable to create error-free drafts while creating, altering the text enables them to access what they know about grammar, vocabulary, and use without having to focus to producing text. The writing process also enables SL students to practice social skills such as receiving and responding to peer input. Despite the fact that this procedure takes longer, it allows pupils to generate stronger final drafts.

To summarize, instructors are better positioned to offer appropriate feedback and create individual and curricular responses to student needs when they can effectively evaluate the individual learner against the general pattern of literacy development. Teachers are prepared to arrange instruction utilizing a variety of input and interaction possibilities after they have evaluated who their learners are and where they are in their development, as indicated by the notion of communication.

CONCLUSION

Concluding, conjunctions are essential components of spoken English and are crucial for enabling successful and clear communication. They act as linkers, joining words, phrases, and clauses to help speaker's articulate connections, communicate ideas, and construct complicated sentences. Conjunctions enhance linguistic subtlety and the natural flow and rhythm of speech by eliminating repetition. To speak English fluently, conjunctions must be understood and used appropriately. The proper use of conjunctions improves one's capacity to articulate ideas, preserve coherence, and interest listeners, whether in informal or formal contexts. We must get acquainted with the many kinds of conjunctions and practice using them in diverse circumstances as English speakers and learners. Understanding conjunctions helps us communicate ideas clearly and precisely, which makes it more interesting and rewarding. It also enhances our language skills.

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CHAPTER 8

CORPORA'S CHANGING ROLE: ENGLISH LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY AND AUTHORITY

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ABSTRACT:

As spoken English dynamics change, so too does the function of corpora in determining authority and teaching in the language. The Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English , among others, have been crucial in revealing important details about spoken language patterns and the sociolinguistic setting of English, according to this abstract. These corpora, which include millions of words of transcripts from various contexts, provide a thorough understanding of how speakers and authors base their language choices on interpersonal connections and context. The idea that a native English speaker is the only authority is being reassessed as the number of non-native English speakers rises. This abstract provides a useful method: establishing fundamental grammatical elements in broad worldwide use by using a range of spoken corpora, both native and non-native. Finally, the dynamic character of spoken English in a globalised society is reflected in the changing function of corpora in language teaching and authority. The summary highlights the importance of methodological decisions in corpus research and emphasises that, in order to solve these issues, it is important to consider not just the size of the corpus but also the questions researchers ask and the contextual knowledge they bring to the study.

KEYWORDS

Authority, Changing, Corpora, Develop, English, Language, Pedagogy, Role, Spoken, Sociolinguistic.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, a significant shift in the English language learning and authority environment has taken place. This change is closely related to the introduction and development of corpora, enormous collections of data on spoken and written languages, which have become effective instruments for comprehending linguistic patterns, use, and the subtleties of communication. The significance of corpora in influencing the evolution of English language teaching and redefining authority in the field of spoken English has significantly changed in this context. This subject explores the complex interplay between corpora and how English is taught and seen in modern culture. It examines how corpora, which give a plethora of information and context from various locations and sociolinguistic landscapes, have become crucial in supplying in-depth insights into the constantly changing character of spoken English. Interesting questions arise, such as how corpora reveal the changing patterns of spoken English. What are the difficulties in incorporating corpus-based insights into language teaching, and how do they influence pedagogical practises? What effects does this have on the power granted to English speakers, both native and non-native?

We set out on a trip through the evolving role of corpora in creating English language instruction and redefining our ideas of linguistic authority in order to investigate these topics.

Corpus, Spoken English, and the classroom

Some of the results of our investigation into the grammatical properties of the Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English have been published recently in books and papers. Cambridge University Press, the only owner of the copyright, supported the establishment of CANCODE at the School of English Studies at the University of Nottingham in the United Kingdom. The corpus comprises over 5 million words of transcripts of talks from a broad range of locations, including private residences, businesses, workplaces, other public spaces, and educational institutions, all around the British and Irish islands [1]. The corpus's future expansion to include American English is well under way, and proposals to add other English dialects are being discussed. We also think that CANCODE is a very fine-grained corpus. We didn't just collect data; instead, we made an effort to collect instances from a variety of sociolinguistic situations and conversation genres. We are able to demonstrate how users of the language make decisions in both forms based on context and the kind of interpersonal ties they have with other speakers and writers, in addition to contrasting the decisions made by speakers and writers.

We see significant advantages in being able to show statistical evidence across many millions of words and broad general contexts. For instance, the corpus linguists, such as Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, and Finegan, who have offered novel and thought-provoking accounts of the English language, are greatly appreciated by the language teaching community. However, we also think that qualitative and quantitative criteria are quite important, especially when using corpus insights in language instruction. For instance, ellipsis is a category of grammar that varies significantly depending on context, giving speakers a great deal of freedom in how to communicate interpersonal meanings. One may respond to a question by saying Sounds nice, Hope so, it sounds good, or It sounds good. Do you intend to travel this weekend? I'm going home this weekend, I have to, or I may go home next weekend. You might ask, Have you finished the book I lent you or Finished the book I lent you. Our corpus may assist distinguish between options depending on the level of expertise assumed by speakers, the nature of their relationships, and whether they are engaging in a service interaction, a dinner party, a school setting, doing a physical activity, or telling a narrative. Our corpus can also demonstrate that while specific types of ellipsis are uncommon in written text, they are common in specific types of journalism, personal notes and letters, and certain types of literary text by balancing these spoken genres against written corpora [2].

The Pedagogic Process Can Be Informed By Corpora

The idea that language pedagogy, which purports to facilitate the teaching and acquisition of speaking abilities, does itself a disservice if it overlooks what is known about the spoken language has also been emphasised in our work. There can be little hope for natural spoken output on the part of language learners if the input is stubbornly rooted in models that owe their origin and shape to the written language, regardless of what else may be the result of creative methodologies for eliciting spoken language in the L2 classroom. With the help of the corpus, we have attempted to

create instructional resources. We use the phrase informed with caution because we are aware that bringing genuine facts into the classroom with the hope that authenticity would be assured is no easy task. Widdowson 1998 has made a persuasive case against corpora usage that are unaware of the pedagogical environment of learners. Some students might not require authentic communication, their teachers might not be native English speakers and thus might feel diminished by these facts, and both the teacher and the student might behave in accordance with the classroom's theatre, which, while simulating real communication, is actually only a simulacrum of it. Therefore, TESOL professionals need to be able to make choices when choosing materials for instruction that go beyond whether a specific structure is common to take into account its teachability and learnability [3].

The wider quantitative analysis produced by bigger corpora and statistical algorithms should be supplemented by a qualitative analysis, a process that might include a lot of in-depth screen-by-screen, context-by-context research and review. While the pedagogical process should be informed by the corpus rather than being driven or directed by it, we think that corpora may provide significant advantages for classroom instruction. We have encountered a number of important concerns about the design, development, and usage of corpora when creating corpus-informed products. during the TESOL community's support. Language teaching has advanced significantly with the incorporation of corpora, such as language databases that include substantial examples of real-world language usage, into the pedagogical process. With this inclusion, instructors may improve language education and give students more agency in a number of ways. Authenticity Corpora provide a ton of real language data, showing how native and skilled speakers use the language in a variety of settings. Teachers may close the communication gap between classroom discourse and real-world situations by exposing students to actual language patterns, idioms, and subtlety.

Contextual Understanding Corpora provide information about language use in its context. Students may observe the differences in language, vocabulary, and speech patterns between formal presentations, everyday conversations, and academic writing. The capacity of learners to modify their language usage to fit certain communication circumstances is improved by this contextual awareness. Frequency and Usage Corpora show how often words and grammatical constructions are used in actual texts and conversations. Teachers may concentrate on teaching the language components that are most often used and important, ensuring that students obtain the language skills necessary for productive conversation. Variety and variety Corpora record linguistic variety, including many dialects, accents, and registers [4]. This exposure to a range of languages encourages cultural awareness and equips students to communicate in multicultural and international settings. Error Analysis Teachers may utilise corpora to spot typical mistakes that language learners make. This makes it possible to provide specialised education and aids language learners in overcoming certain difficulties.

Teaching Materials Corpora help to create instructional materials including textbooks, exercises, and multimedia tools. Real-world examples may be added to these materials to improve learning and make them more applicable. Corpora are capable of supporting personalised and adaptive learning. Lessons and assignments may be modified by teachers to meet the unique requirements

and skill levels of each student, resulting in effective and efficient education. Language evolution: Language is a living thing that changes throughout time. Corpora provide teachers the ability to keep current on linguistic changes and modify their teaching strategies as necessary. Learners are exposed to modern language usage, which represents the language's dynamic character. The incorporation of corpora into the pedagogical procedure has the potential to completely transform the teaching of languages. It increases the efficacy and relevance of language training in a constantly shifting linguistic environment by giving educators and students access to real-world, context-rich language data [5].

This problem is especially serious in the case of English, which has replaced many other languages as the global standard to the point that it is no longer debatable to assume that native speakers make up a smaller percentage of the language's everyday users. The most practical approach would appear to be to have a variety of spoken corpora, which could be cross-compared to establish a core set of grammatical features in widespread international usage [6]. The fundamental idea and standing of the native speaker are significantly impacted when the balance is tipped away from the native speakers of colonising groups. Determining which native speakers are the most expert users of a language like English becomes challenging and complex because many nonnative users will clearly be more proficient communicators and users of English than many native speakers are. This is true for both native speaker corpora as well as corpora of nonnative speaker speech. As a result, our attention shifts to skilled language users, who may serve as role models for everyone, regardless of whether they are native or non-native speakers.

The key takeaway is that, in contrast to written language, spoken language raises more urgent concerns about the legitimacy of its users, and when a language has developed into an international lingua franca, the issue of variety will almost likely take precedence. This issue presents as many ideological concerns as linguistic ones, and corpus linguistics can only partly address it. We would contend that in the hunt for the answers to these issues, what counts is not just or simply how large a corpus is, but rather the methods used for gathering and organising the data, as well as the kind of questions the researcher poses to it. Particularly in the context of English as a worldwide lingua franca, the topic of who should represent authority in regard to spoken grammar is one that is difficult and always changing. Here are several viewpoints on this problem local speakers When it comes to spoken grammar, historically, native speakers of a language have often been regarded as the final authority.

This is predicated on the idea that since they learned the language from birth, native speakers have a natural intuitive knowledge of it. They are regarded as the benchmark when it comes to use, grammar, and pronunciation. Competence and proficiency Many linguists and language educators contend that proficiency and communicative competence, rather than naiveness, should be the basis for linguistic authority. Effective role models for language learners might be proficient non-native speakers who have attained a high level of language proficiency. They could even be particularly skilled in certain areas of speech and grammar [7]. Varieties of English Many nations, each with its own dialects and regional variants, have English as one of their official languages. The whole range of spoken English cannot be adequately represented by a single set of native speakers. Language Change English is one of several languages that change throughout time [8].

Authorities should take into account how language is utilised in modern contexts, which may deviate from conventional grammar standards. Language authorities should be aware of these developments and adjust accordingly. Pedagogical Points of Interest in the study of languages, particularly for those who are learning English as a second or foreign language[9]. linguistic analysis By examining big datasets of spoken language, linguists and corpus linguists add to our knowledge of spoken grammar. Their work contributes to the development of our knowledge of language usage in many circumstances, which might influence spoken grammar authority. In conclusion, a more inclusive and nuanced view is emerging on the idea of authority in connection to spoken language, moving away from a rigid focus on nativeness. It is being widely understood that proficiency, context, and variety play a significant role in establishing authority in spoken grammar. In the end, the main aim should be successful communication and mutual comprehension, and language authority figures should support these goals, whether they are native or non-native speakers, educators, linguists, or other language specialists [10].

DISCUSSION

It is a complex and dynamic phenomenon that corpora are changing how English language teaching is shaped and how linguistic authority is defined. We will address the main features of this transition and how they affect language learners, teachers, and the larger linguistic community. Data-Driven Insights: Corpora, such CANCODE and others, provide a wealth of information on actual language use. They provide perceptions into how individuals really use the language in a range of situations, such as casual talks, professional interactions, and academic settings. This abundance of information enables teachers to go beyond prescriptive guidelines and provide students a more genuine and nuanced grasp of English. To cater to the individual requirements and competency levels of their pupils, teachers must carefully choose and modify corpus samples. linguistic research and innovation are both fueled by corpus linguistics, which also influences language teaching. Huge datasets may be analysed by researchers to find linguistic patterns, spot new words, and investigate how language changes through time. Using corpora in language instruction has difficulties with regard to data selection, privacy, and ethical considerations. To guarantee that the use of corpora is morally good and respects individual privacy, educators and researchers must appropriately manage these concerns. In conclusion, a larger trend towards a more accurate and inclusive understanding of language usage may be seen in the evolving role of corpora in English language teaching and authority. In addition to recognising the skill of both native and non-native speakers, this progression provides learners with a richer understanding of the complexity and depth of spoken English. Adopting corpus-based insights promotes a more egalitarian and internationally applicable approach to language learning while enabling more effective language training.

Individual differences in language and literacy development are significant. These disparities are caused by a variety of individual factors, including learner age, attitude, motivation, aptitude, preferred learning methods, and personality traits such as self-esteem, extroversion, tolerance for ambiguity, readiness to take chances, and anxiety proclivity. It also incorporates elements specific to the context in which SL kids live and study, such as attitudes, support, and opportunities in society, the family, and the school. Developing competency in SL students entails teaching them

how to use language for a variety of objectives, in a variety of contexts, and with a variety of individuals. Leading pupils to native-like literacy requires them to go beyond the language of oral, conversational engagement and into the complex, specialized, and domain-specific vocabulary and text of academic language usage.

Develop motivation, metacognitive awareness, and a variety of tactics for learning to utilize both formal and informal registers of language as part of student work in developing a wide range of literacy abilities. It entails understanding how texts and text structures differ among cultures, academic fields, and genres. Students must understand that various types of written information are read for different goals and that they must alter their methods and fluency rates accordingly. Students must understand when and how native language literacy abilities may be utilized to advance SL literacy skills wherever feasible. They must also build a propensity to engage, encourage themselves to complete classwork, accomplish desired results, and become more independent learners. The most significant teaching job is to examine curricular requirements to determine what reading and writing abilities are needed to complete required learning activities effectively. This study leads to the formulation of discipline-specific language and literacy learning objectives. This might involve paying attention to formality and register, teaching text structures, customs, and cultural expectations as they relate to academic texts, or modelling good reading methods for a variety of reasons. Teachers adjust or alter teaching based on assessments of student desire, motivation, and autonomy to guarantee higher success in attaining specified subject and literacy objectives.

Learning is reinforced for SL students when they are required to apply what they have learned. When the context, activities, or language functions change, students utilize language and literacy skills differently and at varying degrees of competence. For example, a student may choose to read a persuasive essay rather than write one, or to study scientific literature rather than mathematical texts. Students benefit from being taught and encouraged to utilize acceptable English discourse forms while writing tales, essays, reports, and research papers. The purpose is to improve pupils' fluency and accuracy by having them utilize language or perform in a variety of situations. Student work for this concept emphasizes on reading and generating more complex texts with correctness and fluency across disciplines, genres, contexts, activities, and language functions. Students must learn to adapt their tactics and fluency rates to the job at hand, as well as increasing their focus on quality.

The teacher's job is to determine when kids need help and what they can accomplish on their own. When it comes to reading, this entails understanding when to present alternate texts and when to provide assistance in navigating the original text. Teachers should foster a community of readers and writers who read and write often for a variety of reasons and in genres relevant to the field. Teachers also prepare for key academic words to appear often in readings and relevant classroom interactions. In summary, when instructors tailor their curriculum to match the requirements of individual students and hold them to high standards, they are assisting students in developing the skills and abilities required for academic achievement. SL children need more not less access to demanding materials, more not fewer chances for engagement, more not less flexibility, and more

diverse not less diversified ways to achieve academically. Teachers who require students to acquire and then use literacy skills on a regular basis boost subject learning.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, corpora's transformational influence on English language instruction and redefinition of linguistic authority is evidence of language's fluidity. Several important lessons become clear when we consider how this position has changed throughout time. First of all, corpora have expanded the possibilities for language teachers by providing a plethora of real-world information that goes beyond the bounds of conventional language instruction. By exposing students to the complexity and nuanced use of real-world English, instructors may help students improve their language skills and communication competence Second, the successful use of corpora in the classroom depends on striking the right balance between authenticity and pedagogy. To make sure corpus-based resources are both educational and available to students, meeting their specific needs and competence levels, educators must carefully choose and customise them Furthermore, corpora provide crucial contextual insight. Learners develop understanding of how language operates in diverse sociolinguistic settings, allowing them to deal confidently and competently with a variety of communication scenarios. Another significant feature of this transition is the shifting terrain of linguistic authority. An inclusive viewpoint that values the knowledge and contributions of skilled non-native speakers is replacing the old idea that the native speaker is the ultimate authority. In order to promote a more equal representation of English language users globally, corpora that capture this variety are essential. In essence, a paradigm change that emphasises the dynamism, inclusiveness, and authenticity of language learning and use can be seen in the corpora's evolving position in the development of English language education and authority. By embracing corpus-based insights, educators, students, and researchers work together to create a more comprehensive and relevant approach to teaching English in our world that is becoming more linked.

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CHAPTER 9

FOSTERING SPOKEN ENGLISH PROFICIENCY THROUGH INDIVIDUAL ACCOUNTABILITY IN COOPERATIVE LEARNING.

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ABSTRACT:

Cooperative learning has long been recognised for its role in advancing the study of second and foreign languages. However, little research has been done to explain how this teaching strategy works and encourages learners' increased communicative skill. This qualitative case study investigates the crucial role that personal responsibility in CL plays in enabling English as a Foreign Language students in Indonesia to interact in the English language. Even though it is a CL concept and one of the activities, individual responsibility is presently understudied, therefore little is known about how it improves EFL learning. By performing a constructivist grounded theory analysis on participant observation, in-depth interviews, and document analysis data from two secondary school EFL instructors, 77 students in the observed classes, and four focus students, this research seeks to close this gap in the literature. The study reveals that the EFL learners had chances to utilise the target language via individual responsibility in CL, which may have helped them achieve communicative competence the objective of the EFL training. More particular, compared to the usage of traditional group work in the observed classes, the EFL students had more opportunity to utilise spoken English during the individual responsibility in CL activities, such as performances and peer interaction. In order to recognise the activities under individual responsibility in CL and comprehend how these activities assist students, the current research advises instructors, particularly those new to CL, to follow the predefined method of chosen CL instructional techniques or structures.

KEYWORDS:

Accountability, Additional, Cooperative Learning, Cooperative Communication, English Language, Individual, Opportunities, Produce, Spoken, Learning.

INTRODUCTION

The development of speaking abilities is a crucial step in the complex process of learning a language. A key component of language learning is the capacity for effective spoken English expression. Through collaborative activities that promote active involvement and engagement, cooperative learning is a potent strategy for building spoken language competency. Individual responsibility emerges as a key component of this instructional framework, providing more possibilities for students to generate spoken English. A teaching method known as cooperative learning makes use of the advantages of peer contact and teamwork. It enables students to collaborate, share ideas, and build knowledge all together. While this method naturally encourages verbal communication, the idea of individual accountability takes it a step further by highlighting each learner's obligation to actively participate in the group's objectives and debates. In the context

of spoken English output, this issue examines the mutually beneficial interaction between group learning and individual responsibility. It explores how this method might provide a vibrant and dynamic atmosphere where students are inspired to interact, exchange knowledge, and have genuine conversations.

The Importance of Individual Accountability in Indonesian EFL Classes for Improving English Language Proficiency via Cooperative Learning

In Indonesian EFL classes, teacher-dominated learning is common. Indonesian EFL students experience this classroom reality, as shown by their learning activities, which emphasise following textbooks and worksheets and repetition and replacement exercises. In other words, kids don't receive many chances to speak English, the target language, with their peers [1]. One of the effects is that, out of the 54 non-English speaking nations, Anderson reports that Indonesia is one of those with poor English competence. The survey also showed that nations with weak English language proficiency had lower levels of commerce, innovation, and income, which demands our urgent attention. Communicative Language Teaching, a method to language education that has been used by Indonesian EFL instruction since the 1980s and seeks to improve learners' communicative competence, emphasises peer interaction and the use of the target language as activities. However, as previously said and similar to what occurred in the majority of other Asia Pacific nations Ministerial directives and classroom realities in the area are vastly at odds. This claims that this was partially because addressing the teaching shortcomings of Indonesian EFL instructors He discovered their instructional styles and repertory wasn't powerful enough. Consequently, comprehending the use of language-learning techniques that encourage EFL peer interaction and target language usage This investigation was motivated by classrooms [2].

We carried out a multi-case investigation in two secondary EFL classes in Indonesia, data collection and analysis collected qualitative information from students and teachers' members of these situations. The writers concentrated on one kind of instruction, For the following three, cooperative learning reasons. Initially, CL was covered by CLT as it emphasises intergroup communication when lecturers they put CLT into practice by implementing CL. Second, according to Indonesian Process Standard CL is a required learning activity in primary and secondary education, according to the Board of National Education. Pertaining to the National Education System According to Pendidikan Nasional 2003, the learning methods should include students in the development of their capacity. According to literature, active learning is one of the fundamental ideas of CL and 1994. In light of Johnson's suggested definitions and Olsen and Kagan, as well as Johnson, according to research, CL is a kind of cooperative learning that the contribution of each student to the learning is realised via their presentation or performance, it is advantageous for their personal education as well as also for their own learning and the objectives of the group. Research shows that CL encourages second Consequently, language learning is advantageous.

Learners. More Specifically, it was shown that using CL has an Effect on English as a Second Language that is favorable sometimes known as ESL/EFL, the degree to which pupils have mastered linguistic skills and its elements Wei and Tang, Sachs, Candlin, and Rose However, there aren't many research that show how CL encourages the study of ESL/EFL. similar to a wider It is still unknown why and how in the educational setting settings under which CL improves

pupils' academic success. In a nutshell, they are deserving of more investigation. Researchers and developers for CL emphasise that When using CL concepts, cooperation among pupils occurs, and its efficient implementation is probably going to happen. Sadly, there is little academic It took time and effort to look into CL. concepts, especially in the realm of ESL/EFL. As a result, our research aimed to fill this gap in literature by examining one CL tenet, particular accountability, with the goal of comprehension how it improves EFL instruction. Individual responsibility in CL occurs when Each student performs in front of the class, i.e. putting what they have learnt into practice or shown mastery before their groupmates.

The absence of this activity in We contend that normal group work, and its lack, because it is a potential disadvantage for language learners chance to practise utilising the target for them whilst speaking among themselves. when such a chance is not accessible, learning method for achieving Their ability to communicate effectively, which is the aim of their language development, may be hindered Needs in the ESL/EFL field study that examines and demonstrates how students' Using the target language in CL with the intention of Language acquisition is included in the learning process. This field of study is it's crucial to produce educational applications that advocate the use of CL in the field as a result. The goal of the current research was to: respond to the following query: What function does individual responsibility for implementing CL EFL classes in secondary schools in Indonesia This The article will examine and dissect the part that person plays. Accountability in Indonesian EFL CL Plays providing the students with opportunity to speak in the desired language. The approach is described in the next section. debate about our findings and results of the current research theoretical foundations. The results are then presented. and show how CL differs from traditional group work in the classrooms where we learned, and Describe the chances students had to utilise the each language's intended use. Finally, we provide suggestions for educators and next research [3].

A Qualitative Case Study Examining the Application of Cooperative Learning and Individual Accountability in Indonesian EFL Classes

We used qualitative approach, more precisely qualitative case study, to answer the research issue. This methodology was appropriate since our research focused on a problem, namely the difficulty of implementing CL in EFL courses in secondary school in Indonesia [4]. Regarding the instance, we selected one CL activity individual accountability which was also the phenomena being researched. Between March 2015 and September 2015, we used participant observations, in-depth interviews, and document analysis to collect the data for our study. Because English has never been a required subject in primary education in Indonesia, nor is English now part of the elementary school curriculum, the multi-case study was conducted at two secondary school locations. As a result, we looked at two cases: the adoption of individual responsibility in CL at a middle school and an EFL class in a high school. Constructivism, which holds that reality is co-constructed between the researcher and the researched and shaped by individual experiences, is an epistemological theory that is appropriate for the topic at hand [5]. Therefore, we included instructors as study participants in order to better understand how individual responsibility in CL implementation might improve EFL learning.

Due to the fact that they were the ones that had learning experiences in CL contexts, the other participants were students. Individual responsibility in CL implementation, where students were the doers, was also the study's unit of analysis. Then their voices must be heard. In other words, the insider viewpoints of the research participants on the topic being studied were respected in this study Only two teachers, one from a middle school and one from a high school, participated in our research due to time and financial restrictions. They were chosen by convenient and intentional sampling, and they went by the pseudonyms Andini and Putri. The pupils of the teacher participants, especially in the classroom that they selected for the participant observations, were the possible student participants in the later sampling technique. For the in-depth interviews, we also recruited students using a convenience sample technique Who among their pupils was central and willing to engage in the interviews was expressly requested of the two teacher participants. One male and one female focal student from each of the teacher participants' observed classes were interviewed. They went by the pseudonyms Midya, Budi, Natia, and Joko and were eighth-graders.

The participant observations led to the creation of ten field notes, totaling around 70 pages interviews were done as part of the in-depth interviewing process, comprising interviews with 8 teachers, 5 high school students, and 6 middle school students. The transcription of the interviews, which varied in length from 30 minutes to an hour, took up around 110 pages in all. We looked at educational materials and curricula throughout the investigation. We also created memoranda and diary entries for each data source in order to record our views while we conducted the study. Constructivist grounded theory, which places priority on the studied phenomenon and sees both data and analysis as created from shared experiences and relationships with participants and other sources of data, served as the framework for our data analysis. By using this theory as our guide, we were able to develop sensitising concepts that provided us ideas to pursue and questions to raise about our subject. These concepts served as points of departure for studying the empirical world while maintaining the openness for exploring it. We used the concepts, hypotheses, and research questions from our theoretical frameworks discussed in more detail below when gathering and examining data. They also provided as a jumping off point for accessing and examining the meaning making of our study participants. Although hypotheses were created from the data itself, we kept in mind that these sensitising notions were just our preliminary tools. We coded our data using three levels of coding: line-by-line coding, focused coding, and axial coding, keeping in mind sensitising notions and the unit of analysis. Themes arose from the data during the coding and analytic memo writing processes [6].

Although comparing traditional group work to CL was not the aim of this research, participant observations allowed us to see traditional group work in various contexts. Here, negative instances drawn from these teachings are presented. Negative instances are those that don't show the impact, according to Regin . In our research, we focused on how individual responsibility in CL played a role in increasing EFL learning and examined how CL was implemented in EFL classrooms. Therefore, the application of CL, notably the introduction of individual responsibility that boosted EFL learning, was the good scenario in our research. The utilisation of typical group work in the negative examples served to bolster the thesis of this paper [7].

We contend that while EFL students were engaged in traditional group work, they had less chances to speak English. The interviews also revealed the study participants' opinions on traditional group work and how it varied from CL, particularly in terms of the chances for students to engage with one another and utilise the target language. We were able to learn how the research participants felt about the use of traditional group work, which occurred at various sites throughout the study's time period, thanks to one type of interview question questions based on the ongoing document analysis and each week's analysis of participant observation data [8]. The interviews showed that the instructor participants were somewhat aware of the distinctions between CL and traditional group work. The people who were students, however, did not experience this. The student participants were not informed of the distinctions between CL and traditional group work during the interviews, but one type of interview question, such as the following: What language did you and your peers use when you were learning in regular groups, not in CL groups such as Think-Pair Share and Whispering Game?[9] used the term kelompok biasa . However, since it is the phrase often used in the literature, the term traditional group work is used in this article. In addition, at some point along the interviews or casual discussions with the student participants, we disclosed [10].

DISCUSSION

Active Participation dents are required to actively participate in class discussions, group projects, and presentations due to individual responsibility. Their level of involvement has increased, which improves their oral communication abilities and motivates them to express themselves in English. Peer engagement is encouraged in cooperative learning environments and gives students a variety of discussion partners. Due to this variety, they are exposed to a wide range of accents, emotions, and communication techniques, which enhances their spoken language learning. Correction of Error The dynamics of the group provide quick feedback and mistake correction. Students may assist one another in improving their pronunciation, grammar, and fluency to further the development of spoken English. Building Confidence Students may develop their confidence in their spoken English skills by participating in cooperative learning with individual responsibility. They get greater confidence using the language to express themselves and discuss challenging subjects.

Cultural sensitivity Cultural viewpoints and experiences are often shared during collaborative activities. As a result, students become more sensitive to cultural differences and skilled communicators in a variety of contexts. Different Languages Learners may be exposed to various English dialects, regional accents, and idiomatic idioms in cooperative learning contexts. Their exposure to several language environments equips them for survival. Real-World Applications Individual responsibility coupled with cooperative learning simulates real-life communication challenges, equipping students for social and professional settings where proficient spoken English is required. The tactics, advantages, and best practises for using individual responsibility in cooperative learning environments will be covered in the conversations that follow. This will provide students more chances to successfully generate spoken English. In the end, this strategy offers a comprehensive and thorough technique to develop spoken language abilities, giving students the competence and assurance, they need to converse effectively in English.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, a strong approach for giving students more chances to efficiently generate spoken English is the incorporation of individual responsibility into cooperative learning contexts. This strategy not only promotes language development but also the development of crucial abilities and traits that are beneficial in both academic and practical situations. Through personal responsibility in group learning The development of spoken English practise helps learners improve their pronunciation, fluency, and communication abilities in real-world settings. Motivation soars: Students are motivated to contribute enthusiastically because they feel ownership and responsibility for their efforts, which promotes more fruitful language practise. Diverse Interactions Enhance Learning: Students' perspectives are widened by exposure to people from different linguistic backgrounds in cooperative groups, which helps them become more adaptive and sensitive communicators. Feedback Promotes Language progress: Immediate peer feedback and mistake correction help students improve their spoken English with each contact. This leads to language progress.

Gaining Self-Assurance: Students gain self-assurance in their ability to communicate effectively in English. As cultural viewpoints are shared, cultural sensitivity grows, enabling pupils to successfully negotiate cross-cultural situations. Language Varieties Become Familiar: Being exposed to many English dialects gives learners the skills necessary to understand and interact with a variety of accents and colloquial phrases. Honing Real-Life Skills Cooperative learning simulates actual communication situations, ensuring that students are well prepared for social and professional settings where the use of spoken English is essential. In order to successfully implement individual responsibility, educators are essential. They may maximize the advantages of this educational method by assigning responsibilities, defining expectations, fostering self-assessment, and creating a positive learning atmosphere. The mix of cooperative learning and individual responsibility helps learners to not only produce spoken English competently but also to flourish as confident and culturally aware communicators. In a world where excellent spoken English is a priceless asset. This method is in line with the changing needs of language instruction and gives students the tools they need to succeed in a linked, globalised world.

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CHAPTER 10

COMPARING THE USE OF ENGLISH IN COOPERATIVE LEARNING: TRADITIONAL GROUP WORK IN EFL CLASSES

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ABSTRACT:

By contrasting the use of English in two different pedagogical approaches Cooperative Learning and traditional group work this study explores the dynamics of language usage in English as a Foreign Language classrooms. Despite the fact that in EFL classes traditional group work frequently predominates, this study looks at how CL structures affect students' opportunities to interact in the target language, primarily English. This study shows that CL, with its emphasis on individual accountability, facilitates more extensive and meaningful English language use by carefully analysing classroom interactions and student perspectives. It clarifies how CL structures encourage students to present to, converse with, and interact with peers in English, creating a supportive environment for language learning. This research provides helpful insights for educators looking to maximise language acquisition opportunities in EFL classrooms by highlighting the differences in language use between these two approaches.

KEYWORDS:

Cooperative Learning, Efl Classes, Language Acquisition, Student Perspectives, Traditional Group Work.

INTRODUCTION

The methods and strategies used in the classroom when teaching English as a foreign language greatly influence the language learning experiences of the students. The degree to which students have opportunities to actively engage with the target language, particularly in spoken form, is one of the crucial elements of EFL pedagogy. The comparison of two instructional strategies, cooperative learning and traditional group work, with a focus on how English is used in each, is a crucial aspect of EFL education that is covered in this introduction. Giving students effective language skills, especially in the context of communication, is the main goal of EFL instruction. Traditional teaching techniques that heavily rely on teacher-centered instruction, textbooks, and little student interaction have historically been present in many EFL classrooms. However, as the study of language learning progresses, educators are looking into more communicative and interactive methods of teaching it. One well-known pedagogical strategy that places an emphasis on collaborative, student-centered learning is cooperative learning. Students in CL collaborate in small groups while participating actively in a range of tasks and activities that call for them to communicate in the target language.

This strategy not only encourages language learning but also promotes crucial abilities like cooperation, problem-solving, and critical thinking. While traditional group work typically involves students cooperating, it may not place the same emphasis on language use and peer

interaction, so it frequently lacks these qualities. This study aims to provide clarity on the important question: How does English usage in Cooperative Learning differ from that in Traditional Group Work in EFL classes We examine these two instructional strategies in order to understand the nuances and effects of each strategy on language learning environments, student engagement, and language acquisition. We will examine different facets of cooperative learning and traditional group work, analyzing their effects on language use in the EFL classroom, in order to fully investigate this topic. In order to fully understand the efficacy of these strategies, we will also take into account the opinions and experiences of the students. In the end, this research aims to offer researchers and educators in the field of EFL instruction insights into the function of instructional strategies in promoting English language use and its impact on students' language learning journey. We aim to contribute to the ongoing discussion on effective pedagogical strategies for fostering language proficiency and communication skills in EFL settings by contrasting and comparing these two approaches.

English use in traditional group work and CL

In comparison to using the CL structures, regular group work in the examined EFL classes gave the student participants less opportunity to speak the target language. This was shown by the students working in groups of four or five on a grammatical exercise in one of the middle school classes. On a worksheet with a story on it, each group was assigned the task of underlining the past verbs, circling the past continuous, and squaring the adverbs that were used in the fable. A particular student participation group was intensively monitored in order to examine how they interacted while completing the assignment [1].

There were five pupils in the observed group: two guys and three girls. Boy No. 1 spoke the Javanese phrasemaker was, sing kotak, which translates to I will do the squaring. The second boy said, Aku sing garis, which is Javanese for I will do the underlining. Two of the three females were looking at the homework. In front of them was the other female. She attempted to recognise the given grammatical points as well, but she had trouble since she was reading the document in the wrong way. The exercise was then completed by the guys in a group using the sheet. The girls conversed in Indonesian about the assignmen t[2]. The labelling was then attempted by each of them while sitting. In Indonesian, one of the lads questioned everyone in the group, onto itu apa What is going on Itu dari 'on to, one of the females retorted in Indonesian. Andini instructed each group to swap their completed work with a neighboring group when they had all completed the exercise, and she then guided them as they checked each other's work.

The aforementioned account of the use of traditional group work demonstrated how the students in the middle school classroom interacted with their group members while performing the assigned assignment by using Indonesian and Javanese. Additionally, none of the students were practising for any performances or presentations throughout this engagement [3]. The following activities that encourage the use of target language were absent from the traditional group work mentioned above when compared to the usage of CL structures in their classroom Individual accountability performances by students; and the usage of English in these performances. In other words, no activity that required students to present to their classmates about what they had learned in the target language was given to any student [4]. This was a sign that they may not have made an effort

to achieve the desired result of increased communicative competence in English, more especially to strengthen their speaking abilities in English as indicated in the lesson plan for the day. More precisely, because English-language performances or presentations were not required, the students in the middle school classroom may not have had access to intelligible output and input while learning via traditional group work. Although the middle school students' practice for their individual accountability performances involved interactions with little to no English use, when they actually performed their individual accountability for example, in Think-Pair-Share or the Whispering Gam, they only used English and did not use any Indonesian or Javanese words. In other words, the middle school EFL students performed individually accountable tasks in CL using the target language [5].

Promoting the Use of the English Language Through Cooperative Learning and Regular Group Work.

English, which suggests the availability of comprehensible input and the production of comprehensible output, specifically to present their refined answers to the class during the Think-Pair-Share's Share phase, present their answers to the three questions on the notice to their peers during the Pair phase, deliver the given short message to a group member during the Whispering Game, and present the given short message to the entire class. The degrees of individual responsibility in the CL structures chosen by the middle school teacher, which weren't present in the use of the traditional group work outlined earlier, allowed for these spoken English usages[6]. Budi, a middle school student who was one of the focus points, described how, when he was not participating in CL activities like Think-Pair-Share and Whispering Game, he spoke more Indonesian and used less English At standard kelompok times, there were just perwakilans present for depan presentations; none had the time or energy to maju or tampil. And maybe, back when the group was more traditional, it was because there were so many members, making it easier for us to communicate in Ibu, Indonesian, and not English. When working in a normal group, just one member of the group was given the chance to speak out and perform. Additionally, maybe because there are too many people in the group when we work in regular groups, we feel more at ease using Indonesian rather than English.

When comparing CL to traditional group work, as Budi explains, there was a greater use of English than Indonesian because in the former, each member of the group was responsible for speaking on behalf of the group and giving the presentation When working in regular group, only the representative of the group was presenting, not all got the opportunity to come in front, perform [7]. Budi was in the Think Pair-Share and Whispering Game-using eighth grade class. Each student was required to execute these two CL structures using English in front of a partner and subsequently the whole class, as was previously explained. As a result, in Budi's opinion, CL's individual responsibility performances which were not necessary in traditional group work were what encouraged the use of English. Budi said that while doing traditional group work, the number of group members is too big and that as a result, he and his friends preferred to communicate in Indonesian rather than English. In other words, Budi got more chances to utilise English as a result of his individual responsibility performances in Think-Pair-Share and Whispering Game. Budi's

instructor, Andini, had a similar perspective on how individual responsibility in CL increased the usage of English.

However, unlike Budi, she did not believe that the smaller number of students participating in traditional group projects was a contributing factor to the lower usage of English, stating: Dalam CL, masing-masing individual punya Peran dan tanggungjawab masing-masing walau dalam kegiatan yang sederhana seperti 'RoundRobin' dan 'Talking Chips'. In the workforce, generally. Conventionally, only siswa who are pandai and berberine are likely to be there. Every student in CL has a duty and a role to perform, even in simple activities like Round Robin and Talking Chips. In traditional group projects, it's possible that only the brightest pupils participate. Andini emphasized that in CL, even in the very simple Round Robin and Talking Chips CL structures she often utilised in her classes, each student had a part to perform and/or accepted responsibility. However, in none of the classes that were being monitored, she used Talking Chips[8]. In Round Robin, each student is expected to respond to a topic or issue that their instructor raises, as outlined by Kagan and Kagan.

As they participate in the group discussion using Talking Chips, each student places one of the provided talking chips. Individual responsibility in groups is the sole layer of individual accountability present in these two CL systems. Even though a CL exercise only has one level of individual accountability, when it is utilised in a language class, the replies from the students must be given in the language being studied. Although the middle school students who participated in Numbered Heads Together learning only completed one of the two types of individual accountability demanded by this CL structure, all of the group representatives used English when responding to Andini's comprehension questions about a fable they had read that day. Andini's narrative above also reflects her opinion that certain students would probably dominate the discourse since in traditional group work, responsibility was not distributed to each group member. The use of less English in traditional group projects was seen in the high school classroom as well, particularly in the last three sessions lessons three through five that were watched. The bad examples offered here are from the third and fifth classes, where the goal language skill was speaking.

The third lesson had the students working in four-person groups. Each student received a worksheet from Putri that had four news articles, and each group was given one of those topics to concentrate on. Putri emphasised that it was the responsibility of her pupils to practice reading or reporting the news item aloud to their group members with proper pronunciation, eye contact, and confidence. Out of the four groups, only one was seen reading the news in turn. The other pupils were often not paying attention, such as playing with their smartphones and speaking in Javanese about topics unrelated to school This was partially due to the lack of accountability placed on each student to practice reading the news in front of their group and to pay attention to their classmates' performances. The student participants would have utilised English at least twice in their group and in front of the class had such obligation been assigned. Since speaking was the day's goal language skill and the students had to convey some news to the class, they truly required plenty of practice utilising the language. In the fifth lesson, which was focused on the language skill of speaking Lesson Plan, 20150409, Putri taught about expression for making and accepting/refusing

an invitation utilising traditional group work. The first assignment required the students to act out a debate about accepting or declining an offer with a partner. Choose your own companion for this exercise, Putri said in her stated directions.

I'll offer you a dialogue actually, many dialogues practice with your partner after that. You will deliver the conversation verbally. There were just a few couples practicing the conversation. Five females, for instance, were seated next to one another: One was using her mobile, another was playing with a balloon, two were holding the dialogue sheet and the last one was resting her head on the desk. The conversation was then performed in front of the class by all couples, as instructed by Putri [9]. Most of the student participants just read the dialogue from the script, despite Putri's request that they perform the play without any text. Because the high school participants seldom ever practiced the conversation with their partners, reading it out in front of the class could have been the only time they spoke in English.

This occurred as a result of the fact that it was not necessary for each student to practice their dialogue lines with a peer; they were not assigned this obligation and were not held responsible. The majority of the students participating in the tasks assigned through conventional group work in the high school classroom were not held accountable for their own learning such as mastering their dialogue lines and the learning of their peers such as paying attention to their partner saying their dialogue line, which was similar to how conventional group work was used in the middle school classrooms. These students did not practice in their group prior to reading the news and acting out the discussion in front of the class. This meant that less spoken English was utilised in their sessions than was really necessary, particularly since speaking was the main language skill. The high school participants employed English while they were completing their individual responsibility, despite the fact that there was/were a step absent in the application of the CL structures in the first and second class [10].

DISCUSSION

The comparison of English usage in Cooperative Learning and Traditional Group Work in English as a Foreign Language classes sheds light on key aspects of language acquisition, classroom interaction, and teaching strategies. Understanding the distinctions between CL and traditional group work can help teachers of foreign languages develop more productive lesson plans. Traditional Group Work: Traditional Group Work occasionally leads to passive participation, in which only a small number of students actively participate in the task, while the majority merely listen. This inactive participation may limit your ability to practice your language skills. Peer interaction and exposure to language Peer interaction is prioritised in CL, giving students regular exposure to English. Students interact with classmates in English through structured activities, which help them develop their speaking and listening abilities. Traditional Group Work: Depending on the dynamics of the group, the language used in Traditional Group Work may differ significantly. Some groups might prefer to speak in their mother tongue, thereby limiting exposure to English. Personal Responsibility. Individual responsibility is a defining characteristic of CL. Students are accountable for their contributions to group projects, which frequently call for them to use English to express thoughts, present findings, or summaries group activities.

Traditional Group Work Accountability may not be as clearly defined in Traditional Group Work, which could result in unequal participation and possibly less English language use. Task Difficulty and Language Usage Tasks for CL are frequently made to be more challenging and demand that students use English to complete projects or solve problems. Language use is naturally encouraged by this complexity. Traditional Group Work: The complexity of the tasks in traditional group work can vary. It might not be necessary to communicate extensively in English for simpler tasks. The Expectations of the Teacher Teachers typically establish clear expectations for language use in CL environments. Depending on the activity, they might demand that students speak English at certain points. Traditional Group Work In Traditional Group Work, language expectations may be less outlined, allowing students to choose how much English to use. Preferences of Students Some students excel in CL settings because they value the participatory and interactive nature of language learning. Others might feel more at ease in traditional group work, particularly if they like a less structured approach. Goals for Task Design and Language Tasks for CL are frequently in line with the principles of communicative language teaching, which makes them advantageous for the growth of language proficiency.

Positive interdependence means that students understand that they all have to work together to succeed. This can happen by setting goals that everyone works towards, dividing up tasks and materials, assigning roles, and making part of each student's grade depend on how well the whole group does. Group members must understand that their individual efforts are beneficial not only for themselves, but also for all other members of the group. Individual accountability means that each person is responsible for their own learning and work. In cooperative learning, students learn and work together, but they are expected to do their own part and not rely on others. This prevents anyone from taking advantage of others' efforts. The goals of a lesson need to be clear so that students can tell if the whole group and each student have achieved them. When students help each other learn, important thinking tasks and social connections happen. This means talking about how to solve problems, talking about what we are learning, and relating new information to what we already know. Members become personally committed to each other and their shared goals by talking and getting to know each other.

In cooperative learning groups, students learn about academic subjects as well as how to work together in a team. So, a group needs to know how to be good leaders, make decisions, build trust, communicate well, and manage conflicts. Teachers can help students do better in difficult skills by teaching them how to work together and cooperate in their lessons. As students get better at these skills, their later group projects will probably go more smoothly and effectively than their earlier ones. After finishing their work, students need to be given time and ways to examine how well their learning groups are working and how well they are using their social skills. Group processing is when a group of people work together to do a task and improve how they do it for the next time. In the same way, created an easy-to-remember acronym called PIES. This acronym stands for positive interdependence, individual accountability, equal participation, and simultaneous interaction. The last two terms mentioned before are included in the final three elements. There are different methods that can be used to help groups work together well. The list below is meant to give you an idea of things, but it might not contain everything. This is why students are often put into groups to work together on a task that is too big to finish on their own

in a reasonable amount of time. Sometimes, these projects can be more fun and teach us more than simpler versions. Look at how projects are done. Split the group into people who are experts in specific topics that will be studied. Experts in a specific area work together to gain knowledge and skills in their specialization. Afterwards, they come back to their original team and merge their new knowledge with that of experts in other aspects of the subject to complete the project. To fully understand this technique, refer to the jigsaw module.

Peer review is when students learn how to give and get helpful feedback. It's an important part of doing research. The peer review module explains how students can work together to help each other with their writing assignments. There are various ways to encourage people to work together and rely on each other in a positive way. Output goal interdependence means that a group works together to create one product. Learning goal interdependence means that every member in a group knows and can explain what the group is working on. Resource interdependence means that group members are given different parts of the task or useful information, or the group only gets one copy of the task. Role interdependence means that each member of a group has a specific and important role to play in order for the group to work effectively. Each person can be assigned quizzes and tests to test their knowledge. Similarly, some parts of group projects can be done alone or by picking students randomly. These students can then share their group results by talking or writing them down. Within-Group Peer Assessment. Another way to prevent students from relying on their peers to do the whole group project is to ask students to rate their group members anonymously. The average rating from all the group members will then be included in each student's grade.

To learn more about how to make sure everyone does their part, check out the cooperative learning assessment page. In-person communication where people interact directly with each other to promote something. Help students engage with different aspects of the project by giving them specific tasks that involve working with and communicating with the rest of the group. This could include tasks like checking data, making sure everyone stays focused, or keeping track of important information. If students don't have much time to meet in person (like on campuses where students commute or in online classes), the teacher can create an online message board for students to share messages with the whole group, similar to sending emails. Many types of software, like WebCT and Blackboard, can help manage classrooms. It also lets the teacher keep an eye on how people are interacting. Interpersonal skills are the abilities we have to communicate and interact with others effectively. They involve things like listening and empathizing with others, being able to express oneself clearly, building and maintaining relationships, and resolving conflicts. Good interpersonal skills are essential in both personal and professional settings as they help us navigate social situations and work well with others. It might be useful to tell your students why they are working together and how the group can help them learn better.

Let students practice working together before expecting amazing results from group work. If you put students in groups at the beginning of the term and have them work on several projects together, they will not only get to know their classmates' schedules and individual strengths, but also become better at asking and answering questions about their projects and how they are doing. It could be helpful for group members to write their own thoughts about what they learned after the project is

done. They should mention which parts of the project they found important and which group members helped them make important findings. After writing their reflections, the group should come together to talk about the project. According to Fink (2003), learning how to learn is one of the five important parts of significant learning experiences. It helps students become better learners, ask questions about a topic, and build knowledge. It also helps them become independent learners.

CONCLUSION

Cooperative Learning CL and Traditional Group Work in English as a Foreign Language EFL classes are contrasted in order to highlight the significance of instructional methodologies in shaping language acquisition. When it comes to encouraging the use of the English language in the classroom, both strategies have their own advantages and disadvantages. Cooperative learning CL is proving to be a reliable strategy for improving English language proficiency. It is an effective tool for language development because it places a strong emphasis on active engagement, peer interaction, individual accountability, and challenging tasks. CL fosters language acquisition by giving students plenty of opportunities to practice speaking and listening in English. Setting up clear language expectations and encouraging language use during CL activities are crucial tasks for teachers. However, Traditional Group Work, while still beneficial, may not always succeed in fostering English language proficiency. Its efficacy is greatly influenced by the dynamics of the group and may not always guarantee consistent language use. If language expectations aren't clear, students might default to speaking in their native tongue, limiting their exposure to English. A well-rounded strategy that integrates the benefits of both CL and traditional group work can be very successful. It is important for teachers to carefully plan tasks that promote language use, set clear language expectations, and track students' development. By using a hybrid approach, students are guaranteed to gain from CL's collaborative features while also having flexibility and adaptability to various learning contexts. Additionally, fostering a culture in the classroom that values and prioritises meaningful language practice is essential for successfully promoting the use of the English language. To do this, supportive environments that encourage students to use English in risky ways and that celebrate language proficiency growth must be created.

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CHAPTER 11

SYMBOLS AND TYPOGRAPHIC STANDARDS: VISUAL COMMUNICATION AND DESIGN GUIDELINES

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ABSTRACT:

Human communication is fundamentally based on symbols, which are remarkably effective at communicating complex ideas and information. This abstract explores the purpose of symbols and how they adhere to typographic conventions. It looks at the development of symbols historically, how they are used in a variety of contexts, and how crucial consistency and clarity are in symbol design. The study looks at how symbols have a universal appeal that cuts across linguistic boundaries and promotes efficient international communication. It talks about the significance of symbols in daily life, from traffic signs that promote safety on the road to digital interface icons that encourage user interaction. The abstract also emphasises the value of following typographic guidelines when designing symbols, stressing the need for uniformity, legibility, and accessibility. The impact of technology on symbol design is also discussed, with a particular emphasis on how digital tools have transformed the production and use of symbols. The abstract also discusses the difficulties of symbol design in multicultural settings and the value of cultural sensitivity.

KEYWORDS:

Communication Symbols, Cultural Sensitivity, Icon Design, Symbol Consistency, Symbol Evolution, Typographic Standards.

INTRODUCTION

Whether we are consciously aware of them or not, symbols and typographic conventions play a significant role in our daily lives. They are the unsung heroes of communication, subtly guiding us and facilitating effective comprehension. In this introduction, we explore the fascinating world of symbols and typographic conventions, examining their importance in various facets of our lives, from the road signs we encounter on our daily commute to the icons we see on our smartphone screens. Symbols are a universal language that cut across linguistic boundaries, and they are frequently referred to as visual shorthand. They deconstruct complex information so that anyone can understand it, regardless of language proficiency. For instance, whether you speak English, Spanish, or Mandarin, a straightforward red octagon with the word STOP inside is instantly understood as a command to halt. This universality makes symbols indispensable in fields like transportation, safety, and user interface design, where rapid and precise comprehension is crucial. On the other hand, typographic guidelines control how text is presented to guarantee consistency and readability.

Typographic conventions are carefully designed to enhance the reading experience, from font selection and size to line spacing and margins. These guidelines also apply to digital content, having an impact on the design of websites, e-books, and mobile apps. For instance, using sans-

serif fonts in digital interfaces improves readability on screens while upholding visual harmony by sticking to uniform font sizes and styles. We will examine how cultural influences have shaped the symbols we use every day as we explore the historical roots and evolution of symbols and typographic conventions. We'll also go over how crucial it is to maintain typographic and symbol consistency across a range of contexts, including international navigation systems and multinational company branding. We will also examine the difficulties associated with designing symbols with cultural sensitivity for a diverse audience, highlighting the necessity of developing inclusive and accessible visual communication. We will develop a deeper understanding of the silent communicators that direct and inform us in our contemporary, visually-driven society as we set out on this journey through the world of symbols and typographic conventions.

Dialects

We say that people speak different dialects of the same language when they can understand one another while simultaneously noticing pronounced differences in one another's speech. 'Dialect' is unfortunately not a very precise term. Any two people will have different speaking styles. How dissimilar must speech patterns be before we can refer to them as different dialects. Professional linguists who specialise in dialectology can distinguish between one dialect area of a country and another dialect area using a variety of pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammatical criteria, but no one assumes that a single dialect area's dialect is completely uniform. Any language with a sizable population of speakers develops variation in how people use it, particularly if there are obstacles that make frequent communication challenging. Geographical obstacles like mountains, swamps, oceans, or simply distance are one type of barrier. Before the modern era, few people ever migrated to another area, moved only once, and stayed there. They also had little contact with people who lived, say, fifty miles away or less from where they were born. Thus, there used to be quite a few regional dialects in England that reflected the feudal society of the Middle Ages, and these dialects are still present today [1].

The distinction between Northern and Southern dialects still exists today. For instance, Northern speakers pronounce nut, some, and young with the same vowel sound as put, bush, and full, whereas Southern speakers and the rest of the English-speaking world pronounce these words with two distinct vowels. Today, more people can travel back and forth without migrating, and communication no longer requires face-to-face interactions. We are constantly exposed to voices from a great distance through the media of film, radio, and television. While noticing variations in word usage or pronunciation, we can still understand what is being said. Over time, however, we come to accept these variations as normal. The media, or at least the creators of radio and television programmers that are broadcast nationally and internationally, do some editing; they remove linguistic features that are only accepted in local contexts. As a result, they support the development of pandialectal usage [2].

The promotion of greater uniformity is being pushed by such forces, but other forces are pulling in the opposite direction. Humans establish social ties. Men and women use different speech forms, and each generation of adolescents introduces new words and new meanings for existing words, differentiating their way of speaking from that of their elders. These two minor examples of social differentiation are sex and age. The fact that complex societies are made up of multiple groups that

may overlap and are differentiated from one another based on wealth, education, occupations, ethnicity, religion, or some combination of these is more pertinent in a discussion of dialectology. People desire membership in particular groups to varying degrees. Others want to promote the upward mobility of the group they already belong to; still others have no desire for change of any kind but want to maintain whatever sets their group apart from others. Some people strive for upward mobility and try to emulate those who appear to be better off [3].

Recent investigations in Glasgow, Liverpool, Philadelphia, Toronto, and Sydney, among other places, have shown that group identification can take the form of some common preference in clothing, jewellery, vehicles, mannerisms, or way of speaking. Indigenous language forms have grown and spread among these groups, especially in large cities. Language variation is not just a matter of regional and social dialects. Depending on the circumstance and the people we are speaking with, each of us has different conversational styles that can range from the most formal to the most informal. Furthermore, most written language especially printed language does not sound like most speech. Speaking informally or casually, speakers can usually infer what their audience already knows and adjust their language accordingly. Some information is also conveyed through the speaker's tone of voice and the context of the conversation. On the other hand, writers of written material must be more careful with each sentence because they are unsure of what their intended audience will contribute. The question of a standard, which comes up frequently when dialects are discussed, is one that is difficult to define for serious descriptive work but is used frequently in everyday speech. Publishers of books and newspapers started setting standards for grammar and spelling centuries ago, just as producers of radio and television programmes today may filter out the local language forms in order to gain widespread acceptance for their productions.

The issue of prestige is related to the need for or desirability of some standardisation. Publishers quite naturally chose the usage of the upper classes when deciding between the forms that were currently in use. Therefore, notice that the norm for written English is largely based on the London dialect spoken by people associated with the Establishment. Received Pronunciation is a prestige dialect based on the same upper-class speech pattern. No longer limited to a specific region of England, RP now characterises the speech of educated people [4]. In areas where British influence has been strong, RP has traditionally been the form of English taught to foreigners. Until recently, all voices heard on the British Broadcasting Corporation spoke RP. Despite this, less than 5% of English speakers are fluent in it. It has been mentioned that there are Northern and Southern dialects in England. Urban varieties with distinctly different personalities can be found within these broad divisions; examples include Liverpool, Birmingham, Manchester, and Norwich. In addition to giving rise to the standard form of English, London is also the origin of Cockney, the dialect associated with that city's working classes.

The Global Development of English Dialects

Wales has been politically united with England since the middle of the sixteenth century, and English has been spoken there ever since the Norman Conquest. Since then, English has supplanted Welsh as the language of choice, particularly with the introduction of industrialization in the early nineteenth century. However, there are significant initiatives today to preserve the latter by

encouraging bilingualism. People who spoke Scots, which, depending on your point of view, is either a dialect of English or a closely related language, lived in Scotland's lowlands when it was united with England in the seventeenth century. Scots Gaelic speakers inhabited the highlands and outer islands. Scots Gaelic has almost entirely vanished. The language that is now widely spoken in Scotland is unmistakably English , but it also differs significantly from the English language in terms of vocabulary and pronunciation from RP. Two distinct political entities and two distinctly different dialect regions make up the island of Ireland. Northern Ireland, also known as Ulster, is a part of the UK.

Since many of its residents' ancestors immigrated from Scotland in the seventeenth century, their pronunciation of their language is similar to that of Scots. Irish Gaelic, which was the native tongue of the area that is now the Republic of Ireland, has influenced Irish English. There is significant linguistic diversity throughout Wales, Scotland, and the Republic of Ireland, but there are no distinct dialect boundaries within those countries [5]. The pronunciation of the R in words like car and card, for example, has not changed in Scottish or Irish English, it should be noted here. Since the early seventeenth century, English has been spoken in North America . The original colonies established in both countries by colonists from the British Isles have been supplemented by immigrants from other continents who or whose children learned English in the new environment. The island province of Newfoundland in Canada has a distinct dialect area and a history from the rest of the nation. The maritime provinces , where English-speaking people first settled on the mainland, agree. For such a large nation, the rest of the country exhibits, or is rumoured to exhibit, remarkable linguistic uniformity. The dialect situation in the United States is somewhat comparable, with relatively distinct dialect areas on the east coast and greater homogeneity as one travels west, reflecting the separate settlement of the original colonies and the mixing of populations during their westward migrations.

All of New England, New York, and northern New Jersey are included in the Northern dialect region, which then extends westward across the Great Lakes and along the Canadian border to the Pacific coast. Beginning in Delaware and Maryland, a Southern dialect region stretches to Florida on the eastern side of the Appalachian Mountains, then west along the Gulf coast to southern Texas. The remaining portion, known as the Midland area, only includes Pennsylvania and New Jersey on the Atlantic coast but broadens to almost the entire nation after the Appalachians. 'General American' is a term that has occasionally been used to describe a Midland dialect. Bermuda in the Atlantic Ocean, Belize in Central America, Guyana in South America, the Bahamas, Jamaica, the Virgin Islands, St. Kitts and Nevis, Monserrat, Anguilla, Dominica, St. Lucia, Barbados, St. Vincent, Grenada, and Trinidad and Tobago are all places where English is spoken near the Caribbean Sea. It was first established in this region as the language of the masters, acting as the sole medium of communication for the population of slaves forcibly transported from West Africa to the isolated and literally monocultivating plantations [6].

The initial language used was a pidgin, which is a condensed version of the language of the dominant social group. A pidgin grows significantly and transforms into a Creole after being taught to a generation of young people. There are many different dialects of English spoken in the Caribbean today, from standard forms to Creoles that are incomprehensible to speakers of standard

forms. There are also Portuguese, Dutch, Spanish, and French Creoles. Australia is quite uniform linguistically, where English colonisation started at the end of the eighteenth century. Although it draws many of its vocabulary words from the indigenous languages of Australia, its close ties to Britain and the country's recent colonisation have kept it linguistically close. The pronunciation varies from RP to something that sounds somewhat like Broad Australian, which is similar to Cockney New Zealand was only settled by English and Scots in the 1820s, and aside from the South Island, which is thought to have more Scottish influence than the North Island, there is not a lot of linguistic diversity there.

Similar to Australia, there are words in use that are unique to the country and were taken from the Maori language, but British English has long served as the standard for prestige in other spheres of usage. Although only 10% of South Africans are native English speakers, English is the language of choice in business, academia, journalism, and everyday life. Thus, although English is spoken by many other ethnic groups as a second language, there are few significant linguistic differences among South Africans who are native speakers [7]. The pronunciation of Broad South African English among native speakers differs intriguingly from English spoken elsewhere in the world. On these distinctive qualities. Even though this book is limited to dialects of English spoken by native speakers, it would be incorrect to ignore the fact that English is a crucial language for administration, education, and commerce in nations where there is a small native English-speaking population. In some cases, it even holds official status as one of the official languages. These nations, with the exception of Liberia and the Philippines, which have been influenced by American English, are all former British Empire possessions that are now independent whether or not they are Commonwealth nations. English naturally changes a little bit depending on where it is spoken due to the influence of these various native tongues. As a result, the term New Englishes is appropriate to describe the varieties of English that are emerging in West Africa , East Africa , Southeast Asia , and South Asia .

Similarities and Differences

It is clear that what speakers of different dialects have in common linguistically outweighs what they do not if they are able to communicate while recognising differences in each other's speech patterns. What must be the same and what can differ We become aware of the ways in which people from dialect regions other than our own speak when we listen to them. The most striking aspects of their delivery speaking quickly or slowly, in a shrill or hoarse voice, in a monotone or with a wide range of pitch might not be aspects of language per se. These speech characteristics, referred to as paralanguage, are present in speech and may affect how we perceive the speaker and, consequently, how we interpret what the speaker is saying, but they are not a component of language because they are non-communicative in themselves. Other speakers' use of words that we do not use or whose meanings differ from our own may be apparent to us vocabulary differences [8].

When people who live together and know each other well have misunderstandings, it is often due to vocabulary differences. Speakers may employ various word forms, such as got or gotten as the past participle of get, or dove or dived as the past tense of dive differences in morphology. Syntactic differences in English are very slight, but it is possible to notice differences in the way

words are combined to express meaning differences in syntax. Which is correct He gave it me or He gave it to me Which is correct I looked out the window or I looked out of the window We might not even be able to tell that we were hearing something strange. When it comes to pronunciation, we might pick up on intonational characteristics, such as when the voice seems to rise at the end of an utterance when it should be falling or vice versa. However, this alone reveals a characteristic of speakers of all languages, including English they all use melodies that have meaning. Only because we take the familiar, identical intonations for granted do we notice an intonational difference. We are most likely to pay attention when a word is pronounced differently than how we would say it; perhaps the speaker emphasizes a different syllable of the word [9].

But only the nature of the English language makes this possible. Most words in some languages, like Chinese, Thai, and Vietnamese, are only one syllable long. Both monosyllabic and polysyllabic words are common in the English language. The stressed syllable always occurs in the same position within the word in some languages with polysyllabic words, such as Czech and Polish first, next to last, and so forth. The position of stress has changed in many words over the past few centuries in English, where it is more variable than that. We can easily notice that English speakers pronounce some words differently than others; examples include half, either, and tomato. What we likely don't realise is that the differences mostly exist in vowels and hardly ever in consonants. Thus, mutual intelligibility necessitates a large amount of shared vocabulary despite some differences, common grammar, again despite differences, and a phonological system where the differences are only acknowledged because of the enormous similarities that are taken for granted.

Navigate This Linguistics Book's Structure

After this one, every chapter starts with a section called Looking ahead that briefly summarises the key topics it will cover. Each chapter concludes with a section titled Looking back that, as you might expect, summarises those points but also makes an effort to demonstrate the significance of what has been covered, as well as to describe any problems with analysis that were not covered in the chapter, as well as any disagreements in linguists' opinions on the subject. For those who want to deepen their understanding of these subjects, readings in other books are advised. Some of the descriptive statements and some of the illustrative utterances might not agree with what you say if you are a native English speaker. This is inevitable, so neither you nor the book are wrong because of it. The range of variation that can be covered in a single volume has a limit. Although every variation of the language cannot be covered in detail in this book, we hope to give you a foundation for understanding the types of variation that exist, which should help you better understand how your speech fits into the overall pattern of English phonology.

It takes a theoretical point of view to describe the sound structure of English or any other language. Everything we do affects or even determines our point of view, which in turn is influenced by our perspective. is not just with English pronunciation, but also with the phonology of English and how it relates to its semantics and grammar. Any linguistic investigation's overarching goal is to gain a deeper comprehension of what language is, how it functions, and what shared knowledge people possess that enables them to communicate with one another [10].

DISCUSSION

The topic of Symbols and typographic standards explores the importance of symbols and typography in design and communication. In a variety of disciplines, including graphic design, typography, branding, and wayfinding, these two components are essential for effectively communicating information, influencing aesthetics, and upholding consistency. Let's examine a few crucial ideas in this debate. Universal Symbolic Language A universal language that cuts across linguistic and cultural boundaries is that of symbols. They are crucial in producing visual communication that a wide audience can easily understand. The discussion emphasises how symbols are essential in disciplines like signage and information design because of their ability to effectively communicate complex ideas or concepts. As a Visual Tool, Typography is discussed as a potent visual tool. Typography is the art and technique of arranging type. It affects readability, feeling, and brand identity by influencing how readers perceive and interpret text. Fonts, spacing, alignment, and other typographic elements can be used to evoke various emotions and deliver particular messages. Integrity and branding For the purpose of creating and enhancing brand identity, maintaining typographic and symbol consistency is essential. The focus of the discussion is on how businesses and organisations establish a consistent brand identity across a range of media and materials by using standardised typography and logos. Photoshop in the Digital Age The discussion examines how typography has changed in the digital era.

CONCLUSION

The discussion of Symbols and typographic standards highlights the importance of these elements in the field of visual communication and design. Effective messaging, brand identity, and aesthetic appeal are built on the foundation of these components in a variety of media and industries. We have examined the many facets of symbols and typography throughout this discussion, realising their capacity to communicate across linguistic and cultural boundaries. While typography affects how readers perceive and interpret text, affecting readability, emotion, and brand identity, symbols serve as effective tools for communicating complex ideas in a clear and concise manner. Establishing and enhancing brand identity requires maintaining consistency in symbol usage and typographic choices. Standardised typography and logos help to create a consistent and recognisable brand image, whether in the context of branding, marketing, signage, or information design. Understanding the nuances and principles of symbols and typographic standards is essential for success in the fields of graphic design, typography, branding, and communication. These components continue to be crucial to our capacity to persuade, inform, and communicate with a variety of audiences through visual experiences.

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CHAPTER 12

IMPORTANCE OF PHONOLOGY AND PHONEMIC AWARENESS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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ABSTRACT:

In the process of acquiring a language, phonemic awareness and phonology are crucial. This abstract emphasises their importance in comprehending spoken language's sounds and patterns. Fluency in reading and speaking is largely dependent on one's capacity to identify and control specific speech sounds, or phonemes, known as phonemic awareness. Additionally, phonology covers a wider spectrum of phonetic patterns, such as stress, assimilation, and elision, which affects one's capacity to understand and create spoken language efficiently. This abstract investigates the relationship between phonemic awareness and reading success, especially in young children. It also emphasises its relationship to dyslexia and its function in bridging spoken and written language. The abstract also explores the importance of phonology in understanding complex linguistic features like stress patterns and pronunciation differences. The abstract also examines the instructional strategies needed to educate language learners phonemic awareness and phonological competence, with a focus on listening, imitation, and modelling. In the end, it emphasises how having a thorough knowledge of phonology and phonemic awareness equips students to become skilled in both comprehending and generating spoken language, which considerably aids in the success of language acquisition.

KEYWORDS:

Phonemic Awareness, Phonological Competence, Procedural Knowledge, Prosody, Spoken English.

INTRODUCTION

English instructors in Malaysia have a significant obstacle when it comes to spoken English. The majority of school dropouts need to speak English well enough to get a job waiting tables, and graduates must succeed in an English-language interview for a position requiring advanced language skills. This necessitates a significant change on the part of instructors from emphasising the written skills of reading and writing to placing greater emphasis on the oral skills of speaking and listening. Additionally, students must learn how to connect with others. For example, they may read an email and explain its contents in a meeting or take turns speaking and listening during a conversation. The teaching of spoken English, and in particular the production of spoken English, is by no means fully covered, despite the fact that the majority of the issues teachers face have been addressed by researchers from around the world and documented in the form of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

This essay examines the challenges educators confront when attempting to teach spoken English in a way that satisfies the demands of rising CEFR levels. The issues that new students face as

well as some of the challenges that develop as students go through the levels get special focus, but not all of it. The CEFR scales outline what students are capable of doing at various levels, but they do not address how students acquire the skills necessary for each stage. There are numerous publications out there that describe how to study English grammar, and textbooks usually deliver it in a way that helps students build their grammatical understanding while also broadening their vocabulary. There are several works that outline the organisation of spoken English. You could be let down if you're an English teacher seeking for books or other resources that explain how students can improve their spoken English to advance to the next CEFR level. In this paper, I try to address this significant gap.

Knowledge of phonetics

Children are said to have acquired phonemic awareness when they comprehend the connection between spellings and speech sounds, which is known to be a predictor of future success in reading. Since phonemes are the building blocks of spoken language, being aware of them also paves the way for learning spoken language at a higher level. A failure to successfully develop phonemic awareness in children has long been linked to dyslexia. The ability to manipulate phonemes, such as adding top to create stop, subtracting from bend to create bed, or changing /b/ in bad to /m/ to create mad, is referred to as phonemic awareness Because it enables the development of other skills that students must acquire as they gain more knowledge of the spoken language, phonemic awareness is crucial [1]. Students who possess phonemic awareness can repeat what they have heard using their own phonemes possibly in a foreign accent, and they are aware of the phonemes that must be produced in order to pronounce a word correctly. In our handwriting, words appear differently when we write them down, but the letters are always written in the same order.

Similar to how words sound differently when spoken by different people, most but not all words produce the same set of phonemes when they are pronounced. When someone who lacks phonemic awareness copies a word directly from its sound, the word may become completely unrecognisable as a result. Sometimes you can hear remnants of direct copying in advanced learners' speech. For instance, as this section was being written, a learner of English who actually has very good spoken English was overheard pronouncing the word booth with what appeared to be a lot of air rather than the English -sound. This was obviously the word booth in the context, but if had been taken out of that, it probably wouldn't have been understood [2]. Phonics and phonemic awareness are not the same thing, but they are related. A person who understands phonics is aware of the phonemes that are used in word pronunciation, but a person who has phonemic awareness can recognise phonemes in various words despite differences in spelling.

For instance, the vowel phonemes for go, low, bone, and throat are all the same, whereas the vowel phonemes for do, now, gone, and broad are all very different. Some phonemes, such as the initial sounds of thin, then, chip, and ship, cannot be represented using the Roman alphabet's letters. The term phonetic symbols refers to the additional letters that linguists have been using for about 150 years to represent phonemes. These additional letters are immediately useful and simple to learn if you are familiar with phonemes. The same new letters must seem strange and perplexing to someone who lacks phonemic awareness and serve no purpose. The key idea is that phonemic awareness follows the use of phonetic symbols logically. Different people learn in different ways,

so it's possible that some pick up phonemic awareness by using phonetic symbols instead of the other way around [3].

Once they have gotten past the beginning stages, students need to learn how to use a dictionary. Each word in a dictionary intended for beginners will have a phonetic transcription that uses symbols that correspond to the letters in the word's spelling. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary, which is still being published in new editions and now has accompanying sound files so you can hear the pronunciation, is likely the oldest and most popular. Students can take off and learn new words on their own and make a significant step towards becoming autonomous learners when they learn to use a pronouncing dictionary. Children who can read words can discuss written language, and those who are familiar with the corresponding phonemes can discuss spoken language. This enables the learner to advance in both spoken and written language at the same time by building a bridge between them. The spoken language can then be understood at a higher level as a result. who actually speaks very good English was overheard pronouncing the word booth with the English th-sound was replaced by what sounded like with a lot of air [4].

In the However, if taken out of context, it would almost certainly have been the word booth not recognisable. Phonics and phonemic awareness are not the same thing, but they are related. anyone with knowledge Someone with phonics is aware of the phonemes used in word pronunciation, but someone with Despite differences in spelling, phonemic awareness can detect phonemes in various words. For instance, the vowel phonemes for go, low, bone, and throat are all the same, whereas do, now, gone, broad, and all of those have distinct vowel phonemes. The majority of phonemes are represented some cannot, such as the first few sounds of thin, using the Roman alphabet's letters chip and ship next. About 150 years ago, linguists began using extra letters. The term phonetic symbols refers to symbols created specifically to represent phonemes. You may know These extra letters, which are simple to learn, are immediately helpful in relation to phonemes. If Your lack of phonemic awareness must make the same new letters seem strange and perplexing and have no useful function.

The key is that usage logically follows awareness of phonemes phonological symbols. It depends on the individual how they learn, and there may individuals who learn in reverse and pick up phonemic awareness through the phonetic symbols are used. Once they've gotten past the beginning stages, students need to learn how to use an encyclopedia. A phonetic transcription of each word will be included in a dictionary intended for students. a word made up of phonetic symbols that correspond to the spelling's letters. the first The Advanced Learner's Dictionary, which is the most popular and still being included in new editions and now comes with corresponding sound files so that you how to pronounce. Students who master the use of a pronouncing dictionary can take off and study new words independently, making a significant advancement in becoming independent learners. Children who can read words can discuss written language, and those who are Talking about the spoken language also requires knowledge of the corresponding phonemes. This results in a bridge that connects the spoken and written languages, allowing learners to advancement in both simultaneously This results in a deeper comprehension of the spoken words [5].

Proficiency in Phonology

Learning a spoken language involves much more than just learning how to pronounce words. The Council of Europe, states that the CEFR refers to phonological competence, which involves knowledge of, and skill in the perception and production of a variety of phonetic patterns, ranging from nasality and plosion to weak forms, assimilation, and elision. The development of phonological control is said to occur in speakers The portion of spoken language that is easiest to understand is speech sounds. Stress, one of the more intricate aspects of spoken language, can only be learned as procedural knowledge [6]. Although the words billow and below share the same phonemes, they are very different from one another. This is due to the stress system in English, wherein Billow is stressed on the first syllable and below is stressed on the second. The majority of the longer words that novice readers come across, like Birthday, Football, or YELLOW, are stressed on the first They might come across words like giraffe or guitar, which are stressed on the second syllable, though most words are stressed on the first. Advanced students must deal with English words that according to their speech part, have various patterns of stress.

For instance, if a project is PROJECT is a noun that has the first syllable stressed, and if it's a verb, it has the second syllable stressed. project is the world's second syllable. Few English language students learn how to lead groups of related words with varying stress patterns, with probably the best-known example being Photographic, photographer, and photograph. In the absence of a stress system in your L1, you might not even notice the tension and have trouble hearing it at all. So-called A form of English without a stress system is called Manglish. Never try to learn English. You must begin by listening to lectures or gathering information to reduce stress exemplary behavior and copying it. Saying simple words in the target language is probably the most fundamental speaking ability for a language learner. target dialect. It takes more than just producing a series of phonemes to say a word due to the requirement that the phonemes line up with a pitch contour that rises to a peak before falling, drops too low. Learners only need to speak clearly by imitating effective models; they do not need to at this point, it is not necessary to have any knowledge of phonemes or pitch contours [7].

Our knowledge of typically only speak one word at a time in the course, and students almost immediately move on to phrases that combine two words into one, like fast cars or my brother, contour. It would not make sense to combine any two words in this manner, and we cannot do that to stop after saying the of. We combine words in accordance with grammar rules. swift automobiles. Adjectives and words like my must come before nouns in English, as does my brother. One might speculate that as learners advance, their ability to produce brief phrases will increase. To reach CEFR A1, they take a straightforward action. They actually perform an action. complex when spoken language and grammar are combined. It would require a lot of time. to list and describe each skill that an English learner must possess and be able to do in order to mention my brother or fast cars. Fluent speakers must understand not only the grammar but also how the target language is put together. combining words in speech. Consider a student who omits the letter t when saying fast cars.

Does this a mistake made by the learner or is it just a lazy way of speaking? If you pay close attention to You'll notice that native English speakers, do it frequently. when added at the When a

consonant appears at the start of the next word after a vowel, is said to be elided. Good students often unknowingly make this mistake. The instructor is able to students are aware of the rule to improve their speaking fluency, but they must practice they don't actually do it until they do so subconsciously. The instructor who is unaware of the rule may call out students for being lazy when they are speaking clearly. Possibly a more A crucial rule relates to r-sounds. For instance, the letter r does not have a sound however, when it is used in the phrase far away, the r is present when the word far is produced alone. Pronounced. The process of learning to pronounce these words intuitively is much simpler for the learner. rather than giving declarative knowledge in the form of a theoretical explanation, start by listening. and requiring the speaker to put the theory into practice. A moment to explain These actions are made when students have mastered them and can carry them out automatically. Being conscious of what they have already subconsciously learned [8].

Read out loud

Reading aloud is a crucial component of language instruction. Teachers must learn how to read aloud because it is a special skill that is required of them. Through reading aloud, students demonstrate their understanding of the relationship between spoken and written language as well as their knowledge of the spoken language. When a student reads a passage word for word, they are primarily focused on phonetically matching the spelling and decoding the spelling. A more experienced reader can skip ahead in the text and speak two or more words at once. For this, you need to have a solid grasp of both spoken and written English, as well as enough knowledge of grammar to properly group words [9]. The reader will eventually come across punctuation; they may be told to speak louder at commas and quieter at full stops.

Any English word or phrase spoken out of context automatically ends with a drop in pitch and loudness, so full stops are not a problem. The comma rule requires the reader to have advanced as a speaker enough to produce lengthy, grammatically correct word sequences that call for a break in the middle. Where there is no comma in the orthography, readers who are familiar with the comma rule can also insert breaks. It is very difficult to teach students how to do this, but as is typically the case in advanced spoken language instruction, it is possible to make students conscious of the procedural knowledge they already possess. Normal intonation refers to the prosody that occurs when people read aloud. Since we express our emotions when speaking naturally, it actually does not sound at all like natural speech. When reading aloud, most of the emotional content is lost. We attempt to mimic natural emotional speech when reading direct speech, which is typically required when reading stories. A highly skilled reader will be able to transition between reading aloud, simulating natural speech for the reported speech, and reading aloud once more. Although it is far beyond what can be directly taught, students can be coached to develop this skill [10].

DISCUSSION

Learning to read an alphabetically written language requires the development of phonemic awareness. Nonetheless, there is still misconception, particularly among educators, regarding what this talent is and why it is so essential. This essay, written for practitioners, outlines phonemic

awareness and examines why it is a precondition for learning to read, how we have come to appreciate its significance, why it may be difficult to acquire, and what happens to the aspiring reader who fails to acquire it. Our consideration of phonemic awareness is structured inside a certain reading perspective, which we will return to first. Reading, or more accurately reading comprehension, is the capacity to infer meaning from the printed word, especially meaning intended by the author in essence, reading is comprehending the meaning of written language. The main distinction between the written and spoken word is not what is transmitted, but how it is delivered, by sight rather than ear. Reading, in this simplistic perspective, is based on two basic cognitive skills. The first is comprehension, or linguistic understanding. The capacity to extract a word's phonological representation from the sequences of letters that represent it is the second. Skilled decoding helps the reader to recall the meaning of words understood and ordered via spoken language acquisition through text. Decoding and comprehension skills work together to allow linguistic understanding to occur via the written word.

To presage the next discussion, although phonemic awareness is a linguistic talent, it is not required for learning or, later, comprehending language. Every proficient speaker of a language has learned its phonology. However, since language acquisition is a tacit process that occurs without conscious attention, mastery occurs without the requirement for an explicit, conscious comprehension of phonology. However, in order to learn to read, and particularly to decode, a cognitive comprehension of the phonological units underlying the spoken word is required. Phonemic awareness is a cognitive talent made up of three parts. The first component is a linguistic unit called a phoneme; the second is explicit, conscious knowledge of that unit; and the third is the capacity to manipulate such units expressly. Phonemic awareness is therefore the capacity to change language at the phoneme level intentionally. Let's go over them one by one. A phoneme is a language unit that is abstract. Linguists consider it as the most fundamental unit of language capable of influencing meaning. As an example, the difference between the word pairs bit and pit, bat and bet, bin and bid is a single phoneme, which occurs at the start, medial, or final position of the spoken word in these cases.

Phonemes are abstract since they are not the real sounds that make up words; they are referred to as phones. They are the fundamental category to which the phones belong. Consider how the sound represented by the letter p differs between the words pan and span. Hold your hand near to your lips and note how the puff of air produced while saying the former is significantly stronger than that released when saying the latter. The puff, also known as aspiration, is not distinguishable in English since there are no pairings of words where the difference in aspiration signifies a change in meaning. In a nutshell, these two sounds are distinct, yet they belong to the same underlying category or phoneme. As we shall see, one of the challenges a kid has in establishing phonemic awareness is the abstract character of phonemes.

It is also critical to understand that phonemes are linguistic units rather than writing system units. While bit, bait, butte, and purchased all have different letter counts, they all reflect words with just three phonemes that vary only in their second phoneme. The second component of the phonemic awareness idea, in addition to the phonemic unit, is the explicit, conscious knowledge of these units. Any kid who has acquired a language understands the phonemes of that language; if she did

not, she would be unable to distinguish between spoken minimal pairs in that language, such as bit and pit. However, being able to employ that linguistic distinction in speaking and listening to language is not the same as understanding precisely that the difference is in the first portion of the term. The capacity to deliberately reflect on the linguistic components that underpin language is the metalinguistic aspect of this explicit knowledge.

More than just being aware of the phoneme, the third component of phonemic-awareness demands some amount of competence in manipulating phonemes. It is not enough for a youngster to be aware of the phonemic units in order to learn to read an alphabetic language; the child must also be able to manipulate those units. Such manipulation is necessary because a youngster learning to read must be able to retain and contrast both phonemes and the letter strings that represent them in memory. She will not be able to grasp the link between letter units and phonemic units if she cannot. In order to learn to read, a kid must be able to isolate, compare, and contrast phonemes and letter sequences, such as observing that the last phoneme in both bit and purchased is the same, but one is represented by a single letter and the other by three. To summarize, phonemic awareness consists of three components: knowledge of language at the level of individual phonemes, conscious understanding of these language units, and ability at deliberately manipulating language at this level. As previously stated, phonemic awareness is not required for reading all written languages, just alphabetic ones.

For example, writing systems that utilize logographic representations in which a single sign represents a word do not need readers to be phonemic. However, any system that connects written letters to the phonemes underlying the spoken word necessitates phonemic awareness, because the would-be learner cannot connect the units underlying the written word the letters with the units underlying the spoken word unless she is consciously aware of both and intends to learn the relationship between the two known as the alphabetic principle. As a result, if you know the letters and are aware that there is some link between the letters and the spoken word, but do not know the units underlying the spoken word, you will be unable to determine the relationship between the two representations. To recap, knowing phonemes is essential for learning a language, but language acquisition is an unconscious process that needs simply immersion in an active linguistic environment; explicit teaching is not required. The child's language learning system achieves this extraordinary achievement by responding to information at the phonemic level without the requirement for cognitive knowledge of that level. Learning to read that language, assuming it is represented alphabetically, does need explicit understanding of the phoneme since, unlike learning language, learning to read is a more time-consuming process.

The difficulties experienced by English teachers in Malaysia, especially when it comes to teaching spoken English, are large and varied. The seriousness of this problem is highlighted by the need that students develop spoken English abilities that vary from fundamental communication for entry-level occupations to advanced fluency for job interviews. The change in emphasis from conventional written abilities, such as reading and writing, to the development of oral skills, including speaking and listening, is one of the main concerns. Due to the need for educators to reposition their teaching strategies, curriculum, and evaluations, this shift may be extremely taxing. Additionally, in order to participate in authentic communication situations, students need

to acquire not just their own speaking talents but also interaction skills. A useful framework for determining language competency and establishing standards has been made available by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Although the CEFR outlines the abilities that students should be able to do at various levels, it does not specify the exact teaching strategies that should be used to develop these competencies. Instructors are now faced with the challenge of successfully guiding students towards their targeted competency levels, particularly in spoken English.

Many studies, using a variety of study approaches, have concluded that phonemic awareness is essential for learning to read in alphabetic languages. First, there is evidence from contemporaneous correlations, which are produced from study designs in which two abilities are measured in a sample of students at nearly the same moment in time and then determined how those skills fluctuate with each within the student sample. A common approach would utilize all of a school's first-grade pupils as a sample, testing each student's phonemic awareness and reading competence at the end of first grade. Positive correlations exist between these two measures when, in general, students who perform better on one skill also perform better on the other skill and vice versa. When both phonemic awareness and reading abilities are assessed in the early primary grades, such favourable connections are often seen. The same positive relationship was discovered whether reading skill was measured as reading individual words, reading letter sequences that do not form real English words but are constructed like English words, or reading connected text where fluency or comprehension were measured.

These correlations are consistent with a causal relationship between the two variables, where skill in one is the cause of skill development in the other, but they do not guarantee that the variables are causally linked in fact, a third variable could be causing the development in the other two skills. Even if they are causally related, these correlations do not identify the direction of causation that is, does phonemic awareness produce reading competence or the other way around?. A deeper examination of the distributions of phonemic awareness and reading abilities tested simultaneously yields even more convincing data. When you plot phonemic awareness skill versus decoding competence measured as reading individual pseudowords, you get triangular distributions. There are numerous cases in these distributions of either low competence in both domains or great skill in phonemic awareness combined with either low or high performance in decoding. However, there are no examples of poor phonemic awareness and good decoding competence. This trend shows that phonemic awareness is a required but not sufficient condition for decoding competence. That is, you must have competence in phonemic awareness in order to learn to decode, but having ability in phonemic awareness is not a guarantee of success in learning to decode.

To get the latter, you must have something in addition to phonemic awareness knowledge of the letters and the alphabetic principle, as well as tons of experience matching written and spoken words. Predictive correlations, determined from study designs in which phonemic awareness is tested at one point in time and reading competence is measured at another, are even more indicative of causal linkages. Many studies find similar connections, with the time lag between the assessment of phonemic awareness and the future reading proficiency measured as decoding or reading comprehension skill ranging from very short to very long years. While stronger evidence

than contemporaneous correlations, these findings may still emerge even if the two variables are not causally connected. As with contemporaneous correlations, there might be a third, unmeasured factor behind the growth of both talents, even if the two skills themselves are not causally related.

Training studies provide the most compelling evidence for a link between phonemic awareness and reading. In a typical training study design, children who lack phonemic awareness skills are randomly divided into two groups, one receiving training to develop phonemic awareness skills and the other receiving training to develop a skill unrelated to reading. Following training, the three groups are given the identical reading instruction, and it is examined if those who got phonemic awareness training performed better in both phonemic awareness and reading evaluations than those who did not. Many studies like this have since been completed, and the majority of them find that those who received phonemic awareness instruction performed far better in reading development than those who did not.

Reading alone does develop skill in phonemic awareness; nevertheless, reading practice advances reading skill, and the more skill in reading, the greater skill in phonemic awareness. This suggests a reciprocal link between phonemic awareness and reading, in which proficiency in one aids skill development in the other and vice versa. But the crucial issue is whether some level of phonemic awareness is required before reading competence may increase; the data shows particularly from training studies that the answer is yes. According to current studies, the majority of kindergarten students are not proficient in phonemic awareness. According to research, many people will fail to learn this ability if it is not explicitly taught to them. Furthermore, even explicit instruction is inadequate for a tiny fraction of young individuals to acquire phonemic awareness. So, what is known about the causes of the difficulties in developing phonemic awareness? To begin with, as previously stated, phonemes are abstract they cannot be extracted and given to the kid as things. When we tell a youngster that the initial sound in bug is buh, we are really saying something that is neither abstract since abstract objects are by definition unpronounceable nor connected to a particular phoneme. In actuality, what we're saying is a syllable with two phonemes below it. One issue in growing phonemic awareness is that we cannot directly declare to the kid what she must become aware of; instead, we can only guide her to attempt to induce for herself what she must acquire.

Second, sound units produced from the underlying abstract phonemes that are communicated in speech do not arrive at the ear in precise serial sequence. Rather, the information that permits the hearer to distinguish the beginning sound in a word is often overlapped with information about the next segment in the word; linguistic information is conveyed in parallel. For example, if we recorded ourselves saying the word bug and then chopped out consecutive portions of the tape and played what was left, we would never be able to isolate a bit of the tape reflecting simply the first phoneme of the word. Rather, the most we might hope for is a similarity to the first two sounds of the word. This is because the locations of the articulators those things we use to generate speech, such as our tongue and jaw are programmed to represent both the initial and subsequent sounds that will be produced. You may get a feel of this by observing the posture of your lower jaw when you pronounce bug and purchased. In the latter case, the lower jaw is dropped from the start to prepare for the vowel that follows. Because of these co-articulation effects, linguistic information

is sent in parallel. And this presents a huge challenge for establishing phonemic awareness, since in many circumstances we are unable to isolate even the first sound that is a member of the phonemic category the kid is striving to become aware of. Again, the best we can do is create settings in which the kid will induce the phonemic category we want her to attention to.

Third, we are asking the youngster to perform something that is paradoxical. Meaning has been vital for the kid acquiring language, but the forms in which the meaning is communicated have been unimportant they are only the channel, to be overlooked in favour of the message. We instruct the youngster to concentrate attention in the other direction using phonemic awareness, dismissing meaning and attending solely to form. Each of these aspects of language makes learning to recognize phonemes challenging, but there are instructional ways that may assist. This will be addressed in future editions of SEDL Letter. The outlook is not favourable for the youngster who is having problems gaining phonemic awareness. For starters, such a youngster cannot benefit from the alphabetic principle. She may recognize the letters and even that the letters are linked to the spoken word, but she is perplexed as to what that connection is.

Second, we know that exposure to print is necessary for understanding the links between letters and phonemes. With the basics in hand specifically, knowledge of letters, phonemes, and the alphabetic principle, the more opportunities there are to match written and spoken words, the more opportunities there are to understand the link between letters and phonemes. A youngster who lacks these qualifications is unable to take advantage of such possibilities, and print exposure is no longer effective in teaching children to read. Third, we know that if the kid is not making reading progress by the third grade, there is a very little chance that she will ever be able to read at the same level as her same-age classmates, regardless of the intervention utilized. As educators, our responsibility is to do all we can to ensure that our pupils achieve early progress, including acquiring phonemic awareness early in their school lives. This is something that can be accomplished if we understand what needs to be done and give proper support mechanisms to assist instructors in mastering the strategies that will best help their pupils acquire this and other abilities.

CONCLUSION

Given the wide range of requirements imposed on students in a quickly changing employment market, the difficulties encountered by English teachers in Malaysia in teaching spoken English are crucial. This conversation highlights the crucial change that must occur from a traditional concentration on writing abilities to a new emphasis on spoken language proficiency. It is impossible to exaggerate the importance of spoken English competence since it is necessary for negotiating professional possibilities, from entry-level customer service employment to high-level interviews. In order to participate successfully in meetings, conversations, or group projects, students must not only improve their own speaking talents but also learn how to communicate with others. Even though the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages has been the subject of extensive research and documentation, teaching spoken English in accordance with the CEFR standards still lacks a number of key pedagogical strategies and resources. This work effectively points out this gap and attempts to close it. English teachers in Malaysia and others must work together, be creative, and look for efficient methods to provide pupils the spoken

English abilities they need. This entails creating curriculum, evaluations, and resources that are in line with the CEFR levels while taking into account the particular difficulties that learners at various stages experience.

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