Department of Human Sciences

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First-Year Students

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Lecture 1: The process of communication

What do mean by translation?

Translation is the process of reworking text from one language into another to maintain the

original message and communication.

Types of Translation

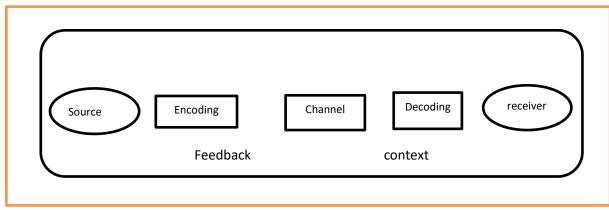
The four most common types of translation services that we see are:

- Literary translation
- Professional translation
- Technical Translation
- Administrative translation

Translation into Arabic (oral in the classroom)

Reading and comprehension

The process of Communication



Systematic=step by step=process

Communication as a process :

Human communication is interpersonal, it is purposive and it is a process.

Question: what do we mean by process?

By process, we mean that steps have to be taken in a set/ particular order to achieve a desired result/goal. **Communication** can be summarized as a transmission of messages from a sender to a receiver in an understandable manner. The communication process is the guide towards realizing effective communication; it is through the communication process that the sharing of a common meaning between the sender and the receiver takes place. Individuals that follow the communication process will have the opportunity to be more productive in every aspect of their profession.

Effective communication leads to understanding, it is made au of seven key components:

1. <u>Sender/Encoder:</u>

The sender also known as the encoder decides on the messages to be sent, the best/most effective way that it can be sent. All of this is done bearing the receiver in mind. In a word, it is his/her job to **conceptualize**. The sender is the individual, group, or organization who initiates the communication, this source is initially responsible for the success of the message. The sender's experiences, attitudes, knowledge, skills perceptions and culture influence the message. "The written words, spoken words, and non verbal language selected are paramount in ensuring the receiver interprets the message as intended by the sender". (Burnett& Dollar, 1989).

The sender may want to ask him/herself question like: what words will I use? Do I need signs or pictures?

2. <u>Medium:</u>

The medium is the immediate from which a message takes. For example, a message may be communicated in the form of a letter, in the form of an e mail or face to face in the form of speech.

Message must be put into a transmittable form that is appropriate for the channel of communication being used. Messages can take a variety of forms and may include symbolic forms or signs. To better understand the symbolic meaning that might be conveyed in a communication, many advertisers have begun focusing attention on semiotics, which involves the study of the nature of meaning, from a semiotic perspective and every marketing, message has three basic components: **an object:** which is the product that is the focus of the message (e.g. Marlboro cigarettes), **a sign** or **a symbol:** which is the sensory image that represents the intended meaning of the object (e.g. The Marlboro Cowboy), and **an interpret:** which is the meaning derived (e.g. rugged, individualistic, American).

3. <u>Channel:</u>

The channel is that which is responsible for the delivery of the chosen message form, for example post office, internet, and radio. As well as it is the method by which the communication

travels from the source or the sender to the receiver. There are two types: personal and non personal channel.

4. <u>Receiver/Decoder:</u>

The receiver or the decoder is responsible for extracting/ decoding meaning from the message. The receiver is also responsible for providing feedback to the sender. In a word, it is his/her job to **interpret**. Receiver is the individual or individuals to whom the message is directed. The extent to which this person comprehends the message will depend on a number of factures which include the following: how much the individual or individuals know about the topic, their receptivity to the message, the relationships and trust that exist between the sender and the receiver.

5. <u>Feedback:</u>

This is important as it determines whether or not the decoder grasped the intended meaning and whether communication was successful. It is the final link in the chain of communication process, it is a key component is this process because it allows the sender to evaluate the effectiveness of the message. Feedback ultimately provides an opportunity for the sender to take corrective actions to clarify a misunderstood message, "Feedback plays an important role by indicating significant communication barriers, differences in background, different interpretations of words and different emotional reactions" (Bovee& thill, 1992).

6. *Context:*

Communication does not take place in a vacuum. The context of any communication act is the environment surrounding it. This includes, among other things: place, time, event, and attitudes of sender and receiver.

7. *Noise:* (also called interference)

This is any factor that inhibits the conveyance of a message. That is, anything that gets in the way of the message being accurately received, interpreted and responded to. Noise may be **internal** or **external**. e.g. a student worrying about an incomplete assignment may not be attentive in class(internal noise) or the sounds of a heavy rain on a galvanized roof may inhibit the reading of a storybook to second graders (external noise).

The communication process is dynamic, continuous, irreversible, and contextual. It is not possible to participate in any element of the process without acknowledging the existence and functioning of the other elements.

Lecture 02:

Tenses

A- The Present Simple:

Structure

The simple present is one of the English tenses in which any verb is formed from the bare infinitive of the verb without "to"

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I travel	I do not travel	Do I travel?
You travel	You do not travel	Do you travel?
He, she, it travels	He, she, it does not travel	Does she travel?
We travel	We do not travel	Do we travel?
You travel	You do not travel	Do you travel?
They travel	They do not travel	Do they travel?

The spelling of the third person singular forms (he, she, it)

1- Verbs ending in consonant+ y, change "y" to "I" and add "es":

Study= studies - apply= applies - cry= cries

2- Verbs ending in "ch", "sh", "ss", "x", and "o", add "es" to the infinitive:

Watch= watches, finish= finishes, go= goes

Usage:

Usage	Examples
Regular habits and daily routine	I generally get up at 7 o'clock
Facts/ general truth	The earth revolves around the sun
Permanent or long-lasting situation	She lives in New York
Timetable and schedule	The plane leaves at 4p.m
Feeling, opinions, and states of mind	She hates flying/ he feels happy
Conditional type 1	If it rains, we will stay at home
In time clause when the main verb is in the future form with time conjunction(when,	As soon as I arrive, I'll phone you
after, before, as soon as, until)	He will come after he finishes work

Giving directions and instructions	First of all, you break the eggs
Common time expressions include:	Always, usually, often, sometimes, rarely, never, at weekends, every day, once a day

B- The Present Continuous:

The present continuous is another English tense in which the verb is formed from "to be" in the simple present+ verb+ing.(the present participle)

Structure:

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I am working	I am not working	Am I working?
You are working	You are not working	Are you working
He, she, it is working	He, she, it is not working	Is he, she, it working?
we are working	we are not working	Are we working?
You are working	You are not working	Are you working?
They are working	They are not working	Are they working?

The spelling of the present participle (verb+ing):

1- Verbs ending in a single vowel and a single consonant double this consonant before" ing":

Travel= travelling (BrE), cut= cutting

2- When a verb ends in a single "e", this 'e' is dropped before "ing":

Write=writing, take= taking

3- "ing" can be added to a verb ending in "y" without affecting the spelling of the verb:

Study= studying, enjoy= enjoying

Usage	Examples
Things that are happening now, at this moment	She is reading in the garden now
Actions happening about this time but not necessarily at the moment of speaking	
Definite arrangement in the near future	We are having a party this evening
Temporary situation	I am staying with a friend for a few days

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"constantly"	, to desci	"forever", ribe and emph repeated action	asize	The child is constantly crying for no good reason
Common expressions i	L	continuous	time	At the moment, now, at present, right now, currently, look! Listen!, for a few days tonight, later, this weekend

C- the Past Simple:

Simple past is an English tense used to describe something that happened in the past. It is formed by the inflection of a single word I.e without any auxiliary verb such as be or have.

Structure:

Affirmative (regular verbs): [verb+ed]: e.g: work= worked, help+ helped....

(Irregular verbs): they change:

Leave= left/ buy= bought/ speak= spoke

Negative: (regular and irregular verbs): [did not] +[verb]

He did not play/ they did not come

Interrogative: (regular and irregular verbs): [did] + [subject]+[verb]

What did she cook? / When did he leave?

Spelling rules:

1- When a verb ends in a single vowel and a single consonant, double this consonant before" ed."

Travel= travelled [BrE]- drop= dropped - admit= admitted

2- When a verb ends I a consonant and 'y', change 'y' into 'i' and add 'ed'

Carry= carried - study= studied

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I walked	I did not walk	Did I walk?
You walked	You did not walk	Did you walk?
He, she, it walked	He, she, it did not walk	Did he, she, it walk?
We walked	We did not walk	Did we walk?
They walked	They did not walk	Did they walk?

Usage	Examples
Finished actions in the past	She left hurriedly yesterday/ I met her last night
Actions that occupied a specific period of	She studied English for 4 years
time now terminated	He lived in France for 12 years
Habits in the past	He never drank coffee when he was younger
Conditional type2	If you asked me, I would help you
Common past time expressions include:	Last (week, year, night), yesterday, ago, in1980, when I was a child

D- The past Continuous:

Structure:

Affirmative: [was/ were] + [verb+ ing]: I was watching

Negative: [was/ were not] + [verb+ing]: she was not studying

Interrogative: [was/ were] + [subject]+ [verb+ ing]: were they playing?

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I was playing	I was not playing	Was I playing?
You were playing	You were not playing	Were you playing?
He, she, it playing	He, she, it was not playing	Was he, she, it playing?
We were playing	We were not playing	Were we playing?
They were playing	They were not playing	Were they playing?

Usage:

Usage	Examples
To describe Two actions happening at the same time in the past	I was studying while my mother was watching TV
To describe an action that was interrupted by an another action	I was playing cards when you called

English lectures

To indicate that an action began before that time and probably continued after it	At eight he was having breakfast
To describe the background in a story written in the past	The sun was shining and the birds were singing as an elephant come out of the jungle
Common time expressions include:	When, while, those days, all day yesterday



Lecture 03:

The passive and the Active voice

Voice is a grammatical category. It expresses whether the subject of the verb is **the agent** of the action (The active voice ; S+V+O) or whether the subject of the verb is **the object** of the action (the passive voice; O+V+by+S)

In the sentence: Active Voice The plant releases Oxygen

Subject verb object

If you turn it into Passive Voice, you will say: Oxygen is released by the plant

object verb subject

2- Verb Tenses used in Active and Passive Forms:

<u>1- Past simple:</u> O+ Was/ Were+ PP(v)+ by+ S

Active: <u>The thief stole my money.</u>

subject verb object

Passive: My money was stolen by the thief.

Object verb subject

<u>B-Past Continuous:</u> O+ Was/Were +being +pp(v)+ by +S

Active: The teacher was advising me.

Passive: I was being advised by the teacher.

<u>C-Past Perfect:</u> O+ had +Been +pp (v)+by +S

Active: Peter had scored two goals.

Passive: Two goals had been scored by peter.

<u>2- Present simple:</u> O+ is/ am/ are+ PP(v) By + S

Active: The firemen take the injured to the hospital.

Passive: The injured is taken to the hospital by the firemen.

<u>B-Present continuous:</u> O+ is/ am/ are + being + PP(v) +by+ S

Active: The students are learning Spanish.

Passive: Spanish is being learned by the students.

<u>*C-Present perfect:*</u> O+ Has/ Have+ Been+ pp(v)+ By+ S

Active: This person has killed animals.

Passive: Animals have been killed by this person.

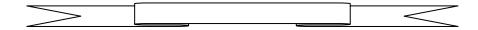
<u>3-Future simple:</u> O+ Will+ Be+ pp(v)+ By+ S

Active: The students will write the lesson.

Passive: The lesson will be written by the students.

<u>4-Models:</u> O+ (must+ can+ could+ may+ might+ would+ have to) + be + pp(v)+ By+ S

- Active: We must conserve our resources.
- *Passive:* Our resources must be conserved by us.



Lecture 04:

Relative Pronouns :

We use relative pronouns to refer to a noun (person or thing) that was mentioned earlier in the sentence and to which we want to add more information about it. ie; A relative Pronoun is used to connect a clause or phrase to a noun or pronoun, the clause modifies, or describes the noun.

Look at the list of Relative Pronouns and their uses:

- Who, Whom, Whose: relate to people.
 - ✓ Who: is used with subject or object.
 - \checkmark Whom: is used only with the object.
 - ✓ Whose: is used to show Possession (his, her, its) and it is connected to nouns ex (his umbrella).

Examples:

Who: Mr. Richard is a taxi driver.

He lives in Italy.

According to these sentences, Mr Richard is a (subject) and He (subject) and we want to connect the first clause with the second one by replacing he by who because we talk about person(subject)

So it will be : Mr Richard who lives in Italy is a Taxi driver.

Whom : This is Peter.

You met him last year.

In these sentences : Peter is (object) and him(object), we have to omit him and replace it by whom.

So it will be : This is peter whom you met last year.

Whose : I have a friend.

His cat is annoying.

Is these sentences : we have a friend and his cat (possession), we have to replace his by whose.

So it will be : I have a friend whose cat is annoying. (do not forget whose+ noun).

• Which : is used with things or animals.

Ex : I read a book.

It is on the the table.

In these sentences, we are talking about a thing ; Book (subject), it (subject), we have to omit it and replace it by which.

So it will be : I read the book which is on the table.

• That : is used with people, animals and things.

Ie ; we can use who/ that

Or, which/ that

Examples : 1- I thanked the woman / She helped me

- = I thanked the woman Who / that helped me (we can ues who or that).
- 2- I like the vase / it is over there.
- = I like the vase which/ that is over there.(we can use which or that).
 - Where: is used in an adjective clause to modify(describe) Place.(room, city, university, there.....).
- Ex : The building is very old.

He lives there.

In these sentences, we are talking about place(building, there), so, we have to add where to replace the word there.

It will be : the building where he lives is very old.

Or : The building in which he lives is very old.

Or : The building which he lives in is very old .

• When: is used in an adjective clause to modify time (day, year, time, season.....).

Ex: 1954 is the year.

The revolution broke out.

In these sentences, we are talking about time (1954).

It will be: 1954 is the year when the revolution broke out.

Or, 1954 is the year on which the revolution broke out.

Lecture 05:

Preposition at, in, and on

Prepositions are words placed before a noun or pronoun. They are generally used to show the relationship between its object and other words in the sentence.

1-Preposition "in":

a-We use **in** as a *time preposition* with:

• *Part of the day*. E.g: I usually go shopping in the afternoon.

Exception: In English, the word night is a part of a day but we use the preposition at instead of in we can say **at night** not in night

- *Months*. E.g: She travelled to Italy in October.
- Seasons. E.g: I like to travel in summer.
- *Years*. E.g: He was born in 2000.
- *Centuries*. E.g: Columbus discovered America in the 15th Century.
- Long period situation. E.g: He used to eat grass in the past.
- *Period of time*. minute, hour... E.g: I will be there in a few minutes.

b-We use **in** as a *place preposition* with:

> Confined (narrow) places/ inside the edges of something E.g.

Can you take a seat in the waiting room please?

- Streets. E.g: The school is in Bay Street.
- > *Cities/ areas/ regions*. E.g: The museum is in the city.
- > *Countries*. E.g: We are going for a drive in the country.
- Liquids/ substances. To show what that contain E.g: there's a lot of sugar in my coffee.

2-Preposition "On":

a-We use **on** as a *time preposition* with:

- Specific Dates. E.g: We moved to our new house on 6th March.
- Specific days. E.g: I get up early on weekends.
- b- We use on as a place preposition with:
 - **Transport**. E.g: we travelled on the train.

- **Communication tools**: E.g: What's on the television?
- Surfaces. E.g: Can you write it on that piece of paper?
- Flat surface (water, ocean, river, lake..). E.g: What's on the water?

3- Preposition "at":

- a- We use **at** as a *time preposition* with:
 - **Specific time**. E.g: She gets up at nine o'clock.
 - **Specific period of time**. E.g: I saw her at the party.
- b- We use **at** as a *place preposition* with:
 - **Specific places**. E.g: I'll meet you at the bus stop.
 - Addresses. E.g: They live at 14 Eagle Road.

Lecture 06:

Comparatives and Superlatives

Forming regular comparatives and superlatives

We use comparatives to compare two things or two people. (e.g She is taller than her husband).

Superlatives are used, however, to show the difference between more than two things or more than two people. (e.g Paris is the biggest city in France).

To form comparatives and superlatives you need to know the number of syllables in the adjective. Syllables are like "sound beats". For instance:

"Find" contains one syllable, but "Finding" contains two: find and ing.

- The rules to form comparatives and superlatives:
- 1. <u>One syllable</u> adjective: cold

Comparative_ add 'er'= colder

Superlative_ add 'est'= the coldest

2. One syllable adjective ending in a silent "e": nice

Comparative_ add 'r'= nicer

Superlative_ add 'st'= the nicest

3. One syllable adjective ending in one vowel and one consonant (CVC): big

Comparative_ the consonant is doubled and 'er' is added= bigger

Superlative_ the consonant is doubled and 'est' is added= the biggest

4. One syllable adjective ending in more than one vowel and more than one consonant (or long vowels) _ high, cheap:

Comparative_ 'er' is added= higher, cheaper

Superlative_ 'est' is added= the highest, the cheapest

5. <u>A two-syllable</u> adjective ending in 'y': happy:

Comparative_ 'y' becomes 'i' and 'er' is added=happier

Superlative_ 'y' become 'i' and 'est' is added= the happiest

6. Two syllable or long adjectives without 'y' at the end: exciting

Comparative_ more+ the adjective+ than= more exciting than

Superlative_ the most+ the adjective= the most exciting

Irregular Comparativ	es and Superlatives:
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Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
bad	worse	Worst
Far(distance)	farther	farthest
Far(extent)	further	furthest
good	better	Best
little	less	Least
many	more	Most
much	more	Most