
Unit 3 Assessment of Language & Communication

Structure

3.1.1 Introduction :

3.1.2 Objectives :

3.1.3 Communication : Concepts and types (Linguistic versus Non Linguistic)

3.1.1 Introduction :

Communication is “any act by which one person gives to or receives information about one’s needs, desires, perceptions, knowledge, or affective states. Communication may be intentional or unintentional, may involve conventional or unconventional signals, may take linguistic or non-linguistic forms and may occur through spoken or other modes.”

Humans convey information through a variety of methods: speaking through telephones, email, blogs, TV, art, hand gestures, facial expressions, body language and even social contexts. Communication can occur instantaneously in closed, intimate settings or over great periods of time in large public forums, like the Internet. However, all forms of communication require the same basic elements: a speaker or sender of information, a message, and an audience or recipient. The sender and recipient must also share a common language or means of understanding each other for communication to be successful.

As such, a study of communication often examines the development and structure of language, including the mathematical languages used in computer programming. The act of communicating draws on several interpersonal and intrapersonal skills. These include speaking, listening, observing, questioning, processing, analyzing and evaluating. Recipients of a message must be able to identify the sender’s intent, take into account the message’s context, resolve any misunderstandings, accurately decode the information and decide how to act on it. Such skills are essential to learning, forming healthy relationships, creating a sense of community and achieving success in the workplace.

As a field of study, communication spans a broad, rich array of subjects, including sociology, psychology, philosophy, political science, linguistics, history, literature, criticism and rhetoric. Although much of the field’s subject matter is theoretical in

nature, communication studies have proven applicable to business, film, theatre, composition, advertising, education, foreign policy and computer science.

In today's globalized, media-driven world, communication studies have become more relevant and exciting than ever. Web developers seek new, inventive ways to draw Internet users to their websites. Public policy writers debate society's most pressing issues. Through linguistics, computer scientists are developing programming languages that may someday allow humans to interact directly with computers.

3.1.2 Objectives :

After completing the unit student-teachers will be able to

- *Explain the concept, types and structure of communication and language.*
- *Acquire knowledge about Developmental milestones in typically growing children.*
- *Understand the clinical as well as environmental Impact of deafness on communication and language.*
- *Acquire knowledge about need for assessment of communication and language.*
- *Understand the various assessment tool related to communication and language.*

3.1.3 Communication : Concepts and types (Linguistic versus Non Linguistic)

The term "communication" has been derived from the Latin "communis," that means "common". Thus "to communicate" means "to make common" or "to make known", "to share" and includes verbal, non-verbal and electronic means of human interaction. This act of making common and known is carried out through exchange of thoughts, ideas or the like. The exchange of thoughts and ideas can be had by gestures, signs, signals, speech or writing. People are said to be in communication when they discuss some matter, or when they talk on telephone, or when they exchange information through letters. Basically, communication is sharing information, whether in writing or orally.

Scholars who study communication analyze the development of communication skills in humans and theorize about how communication can be made more effective. It is the meaningful exchange of information between two or a group of people. Communicative competence designates the capability to install inter subjective interactions, which means that communication is an inherent social interaction.

Schramm (1964) defines communication as “a tool that makes societies possible and distinguish human from other societies”.

Berelson and Steiner (1964) define communication as the transmission of information, ideas, emotions, skills through the use of symbols, words, pictures, figures, and graph.

Theodorson and Theodorson (1969) define communication as “the transmission of information, ideas, attitudes, or emotion from one person or group to another...primarily through symbols.”

Human beings can communicate with each other. We are able to exchange knowledge, beliefs, opinions, wishes, threats, commands, thanks, promises, declarations, feelings - only our imagination sets limits. We can *laugh* to express amusement, happiness, or disrespect, we can *smile* to express amusement, pleasure, approval, or bitter feelings, we can *shriek* to express anger, excitement, or fear, we can *clench our fists* to express determination, anger or a threat, we can *raise our eyebrows* to express surprise or disapproval, and so on, but our system of communication before anything else is language. In this book we shall tell you a lot about language, but as a first step towards a definition we can say that it is a system of communication based upon words and the combination of words into sentences.

Communication by means of language may be referred to as linguistic communication, the other ways mentioned above - laughing, smiling, shrieking, and so on -are types of non-linguistic communication. Most or all non-human species can exchange information, but none of them are known to have a system of communication with a complexity that in any way is comparable to language. Primarily, they communicate with non-linguistic means resembling our smiling, laughing, yelling, clenching of fists, and raising of eyebrows. Chimpanzees, gorillas, and orangutangs can exchange different kinds of information by emitting different kinds of shrieks, composing their faces in numerous ways, and moving their hands or arms in different gestures, but they do not have words and sentences. By moving in certain patters,

bees are apparently able to tell their fellow workers where to find honey, but apparently not very much else. Birds sing different songs, whose main functions are to defend their territory or to attract a mate.

References:

Schramm, W. (1954). *How communication works. In W. Schramm (Ed.), The process and effects of mass communication.* Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Berelson, B., & Steiner, G. (1964). *Human behavior: An inventory of scientific findings.*

New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World. Theodorson, S. & Theodorson, A. (1969). *A modern dictionary of sociology.* New York:

Cassell Education Limited. Huddar, A., More, R., Ghate, P. & Gathoo, V. (2007). *Language and Communication.* New

Delhi: Kanishka Publishers.

3.2 □ Communication

Structure

3.2.1 Introduction:

3.2.2 Language

3.2.3 Speech:

3.2.4 Components of Language:

3.2.5 Language Content

3.2.6 Language Use

3.3 Normal Developmental Milestones of Speech and Language:

3.2.1 Introduction:

Theoretically, communication can be defined as the process involving sending and receiving messages which is important to transmit information, share feelings, etc. between persons and groups. It involves the process of encoding and decoding via which information is encoded by a speaker and decoded through the listener. Linguistically, communication is defined as a rule based mental system of language codes for expressing an understanding thoughts, feelings and ideas.

Communication can be represented in the forms involving either a verbal or a non-verbal mode. Verbal communication involving a set of linguistic codes for (auditory, visual-graphic) following a set of mental rules is called as oral language. Similarly, non-verbal communication involving use of pantomimes, gestures but not governed by mental rules of spoken language is called as sign language.

3.2.2 Language

Introduction:

Language has been defined from various perspectives depending on the theories that have been proposed to explain the process of language acquisition.

From a social view point, language can be defined as a speech act which includes the reason for speaking (intentions), the situations in which the event occurs (context) and different ways in which one speaks depending on the circumstances (alternation).

From a behavioral view point, language is defined as a learned behavior in which the processes of classical and operant conditioning facilitate the development of language.

From a linguistic framework, language can be represented as a system that consists of symbols (words) governed by mental rules (grammar) which is used to represent the ideas about the world.

From a cognitive framework, language has been defined as a mode that serves to express thought. Language has been defined as a culmination of processes involving sensation, perception, imagery, conceptualization, symbolization and abstraction. Piaget defined language as a fine cognitive act which results into developmental processes including intelligence, social, sensory-motor, emotional and cognition.

3.2.3 Speech:

On the other hand, speech has been defined as the verbal manifestation of language and is the result of overlaid function of different physiological systems involving articulation, phonation, respiration, resonance, and regulation.

Interaction between communication, language and speech: Types of communication:

Basing on mode communication can be of two types

- (i) **Verbal communication-** involves use of language and other verbal modalities (paralinguistic cues)
- (ii) **Non-verbal communication-** involves use of signs. gestures, sign language, lithography, etc.

Basing on the use of senses, communication can be described as

- (i) **Auditory based communication-** involves use of auditory signals. Example- sirens, alarms, telephones, etc.
- (ii) **Visual based communication-** involves use of visual signals. Example- reading, writing, gestures, facial expressions, etc.
- (iii) **Tactile and olfactory based communication** involves use of tactile and olfactory signals such as hand-shake, kiss, hugging, slapping, different smells, etc.

Basing on developmental stages, communication can be described as :

(i) Perlocutionary stage

- Present from birth and continues throughout life.
- Lack of consciousness and goal directed intentions.
- Communication involves care givers interpretation of infant's behavior.
- It is a one way process in which caregiver infers messages by willing fully interpreting infant's behavior as communicative signals.

Example : (a) caregivers attention to reflexive and differential cry of infant. child directed speech (b) Social smile, gaze coupling.

(ii) Illocutionary stage

- Develops at 6 months of age
- Represents the emergence of semantic intentions
- Infant's behavior is consciously directed towards influencing other persons to act on some object the concept of cause-effect and means-end relationship emerge, that is, changes have causes, and persons can be the agents of change.
- Infants learn to use gestures in phonetically consistent forms and vocalizations to convey intentions during this period, Not only semantic intention, the overall concept of intentionality emerges during this stage (semantic intentions- protesting, requesting, declarative, existence, non-existence, recurrence, rejection).
- The use of joint reference, i.e., shared focus of infants and caregivers of identifying an object and joint action, i.e., goal oriented motor behavior are routinely performed during an event. The use of proto declaratives and proto imperatives are also seen during this stage.

(iii) Locutionary stage

- This stage is marked by the use of true words along with complex gestures to express intentions.
- This stage is also identified with development of joint attention in an infant.

3.2.4 Components of Language:

Language is a complex combination of several component, rules and systems. Bloom and Lahey (1978) had divided language into three major components-

- (i) Form
- (ii) Content
- (iii) Use

The interaction of form, content and use of language is called as knowledge of language. The knowledge and concept of language is called as language competence. Basing on Chomskian views, performance has been viewed as expressive language and competence as receptive language. Performance has been defined as the ability to use the inbuilt grammar and grammatical rules and competence as the inherent capability to acquire grammatical rules from exposure to it from the environment.

Disorders of language can be due to faulty interaction between these three components of language.

Language form refers to the underlying rule, system, or the grammar of a language. Language form consists of three major components. These are:

- (i) Phonology
- (ii) Morphology
- (iii) Syntax

PHONOLOGY

Phonology refers to the rules that govern the way in which speech sounds are represented in a particular language. Phonology studies the range of speech sounds used by a native speaker while speaking and the way they are produced.

Phonology also governs the way in which speech sounds are categorised in a particular language and the way they are combined to form syllables and words. Example- English has 43 speech sounds, Whereas, Telugu has 47 speech sounds (phonemes).

Phonology can be divided into two components- segmentals and supra-segmentals.

SEGMENTALS

The segmentals refer to the phonemes and syllables found in a language.

PHONEME — any speech sound is called as a phone and the meaningful speech sounds which combine to form syllables and words are called as phonemes. Every language has a limited set of phonemes which combine to form the grammar of that language. All the phonemes that exist in all the languages of the world have

been represented in an International Phonetic Alphabet Inventory (IPA).

The phonemes such as [b], [p], [o] in combination with other phonemes such as [a] form syllables [ba], [po], [pa], etc. phonemes have been categorized basically into consonants and vowels and the consonants have been categorized basing on place of articulation and manner of articulation.

Basing on place of articulation consonants are categorised as bilabial, labiodental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar, glottal and retroflex.

Basing on the manner of articulation consonants are categorized as stops, fricatives, affricates, nasals, laterals, aspirates, unaspirates, voiced, voiceless, trills.

Based on tongue height, vowels have been classified as front, mid and back vowels.

SYLLABLES: A syllable refers to the unit of speech sound composed of a vowel and a consonant or similar combination. Syllable consists of an onset and a rhyme further consists of a nucleus and a coda. Syllables are the smallest units which can be separated in a word

SUPRA- SEGMENTALS;

When syllables are combined in words and phrases, the rhythmic contour of combination of syllables make up the prosody of the language. Features of prosody include the relative stress on one or another syllable in a string. The melodic rise and fall of the intonation of the syllables and pattern of pause time that occurs between segments. The prosodic features of sound are super imposed of the sound segments, that is, phonemes and syllables and thus arte called as supra-segmentals.

MORPHOLOGY:

Morphology refers to the study of internal organization of words. The smallest segment of speech that carries meaning is called as morpheme. Thus morphology consists of word and word inflections. A morpheme can also be represented as the smallest meaning of word that carries meaning. Morphology enables the language user to modify word meanings and produce semantic distinction such as numbers, verb, tense and possession, extended word meanings and derived word classes.

A morpheme can be of two types- (a) Free morpheme- it refers to the smallest meaningful unit in a word which can exist independently and has its own meaning

For example: “cut” in cutting (b) Bound morpheme- they are grammatical markers that cannot function independently and must be attached to free morphemes or to the

other bound morphemes. For example: “ed”, “ing”, “er”, “un”, “ly”, “s”, etc. With respect to number -cat, cats With respect to tense -talk, talked With respect to possession-Mary, Mary’s With respect to extended word meaning - Respect, Disrespect With respect to derived word classes - beauty, beautiful, etc.

Morphology of a language also includes two types of word classes:

(i) Content words- these are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Content words are the building blocks of a sentence which carry meaning. Content words exist independently in a language. Content words referring to objects are called as substantive words (noun) and those words referring to relationships are called relational words (verb). Content words keep adding on throughout a person’s lifetime basing on his experiences and thus are called open class words.

(ii) Function words - it refers to those words that connect the content words in a sentence. These are prepositions, articles, conjunctions, and pronouns. Function words are constant in a person in a language and thus are called as closed class words.

Apart from functions words and content words, Morphology consists of Morphological inflections called as ‘affixes’. Affixes are those morphemes that are added to roots. Roots are those words that cannot be divided. The affixes have been divided into two types:

- (i) Prefixes - morphemes added at the beginning of roots.
- (ii) Suffixes - morphemes added at the end of roots.

Morphological inflections modulate the meaning of a sentence, i.e., they provide information about the meaning of number and time.

Relation between nouns, verbs, and adjectives along with the morphological inflections constitute the syntax of a language.

SYNTAX:

Syntax refers to the rule system which governs the word order in a sentence. The word order can be described as:

- (i) The order in which words should be arranged in a sentence
- (ii) The way in which sentence should be organized
- (iii) Relationship between words, word classes word types and other parts of the

sentence. Syntax specifies which word combinations are acceptable or grammatical and which are not. Word sequences follow definite word order rules, i.e., the phrase structure rules and transformational rules. Each sentence may contain a noun phrase that includes a noun and a verb respectively. Within noun and verb phrases, certain word classes appear. Example- articles always appear before nouns. Thus. 'The boy' is grammatical and 'Boy the1 is syntactically incorrect.

Hence, according to. McLaughlin. syntax is that part of grammar which specifies rules for sequencing or ordering words to form phrases and sentences. The sequencing of words in a sentence is governed by two types of grammatical rules:

- (I) **Linear structure:** A linear structure is formed when two words in combination do not mean anything more than each of the words alone. Example: The meaning of "more cookie" is same as the meaning of 'more' and the meaning of the relation between 'more' and 'cookie' (two of the words convey the same meaning as one word in isolation). The linear structure relations can be described with the formula $f(x)$ where *f is a fixed value which does not change and 'x' is a variable which can assume many values.
- (II) **Hierarchical structure:** When the meaning relation of words in combination with one another, is something more than the meaning of the separate words, the syntactic structure can be described as the hierarchal structure. The hierarchal structure defines how words and phrases are arranged in a sentence. "Noam Chomsky categorized hierarchal structure into two types of structure rules:
 - (a) **Phrase structure rules:** These rules help in sentence organization where units in each sentence are organized in hierarchy. Each of these units can again be further broken down into its constituent parts. In all languages a sentence contains at least a noun and a verb as its basic units. The basic relationship is written as:

(Sentence = Noun Phrase + Verb Phrase)

A noun phrase contains noun and associated words such as articles, adjectives, etc. A verb phrase consists of verb, adverbs, pre-positional phrases and possibly a noun phrase as an object of the verb. The phrase structure of sentences can be explained through a sentence tree diagram.

- (b) **Transformational rules:** They rearrange the basic structure rules to create

general sentence types such as declarative, interrogative, negative, passive and imperative. Each sentence comprises of two basic structures: Deep structure and Surface structure. The deep structure contains the basic meaning of the sentence and the actual sentence produced is known as the surface structure. The relationship between deep structure and surface structure is determined by transformational rules. By changing, recording and modifying the deep structure elements. These transformational operations create the surface structure. A transformational rule can be represented by a formula.

NP2 + Verb Tense + V (-ed) + by + NPj

For example: The cat was chased by the dog.

Similarly the same sentence can be represented as: NP_i + V +

(The dog chased the cat).

Linguistically, every sentence is composed of subject and a predicate. A sentence in which a group of words are centered around people or objects are called noun or noun phrases. Similarly, if a group of words is centered towards actions or relationships in a sentence, they are called as verb or verb phrases.

In a sentence, a noun is always predicted by a determiner called the noun modifier, which qualify, specify, or rank the noun. The determiners include pre-articles, articles, demonstratives, possessives, ordinals, quantifiers, comparatives and adjectives. Pronouns such as he/she/they are also used in a sentence instead of noun to convey the same meaning. In a sentence, the predicate is represented as a verb phrase. A verb can take various forms depending on the content and context of the sentence this can be:

- (i) Action verbs - Walking, Eating
- (ii) Process verbs - Hearing, Seen
- (iii) State verbs - Ball, Alone
- (iv) Grammatical verbs - is, are, was, were
- (v) Lexical verbs - Run, Sit, Write
- (vi) Transitive verbs - Heat, Heard
- (vii) Intransitive verb - Smiling

A sentence in transformational structure thus can take various forms depending on the content and context of the sentence.

3.2.5 Language Content

Language content refers to the meaning represented by language. Language components can be explained by the following tree diagram.

Denotes an idea or concept or an arbitrary system for dividing reality into categories and units.

These categories and units group similar object, actions, relationship and distinguish dissimilar one. Semantics is concerned with the relationship of language form with objects, events and their relationship, as well as word and word combination.

Word/symbols do not represent reality but rather a concept. A concept is related to a whole class of experiences rather than to a single one. Semantics is the result of the cognitive categorization process (reference between object and events).

Language content or semantics defines the way objects and action relationships are represented. The way objects and action relationships are represented by a person determines the language topic of that person. As experiences differ from others, language topic varies from person to person. However, language content is universal across cultures and languages and helps a person to use language form correctly according to situations. Language content is general, depersonalized and independent of particular context where as language topic is particular, personalized and contextual.

Language content can be categorized as based on representing and understanding of:

- (1) Objects
- (2) Relation between objects
- (3) Relation between events

The understanding of objects and their meaning can be represented as particular objects or classes of objects.

Second category, i.e., relation between object can be defined the relation of one object to itself or relation of one object to another object.

Third category, i.e., event relations includes relations between two different events or relations within a single event. Object relation refers to dimensional words such as big/little, high/low, etc.; spatial words such as behind, outside/inside, far/near, etc. and kinship words such as son, daughter, grandfather, brother, father, mother, etc. Event relations includes temporal words such as after, before, since, until, etc.

The object, object relations and event relations are related to each other through word orders.

These word orders are called as semantic relations. A children master, semantics during their language learning, the complexity of word order also increases. In English, the semantic relations normally include sentence construction such as:

- (1) Agent + Action + Object
- (2) Agent + Action + Locative
- (3) Agent + Object + Locative
- (4) Agent + Action + Object + Locative, etc.

The semantic relations for objects and the relations are expressed in the form of semantic intentions.

3.2.6 Language Use

Language use or pragmatics serves three major functions:

- (i) The use of language for attending different goals
- (ii) The use information from the context to determine what one must way to achieve the goals
- (iii) The use of the interaction between persons to initiate, maintain- and terminate conversations.

Language use/Pragmatics has been described by Bloom and Lahey (1978) on the basis of communication function and communication context. Communication functions involve both personal and social goals that describe the interaction and the balance of control between speakers and hearers. Personal functions are served when one comments on himself, solves a problem or asks a question to gain information. On the other hand, social functions (interpersonal) refer to the behaviors one shows for getting things done.

Socially mediated goals are served when one seeks and maintains the attention of others or gives a direction for someone to act. Pragmatics is also related to the context of spoken message. The idea about context helps for deciding which form of the message will serve the function of the message in different context.

The pragmatic rules governs sequential organization and provenance of conversation, repair of errors, and roll and speech acts. A speech act is a unit of linguistics communication and contains not only the forms of utterance but the meaning and the intention of the speakers as well. Organization and provenance of conversation include turn-taking, initiating, maintaining and closing a conversation, establishing and maintaining topic and making relevant contributions to the conversation. Conversation includes giving and receiving feedback. Conversational role skills include establishing and maintaining role and switching linguistic codes for each role.

Pragmatics also includes the extra-linguistic aspect of language. These refers to the non-verbal features that accompany expressive language and serve to modifv. amplify, fine tune the actual meaning being expressed linguistically. Among the extra-linguistic aspects, pragmatics includes pre-dominantly the par a-linguistic codes used in a language. These para-linguistic codes are also known as supra-segmental aspects or prosody of speech. The supra-segmental aspects modify the meaning of the spoken message as it is produced in different context and includes mainly the stress, rhythm, intonation, pause, juncture, etc.

3.3 □ Normal Developmental Milestones of Speech and Language:

- At birth-Birth Cry
- 0-1 months - Reflexive Cry, Vocalization
- 1-2 months - Differential cry, differential vocalization, i.e., caregivers can differentiate between hunger cry, pain cry, pleasure and happy sounds
- 2-3 months - Cooing Stage

In this period the infant develops the ability to start and stop oral movements and this stage is characterized by laughter and known distress pleasures, like cooing sounds which express happiness. During this time the infant produces consonants like [k] and [g], and vowels like [u]. Though they are not accurate and their resonance is not complete. The child's vocalization contains 2-3 different sounds.

- 4-6 months - Babbling Stage

During this time infants begin to exhibit marginal babbling which is described as the production of variety of vowels like sounds with occasional vocal tract closure. "Marginal babbling" may contain simple consonant vowel (CV) syllables or vowel consonant (VC) syllables. The vowels resonate more fully in this period, compared to the period between 2-4 months. Thus, the resultant tones in this period are called fully resonant nuclei (FRN). Speech is characterized by prolonged periods of vocalizations and strings of sounds. These sounds are mostly bilabial such as [b], [p] or alveolar [d].

- 6-7 months - Reduplicated (canonical) babbling

The infants start to playfully experiment with different sound combinations in this stage. Thus, this stage is known as vocal play. The child produces string sounds such as [p], [b], [t], [d], [m] and [n]. The infant uses long reduplicated strings of consonants and vowels such as jbabababa, jmamamama.

- 7-9 months

During this period, the child responds to mother by babbling like vocalization

and child also starts to babble whenever he/she is spoken. This is called as “Directed Babbling”. During this period, the child starts to babble to communicate socially with the caregiver. This is called as “Socialized Babbling”. In this stage the child also varies the strings of syllables, i.e. , consonants and vowels change from one syllable to another. Hence, this stage is also called as the stage of “Non-reduplicated/Variegated Babbling”. Example: [bagada].

- 9-11 months

At this stage, the child tries to imitate adult like speech in a meaningful way, i.e.. phonemic sequence, syllabic structure and intonational contours in the child’s vocalizations follows that of adult’s speech. These non-meaningful sequence of phonemes having intonation and stress patterns that sound appropriate for meaningful speech are called “jargon”. Along with jargon, the child also uses proto words which have sound-meaning relation. (Example: ‘**bhow-bhow**’ for dog, ‘meow-meow’ for cat etc.). These proto words are also called ‘Vocables’” or “ideomorphs”.

- 12-18 months - First word

By 12 months of age, the child starts to acquire the first meaningful word. This develops directly with his ability to name different objects. By 18 months of age, most of the children acquire a minimum of 3-4 meaningful words involving the most basic relationships like father, mother and basic needs like milk, water, food, etc. By 18 months of age. normally children may have a word vocabulary of up to 50 to 100 words also along with use of ideomorphs as well as jargon.

Development of Semantics :

The ability to represent something in mind when it is not present (representational thinking) is important for development of language. A child in order to learn the conventional word associated with a concept must be able to represent the phonetic form of that word from past experience and must be able to represent the concept for its use, hence a mental schema or representation of an object or an associated event or the relationship between the event and the object. The development of jargon marks the development of semantics.

- 8-12 months

At this age, the development of semantics begins and the child starts relating to persons and objects. However, the child is able to comprehend the meaning of objects and events but cannot represent them in expressive language.

- 12-18 months

The child has a vocabulary of about 35-100 words. Children begin to combine words based on objects and the relationship with events. Child at this age develops various semantic intentions such as:

- (i) Possessions and possessives i.e., relating to own self. Example: mine, my ball, my dress, etc.
- (ii) Existence and non-existence i.e., objects being present or being absent permanently,
- (iii) Rejection and negation i.e., the child learns to stop activity if the adult says 'no' or uses the word 'no' to either reject or stop unfavorable activities. (iv) Disappearance/recurrence i.e., objects when taken out of sight, the child intends to see the disappeared objects.
- (v) Location - the child looks for objects located in certain places. The child also starts learning new words outside his/her routine conversation and tries to learn the meaning of it by taking cues of the situation. In this stage, nouns constitute 40% of the vocabulary followed by verbs constituting 10%, adjectives 10% and function words 10%. The 30% of the child's vocabulary consists of protowords and other grammatical classes. The child begins to form categorical concepts i.e., mental representation of events, objects and object-event relation.

- 18-24 months

The average vocabulary of a child is about 200 words. The child starts to comprehend two word relationships such as:

- (1) Agent + action
- (2) Action + object
- (3) Agent + object
- (4) Action + location

- (5) Object + location
- (6) Possessor + possession
- (7) Entity + attribute
- (8) Demonstrative + entity

The categorical representation increases and the child continues to extend new words to other members of the same category through fast mapping. The child continues to over extend items into a category (over extension error) or under extend items into a category (under extension error). Children learn to identify the different reference (object., events and object event relations) based on adult attentional and intentional states. The idea about how the word is organized into categories of objects, events, relations, states and properties develops very fast and thus this stage is called fast mapping. The child basing on increasing linguistic and world knowledge and understanding of disposed context use more varied and richer language.

- 24-30 months

The child starts to understand questions and asks ‘wh’ questions related to object, people, action and location. Example:

- “What is this?”-for object
- “Who is he?” - for people
- “What is he doing?” - for action
- “Where are we?” - for location.

- 30-36 months

“Why” related question start at this age. This improves with the improvement in reasoning skills for both comprehension and expression. More specialized concepts start to develop. In this stage the child acquires concept of preposition hence words like on, in, there, by, here, etc. start to develop.

- 36-42 months

Children start to develop color concepts and can identify basic color like red, green, blue, etc. Children also develop knowledge of kinship i.e., they identified different family members according to their relationship. Children also learnt

concept of opposites and learns to use contrastive words like big/small, etc. A syntax development also occurs alongside; the children learn the concept of words like 'and/or' etc. with which they produce complex sentences.

- 42-48 months

At this stage, the child starts to learn time concept, understands and expresses when and how and develops the concept of shapes, sequencing and size.

- 4-5 years

Children develop the knowledge of alphabets and their corresponding phonetic sounds, learns the concept of counting numbers, uses advanced conjunctions like - because, so, when, etc. Children have an expressive vocabulary of around 2000-2200 words at this stage.

- 5-6 years

Children during this period accumulate receptive vocabulary of around 14000 words, learning around 9 new words per day. It is at this stage, that a child masters the use of spatial words like - in front, behind, under, on' etc, and temporal words like - after, before, since, until, etc.

- 6-7 years

The child starts to learn to expand meaning of various words and overall semantic development occurs as the child experiences new concept. The child during this period has an expressive vocabulary of around 5000 words.

- 8-9 years

New words are learnt at school and both expressive and receptive vocabulary is increased. The child uses pronouns like he, she, they appropriately, especially in language composition, statements and conversations. The learns to define words and word definitions include synonyms and categories, the child also understand that some words have multiple meanings and meanings may change according to context and situation. The child also gains knowledge of figurative language.

- 9-12 years

The child learns the meaning of abstract words and can explain the semantic

relationship of the words in sentence. Semantic development gets completed by 12 years.

Syntactical Development:

The development of syntax is marked by the production of single word utterances in which a string of utterances consisting of single meaningful words and ideomorphs are used to convey meaning.

Syntax development is generally determined by measuring the MLU. Brown (1973) summarized the development of syntax based on 5 developmental stages. Brown further states that appearance and mastery of 14 grammatical morphemes is central to the development of syntax. These 14 grammatical morphemes are:

1. Present progressive inflection
2. Preposition - in
3. Preposition- on
4. Regular plural inflection
5. Past irregular
6. Possessive inflection
7. Uncontractible copula
8. Articles
9. Regular past tense
10. Regular third person singular
11. Irregular third person singular
12. Uncontractible Auxiliary
13. Contractible copula
14. Contractible auxiliary.

These Brown Stages are as follows:

- ∞ Stage I (MLU 1.0-2.0) {12-26 months of age}
Children acquire the first meaningful word and speech is characterized by the

use of single words and early multi word utterances. Semantic intentions and semantic relations are predominantly present and used by the child. 2 years old toddlers learn simple word orders. The utterances are often telegraphic i.e. they lack appropriate grammatical morphemes. Child uses semantic relations such as :

- (i) Agent + action
- (ii) Action + object
- (iii) Action + Location
- (iv) Entity + location
- (v) Entity + attribute
- (vi) Demonstrative + attribute

∞ **Stage II** (MLU 2.0-2.5) {27 TO 30 months of age}

In this stage the child acquires and uses all the 14 grammatical morphemes. In this stage, the child learns to use the subjects more consistently and begin to modify nouns occurring in the object phrases of longer utterances, even when subject phrases are also present “Tommy ate big cookie”. The child also uses different words to convey meaning. The characteristic feature of this stage is the development of morphemes.

∞ **Stage III** (MLU 2.5-3.0) (31-34 months of age)

The child acquires basic scheme and constituents consisting of a subject verb and an object Hence, this stage marks the development of sentence form. In this stage, modifiers appear in both subject and object phrases i.e. noun phrases are elaborated. Auxiliary-verbs like tense markers, interrogatives and negatives are predominantly used in this stage. The modulation or elaboration of sentences occurs during this stage.

∞ **Stage IV** (MLU 3.0-3.75) (35-40 months of age)

This stage is marked by emergence of complex sentence forms and embedded sentence elements. For example: “I know what you did.” In this T stands for subject; ‘know’-verb and ‘what you did’ represents the embedded element of object.

This stage is marked by the child's ability embed elements of one sentence within another, as well as correct use of different verb classes. The child masters the concept of irregular past tense. Example: 'go?' 'went'.

Use of articles (both definite and indefinite) - example: 'a', 'an', 'the', etc.

As well as use of possessive markers - example: 'David's book'.

∞ Stage V (MLU 3.75-4.5) (age of 40 months and above)

In stage V, the child masters the use of all 14 grammatical morphemes including 3rd person present tense (3PPT). This stage is marked by the emergence of compound sentences in which the child uses sentence connectors to conjoin two simple sentences. The child also masters the use of verb classes including 'wh' words. By stage V, the acquisition of syntax is almost complete.

Disorders of Speech and Language in The Hearing Impaired

Introduction:

Hearing impairment results from a number of causes and is usually characterized by the type and degree of hearing loss. Type of hearing loss is related to the site of the disorder within the auditory system, and degree of loss is related to the extent that the disorder is infringing on normal function.

Disorders of Language Content:

Hearing impaired individuals ideas of the world, from which the content of language derives, develop in the same sequence as that of a hearing person, but with a slight delay. A lot of research evidence have been cited and suggest that the deaf child who is learning sign language codes the same semantic notions as the hearing child who is learning to speak. Although the form of communication differs, the content is the same. Even, the acquisition of semantic relations is similar to that of a normal child.

Disorders of Language Use:

The hearing impaired individuals can communicate a wide variety of functions and intents using both verbal and non verbal means and is mostly similar to that of hearing individuals. However, deaf individuals are not able to fully comprehend metaphorical use of language and have a tendency to literally interpret embedded meanings.

Disorders of Language Form:

Hearing impaired individuals know sentence forms and can determine the form class that should be inserted in a frame, but they do not know the use or meaning of specific functor words. Thus, the hearing impaired individuals learn the form of language as it is written, but do not learn language in terms of its content or use. Even in use of content words, hearing impaired individuals have restricted use of relational words.

Specific Effects:

Vocabulary:

Vocabulary develops more slowly in children who have hearing loss.

Children with hearing loss learn concrete words like *cat*, *jump*, *five*, and *red* more easily than abstract words like *before*, *after*, *equal to*, and *jealous*.

They also have difficulty with function words like *the*, *an*, *are*, and *a*.

The gap between the vocabulary of children with normal hearing and those with hearing loss widens with age.

Children with hearing loss do not catch up without intervention.

Children with hearing loss have difficulty understanding words with multiple meanings.

For example, the word *bank* can mean the edge of a stream or a place where we put money.

Sentence Structure:

Children with hearing loss comprehend and produce shorter and simpler sentences than children with normal hearing.

Children with hearing loss often have difficulty understanding and writing complex sentences, such as those with relative clauses (“The teacher whom I have for math was sick today.”) or passive voice (“The ball was thrown by Mary”).

Children with hearing loss often cannot hear word endings such as *-s* or *-ed*.

This leads to misunderstandings and misuse of verb tense, pluralization, nonagreement of subject and verb, and possessives.

Speaking:

Children with hearing loss often cannot hear quiet speech sounds such as “s,” “sh,” “f,” “t,” and “k” and therefore do not include them in their speech. Thus, speech may be difficult to understand.

Children with hearing loss may not hear their own voices when they speak. They may speak too loudly or not loud enough.

They may have a speaking pitch that is too high. They may sound like they are mumbling because of poor stress, poor inflection, or poor rate of speaking.

Individuals with Hearing Impairment typically have a great deal of difficulty with articulation, because normal articulation depends to a large extent on hearing the sounds of a language.

Clinical experience and research has shown that hearing impaired and deaf-speakers often have problems with various aspects of speech production, resulting in loss of intelligibility. The kind of distortion in speech can be easily recognized as ‘deaf speech’. Speakers may have difficulty producing vowels and consonants and may also be unable to control the suprasegmental aspects of speech.

Segmental Problems

- Vowel problems, particularly neutralization (limitations in horizontal and vertical movements of tongue)
- Consonant errors - omissions and substitutions (voicing, place and manner of articulation errors).

Suprasegmental Problems

Suprasegmental problems are another feature of deaf speech, including inappropriate, excessive or insufficient variations in Fo and intensity.

Prosody-refers to pitch, intonation and rhythm and these aspects are of interest in a hearing impaired speaker. Prosodic errors, stem from situations such as intonation deficiencies caused by poor control of fundamental frequency (i.e. monotonous speech), inappropriate breath control, slow speech rate, abnormal uses of pauses, and abnormal uses of rhythm and stress (Girgin, 999; John&Howarrth, 1965; Lederet al., 1978; Markides, 1970).

Some of the prosodic characteristics of hearing impaired speaker are:

● **Rate and Rhythm**

Hearing impaired children usually have difficulty maintaining suitable rate and rhythm of speaking (excessively slow rate and inappropriate rhythm). The *amount of phonation time* on syllables is a frequent problem among the hearing impaired; some children should increase their time and others shorten it for improved rhythm, rate and speech intelligibility. Others may have problem of continuous phonation, voicing unvoiced and voiced sounds.

A child's slow rate of speaking may be related to *lack of breath control*. For example, he may need to take a breath every few words and not have enough breath to finish a complete phrase. The total time for the hearing impaired speakers averaged 8-10 sec per sentence and normally hearing speakers averaged 3-4 sec per sentence (Colton and Cooker, 1968). It is suggested that slower speaking rate of deaf speaker's results in perceived hyper nasality and that the hyper nasality is not caused by velopharyngeal dysfunction.

● **Lacks typical intonation**

Incorrect production of intonation contours is a common phonatory problem among the hearing impaired. Intonation is often described as too monotonous or too jumpy, or, either irregular with some rise and fall or monotonous or insufficient or excessive intonation variability.

Monson (1979) tested 3-6 year severely and profoundly hearing-impaired children imitating words. Duration of word and Fo contour of the word was examined. The children's task was to imitate a word with a smoothly falling declarative contour. However, most hearing impaired children did not produce smoothly falling Fo contour. Instead, they produced flat contour or changing contour (Fo may first rise then fall, then be level, then rise all over the course of a single syllable). Also, they did not produce enough variation in Fo to differentiate between declarative vs interrogative utterance. These atypical contour patterns can seriously degrade a speaker's intelligibility.

Abnormal pause behavior/abnormal use of pauses.

Pronovost (1977) stated many deaf individuals are likely to produce separate phonemes and words with *many pauses* as a result of having been taught to articulate speech sounds as precisely as possible.

Increased duration of speech sounds and segments.

Whitehead and Jones (1976) studied vowel duration in three groups of male adults - hearing impaired, deaf group and normally hearing group. They found *longer vowel durations* in hearing impaired and deaf groups. Durational measures on the three groups led the authors to conclude that a hearing impaired population who receives some auditory input can learn the timing system in the same way a normally hearing population does, but a deaf population does not appear to learn these durational differences to the same extent. This suggests the importance of residual hearing. The first two groups sound as if they have more continuous phonation than the normally hearing person.

Academic Achievement:

Children with hearing loss have difficulty with all areas of academic achievement, especially reading and mathematical concepts.

Children with mild to moderate hearing losses, on average, achieve one to four grade levels lower than their peers with normal hearing, unless appropriate management occurs.

Children with severe to profound hearing loss usually achieve skills no higher than the third- or fourth-grade level, unless appropriate educational intervention occurs early.

The gap in academic achievement between children with normal hearing and those with hearing loss usually widens as they progress through school.

The level of achievement is related to parental involvement and the quantity, quality, and timing of the support services children receive.

Social Functioning:

Children with severe to profound hearing losses often report feeling isolated, without friends, and unhappy in school, particularly when their socialization with other children with hearing loss is limited.

These social problems appear to be more frequent in children with mild or moderate hearing loss than in those with a severe to profound loss.

Impact of hearing loss on speech and language development

Hearing Level (dB)	Degree of Hearing Loss	Type	Missed Sounds	Effect
16-25	Slight	Conductive / Sensorineural	10% speech signals.	Misses fast paced peer interactions, fatigue in listening.
26-40	Mild	Conductive / Sensorineural	25% - 40% speech signal, distant sounds, unvoiced consonants, plurals and tenses.	Misses 50% of class discussions, has problems in suppressing background noise.
41-55	Moderate	Conductive / Sensorineural	50% - 80% speech signal	Articulation deficit, limited vocabulary, learning dysfunction.
56-70	Moderately Severe	Sensorineural / Mixed	100% of speech information	Delayed language syntax, atonal voice, reduced speech intelligibility
71-90	Server	Sensorineural / Mixed	All speech sounds, can hear loud environmental noises	Speech not developed or deteriorates, learning deficits
> 90	Profound	Sensorineural / Mixed	All speech sounds. only feels vibrations	Speech not developed or deteriorates, learning deficits

3.4 Assessing communication and language: Developmental checklists, scales, standardized tools and assessing language samples using parameters of measurement (Productivity, Complexity, correctness and communicativeness)

Structure

- 3.4.1 What Is Assessment?**
 - 3.4.2 Purpose of Assessment**
 - 3.4.3 Types of assessment**
 - 3.4.4 How do I assess?**
-

3.4.1 What Is Assessment?

The processes of systematic collection, review, and use of information about educational programs undertaken for the purpose of improving student learning and development is known as assessment. Through the processes of assessment student's learning skill can be understood and also can be improved. In other words the processes of assessment can be defined as processes of systematic gathering, analyzing, and interpreting evidence to determine how well performance matches those expectations and standards; and using the resulting information to document, explain, and improve performance.

3.4.2 Purpose of Assessment

Through the assessment procedure for communication, students are encouraged to be more active in their communication. The ultimate purpose of assessment is to create self-regulated communicators who can leave school able and confident to continue communicating throughout their lives.

3.4.3 Types of assessment

There are two general categories of assessments: formal and informal.

Formal assessments provide data which support the conclusions for the test. These types of formal assessments are also known as standardized measures. Formal tests are usually administered when student's communication skill is below average

his or her age. The data is mathematically computed and summarized. In formal assessment scores are on percentiles, stanines, or standard scores.

Informal assessments are usually based on the content and performance and usually does not provide any data. The example of informal assessment can be a reading task. It indicates how well a student is reading a book. Scores such as 10 correct out of 15, percent of words read correctly, are given in this type of assessment.

Whenever taking about the assessment of communication and language it is important to know about the communication and language in brief. Communication is mainly an active an intentional two way process of exchange of messages. Language is the main vehicle for communication. Language is a set of arbitrary symbols used by a group of people for the purpose of communication.

There are examples of few formal tests:

Name of the test	Developed by	Target population	Age	Domains
Scales of Early Communication Skills for Hearing Impaired Children	Jean S. Moog and Ann E. Geers	Children with hearing impairment	2-8 years	Receptive language Expressive language
Childhood Autism Rating Scale	Eric Schopler, Robert J. Reichler, and Barbara Rothen Renner, 1986	Children with autism	childhood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationship to people • Imitation • Emotional response • Body use • Object use • Adaptation to change • Visual response • Listening response • Taste-smell-touch response and use • Fear and nervousness • Verbal communication • Non-verbal communication

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Activity level • Level and consistency of intellectual response • General impressions
Apraxia battery for adults	Barbara L. Dabul, 2000	Neuromotor speech Disorder	Adolescents and adults	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diadochokinesthetic rate • Increasing word length • Limbapraxia • Oral apraxia • Latency and utterance time for polysyllabic words • Repeated trials test • Inventory of Articulation characteristics of apraxia
Receptive Expressive Emergent Language Scale 3	Bzoch, League, & Brown, 2003	17 months to 7 years	Birth to 3 years	Receptive language Expressive language
Frenchay Dysarthria Assessment	Enderby, 1983	Neuromotor Speech Disorder	12 years to adult	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflexes • Respiration • Lips • Palate • Laryngeal • Tongue • Intelligibility Influencing factors

3.4.4 How do I assess?

For the purpose of assessment first demographic data needs to be collected. The name of the client, age and gender of the client should be known. Speech development history is very important to know because without knowing speech developmental

history it is difficult to understand whether the student's speech and language skill is delayed or age appropriate, and if it is delayed from when this process of delay started. Under the developmental history whether the child vocalizes spontaneously and on demand, age of babbling, first word and first sentence should be included. Mode of communication of the child needs to be noted. The child can use verbal communication or nonverbal communication or both. The range, frequency, effectiveness and appropriateness of communication should be assessed. Under each mode of communication i.e., whether verbal communication or nonverbal communication; both comprehension and expression should be assessed. The details about language background and speech and language stimulation should be taken into account.

Identification of communication needs and participation pattern:

The subject of communication, with whom, when (times of day), where (location and position), why, how and about what topic and vocabulary the client communicates need to be known in detail.

We know that sensory skills play very crucial role for speech and language development. Therefore, the status of visual skills whether the vision is normal or corrected, ability to focus and tract, colour blindness is there or not need to be assessed. Similarly, for assessment of auditory skills whether the client is hearing impaired or not, whether temporary hearing loss is there due to illness or not should be checked.

Oral peripheral examination

The structure and functions of all the oral peripheral mechanisms like lips, teeth, tongue, jaw, hard palate, soft palate need to be assessed.

Articulation at phonological level and phonetic level of all the vowels, consonants and blends should be checked. For the production of speech, breath support is necessary. Therefore, breath control and phonation duration need to be assessed. Loudness, pitch and quality of voice should be checked perceptually as well as using perceptual scale for assessment. Suprasegmental aspects are the important parameter for assessment. Among the suprasegmental aspects accent, emphasis, intonation, phrasing and rate of speech are the area of assessment.

Cognition is one of the primary pre-requisite for language development. Therefore, the cognitive skill of the client should be assessed. Among cognitive skills attention,

use of object, means end relationship, object permanence and stage of play development need to be assessed. Imitation skills for gross body movement and speech also should be noted.

Letter recognition, word recognition, reading comprehension, copying, writing to dictation, spontaneous writing ability under reading and writing skills should be checked.

Speech intelligibility of the client should be assessed based on the rating scale. Finally the communication and the language of the client should be provisionally diagnosed.

Productivity :

Productivity is the degree to which native speakers use a particular grammatical process for the formation of new structure, especially in word formation. The process of productivity generally concerns with which grammatical form would be used with newly coined word. For example, in standard English the formation of preterite (past form) and past participle forms of verbs by the means of ablaut (for example, run-ran-run) is no longer used. Mostly the form of “ed” is used at the end of the verb (for example, e-mailed) irrespective of any form to indicate the past form and past participle form. Similarly, in case of plural “s” is majorly used. The ending “en” is longer productive, being found in oxen, children because these old forms sound incorrect or irregular to modern ears. The plural form of the word brother has been replaced with brothers in place of brotheren because of its irregular sounding. During the transition from old English to modern English, many strong verbs have completely lost because they sound archaic or they are no longer truly understood.

During the evolution over the last five hundred years or more, English has developed very different in ways from most world languages across history. With a long written past English has preserved many words that might otherwise have been lost or changed. Written language has many conventions for writing polite and formal prose than the spoken language. In other words, written language is often very different from how people normally speak. As English speakers are universally literate, it has become easy for people to bring back into life archaic words and grammar forms. This is often to create a comic or humorously old-fashioned effect. It is with the expectation that these new coining words will be understandable. These processes are rare for languages without a culture of literacy. English has borrowed

extensively many words from the other languages because of technology and trade. For example, the plural form of the word “radius” which is a Latin word, has not decisively settle between “radiuses” and the original Latin “radii”, though the educated people prefer to use the Latin plural form. Based on the same rules (Latin plural) new words have been coined.

Complexity of language :

By comparing two Santo languages, Tolomako and Sakao , these two languages are very similar to each other and equally distinct from English, an English speaker is neither inherently biased as being seen as more easy or difficult.

The complexity of language depends upon the parameters of language like phonology, morphology, syntax. When the two languages are closely related to each other based on these parameters, those two languages are said to be easier.

Correctness:

In prescribed grammar, correctness is the notion that certain words, word forms, syntactic structures follow the standards and conventions (that is the rules) prescribed by traditional grammarians. It is a misleading idea that whether a piece of language is right or wrong. Practically language may be better described as appropriate or acceptable to a given context. As per the classical model, the so -called rules of English are pieces of advice laid down by grammarians. Based on the intention of speaker, some of these rules may be proven as good for clarity of language whereas, others are considered as constraints on living language. In old English there are some rules like a sentence cannot be finished with preposition, cannot be started with and, are some examples of rules which are still followed by some language users but deliberately flouted by some other users. There are two main principles practically creating grammatical rules:

Prescriptive rules describe the attitude that there are some conventional rules and everyone should obey them, on the other hand, descriptive rules describe the attitude of modern linguists that what is said by a natural speaker is normal and these real language should be described by the linguists to create a model of language. In spite of all these views, fundamental rules which make a language unique yet these are so embedded that the rules are rarely raised as an issue by the user or it is difficult to draw the line between good and bad language. Depending upon some factors like time, speaker, medium, audience, situation style, message, these differences usually follow the process of change and therefore flexible hard to define.

Communicativeness:

Communicative Language Teaching is an approach of teaching second language and foreign language. It emphasizes both on means and the ultimate goal of facilitating language. The term communicativeness implies different meaning to different facilitators. To some facilitators, it simply means a great emphasize on the use of target language in the classroom particularly on orality. To other facilitators, communication implies the exchange of unknown information between interlocutors, and finally to other facilitators, as a cultural bond system for making meaning. Despite their variations in opinion, all the module facilitators seem to advocate for a communicate approach.

References :

- Hedge, M.N. (1996). Ethnocultural Considerations in Assessment, Pocket Guide to Assessment in Speech-Language Pathology. London: Singular Publishers, 221.
- McLaughlin, S. (1998). The Dimensions of Human Communication, Introduction to Language Development. USA: Singular Publishers, 1-42.
- McLaughlin, S. (1998). The Beginnings-Infant Communication, Introduction to Language Development. USA: Singular Publishers, 175-218.
- Subba Rao, T.A. (1992). Acquisition of Speech and Language by Normal Children, Manual on Developing Communication Skills in Mentally Retarded Persons. Secunderabad: NIMH, 83-120.

3. 5. Identification of Needs Related to Communication and Language

Communication through speech and language is the entity which differentiates humans from other species and this has become their paramount need. Children who find difficulty in talking and understanding what others are saying have speech language communication need. About one in every ten children has a probability of having some kind of speech language communication need¹. Hence many children with speech language and communication need will just look like any other child and they may show learning difficulty and problem in socializing leading to poor behavior. Their behavioral problem may again lead to, that they may be misinterpreted, misdiagnosed or missed altogether. The difficulties which they will encounter are;

1. Paying attention while listening to others.
2. Articulation difficulty, problem in movement of oral peripheral structures.
3. Difficulty in understanding use of language that is affected pragmatics.
4. They may have problem in recognizing difference between certain sounds or words.
5. They may have problem in memorizing what they hear due to poor, memory, so it is hard to learn new words and follow instructions.

There are some frequently used words that are used to describe different types of speech language communication need:

1. Speech and language delay
2. Speech and language disorder
3. Specific language impairment
4. Comprehension (or receptive language) difficulty
5. Expressive language difficulty
6. Speech difficulty
7. Social interaction difficulties (sometimes called pragmatic difficulty)
8. Stammering/Stuttering/Dysfluency/Non-fluency
9. Selective mutism

10. Verbal dyspraxia

While identifying a child's need of communication through speech and language, at the beginning, the questions which must be taken into consideration are:

1. Age - How old the child is?
2. What type of difficulty they have including the type of onset? and
3. What is the severity of their problem?

Need of some children are expressed from a very young age, and others need may be identified until they are at school or even more lately until they become a Young adult. Diagnosis can be gradual or it unfolds overtime and can be a difficult process. People who will be at the first to realize that a child or young person has a problem:

1. Parent or family members
2. Any staff at school or nursery
3. A young person themselves

Some children may find no difficulty at the primary levels of their schooling, but find problem on more complicated curriculum, at higher levels and on larger demands on their needs to communicate through speech-language.

The possible warning signs of a young child, that they may have speech language communication need:

1. Does not respond to sound.
2. Regressing in terms of development.
3. Have little interest in communication.
4. Talks slowly than other children of the same age.
5. Has difficulty understanding simple instructions or requests.
6. Unusual speech and language compared to other children of the same age.
7. Problem in tasks like reading, spelling and mathematical problems.
8. Even family members may find difficulty to understand them.
9. Difficulty in making and keeping friends and participating in games.

The possible warning signs of an older child and young people who might have speech - language communication need;

1. They may be slow to answer or to follow an instruction.
2. They may need several repetition and simplification of instructions.
3. They might switch off when someone is talking to them, it seems they are not listening.
4. Their language may sound muddled and they may find difficulty in organizing their thoughts into words.
5. They may find writing or expressing verbally about some basic thing which they have managed, effortful.
6. They may not understand jokes, or complicated language like idioms.
7. They may find problem in joining and maintaining conversations.

A health visitor, a general physician, a teacher or nursery staff and a family member may refer these children to a speech-language therapist. A Speech language therapist will assess and will tell whether the child has speech language communication need and its appropriate intervention.