

ASSIGNMENT No. 2

Q.1 How can the lessons be adapted to include the auditory training for improving the listening skills of deaf children?

Auditory training is an intervention method used in rehabilitative audiology that aims to help individuals with hearing loss use their residual hearing maximally. It emphasizes the development of listening skills to improve the recognition and interpretation of speech sounds despite limited hearing ability. This chapter explains how auditory training techniques may be adapted to help medical students and physicians improve their listening skills for heart auscultation. First, research supporting auditory training efficacy for enhancing sound perception in people with and without hearing loss is reviewed, followed by a discussion of some of the auditory training strategies that are believed to promote auditory learning. The chapter then briefly describes how principles of auditory training have been applied to the design of a computer-assisted auditory training program that helps medical students and physicians develop a better mastery of the auditory skills necessary for differentiating between innocent and pathological heart murmurs.

In the field of audiology, auditory training refers to the process involved in improving the auditory skills of individuals with hearing loss through structured and repetitive listening exercises. In a nutshell, auditory training consists of exercises, also known as listening trials, where the person (1) listens to a large number of presentations of speech sounds or other kinds of sounds, (2) makes a judgement after listening to each presentation such as identifying the sound heard, and (3) receives feedback after each attempt about whether the judgment was correct or incorrect. A basic premise to this type of intervention is the notion that hearing is a sense but listening is a skill that can be improved with practice. Hearing loss is not only characterized by a reduction in the detection of auditory signals, but is often also accompanied by deficits in frequency and temporal resolution which can cause auditory signals to be perceived in a distorted fashion. Degraded auditory signals make speech recognition more difficult, particularly in the presence of background noise. While many people with hearing loss can be helped adequately with hearing aids or cochlear implants alone, others require more intensive hearing rehabilitation, including auditory training, for optimal speech perception with their hearing devices. Auditory training does not improve hearing levels; rather it helps individuals with hearing loss listen more effectively so that their ability to recognize speech sounds may be improved. Originally primarily used with children with hearing loss (and now integrated into auditory-verbal therapy), auditory training is also advocated for adults with auditory deficits acquired later in adulthood¹⁻⁴ and for normally hearing children with auditory processing disorders^{5,6} or language learning difficulties^{7,8} Although most research on this topic has addressed primarily the benefits of auditory training for the identification of speech sounds, some attention has also been given to the impact of such training on the perception of other kinds of sounds. Therefore, auditory training may also be a valuable approach in teaching listening skills for auscultation of heart sounds.

Auditory training efficacy

Support for auditory training efficacy is well documented in speech perception research and in the neuroscience literature^{2,3,7,9-22}. Hearing aid and cochlear implant users have been shown to make gains in the perception of speech sounds following intensive auditory training^{10,11,15}. For example, in the study by Woods and Yund¹⁰, older adults fitted with hearing aids received an auditory training program consisting of numerous repetitions of listening exercises involving 54 nonsense syllables recorded by two talkers. Research participants underwent approximately one-hour long training sessions, five days per week for a period of eight weeks. Post-training, they showed significant improvement in their ability to identify the syllables compared to the test sessions prior to training. Improvement was noted within one week of training and performance continued to increase steadily over the course of the eight weeks. Moreover, the enhanced ability to identify the syllables generalized to untrained voices. That is, improvement was observed not only for the two voices used for the training program, but also for two novel talkers who were recorded speaking the same syllables and used only for the test sessions.

Other researchers have examined the impact of auditory training on the perception of more complex speech materials such as words and sentences. After a 12-week training program that included repeated presentations of a set of 150 words, adults with hearing loss improved their performance on the trained words by about 40% and maintained their performance for at least three months post-training. The ultimate goal of auditory training is to help individuals who use hearing aids or cochlear implants recognize messages spoken during everyday conversations. Adults with hearing loss have been shown to improve significantly on measures of self-reported hearing difficulties during everyday social interactions after completing the Listening and Communication Enhancement (LACE™) auditory training program². Such transfer of skills to daily situations relies on two critical issues in auditory training: first, the generalization of auditory skills to situations involving listening to novel materials, i.e., words or sentences not used during training, and second, the generalization of skills when listening to novel speakers or untrained voices. A speech sound can be somewhat acoustically different when it is articulated by different talkers who vary in voice pitch, voice level, and articulation patterns; therefore people with hearing loss must be able to transfer their auditory skills when listening to novel and unfamiliar talkers. Several studies have used multiple talkers during training to facilitate the transfer of auditory perceptual skills to talkers not used during training; and, in general, data show that the improved skills do generalize to novel talkers.

The effect of auditory training has also been investigated in normally hearing individuals, using non-speech stimuli. Research by Moore and Amitay⁷ showed that normally hearing adults can significantly improve their ability to perform frequency discrimination tasks after listening to 1500 to 2000 trials in less than two hours of training. In this study, participants were asked to listen to two or more pure tones varying in frequency and requested to identify the higher or lower pitch pure tone through matching exercises or picking the odd tone out of a set. The difficulty of the listening task was adaptive, such that the trial immediately following a correct

response included pure tones that were closer in frequency whereas an incorrect response was followed by a trial with pure tones more disparate in frequency, thus keeping the task sufficiently challenging. Following training, participants demonstrated a decrease in the frequency difference that they required to discriminate between the pure tones.

There is also strong neurophysiologic evidence that suggests that auditory listening exercises can affect neural activity in the auditory system. Tremblay, Kraus, McGee, Ponton, and Otis¹⁸ trained young normally hearing adults to identify subtle differences between two acoustically similar syllables (“mba” and “ba”) and measured their brain activity using auditory cortical evoked potentials before and after training. Initially, the two syllables were both perceived as “ba” but with training, participants were able to distinguish between “mba” and “ba”. As the participants’ ability to distinguish between the two sounds progressed, there were accompanying changes in auditory cortical evoked potential waveform morphology. Neurophysiological changes post auditory training have been observed to occur rapidly, i.e., after 45 minutes of training,¹⁹ to precede improvements in auditory perceptual skills in some people¹⁹, and to be maintained at least 36 hours after training²². Moreover, neurophysiological changes have been shown to generalize to novel sounds not used during training²⁰.

Principles of auditory training

Many auditory training programs share a number of common training principles, such as allowing for multiple repetitions of the sounds used for training, providing listeners with immediate feedback on their performance following each listening trial, and progressively increasing the difficulty level of the listening tasks. The next sections of this chapter outline some of the auditory training parameters that are viewed as essential for promoting auditory learning.

Multiple repetitions of stimuli

It is well accepted that the optimal condition for auditory perceptual learning to occur incorporates intensive training that involves actively listening to many, many items during successive training sessions conducted over a relatively short period of time. However, it is less clear which specific training protocols are most effective. Some researchers have used fairly long training regimes, such as approximately one hour of training several days per week for three to four consecutive weeks or even up to eight to 12 weeks; however, auditory perceptual changes were generally observed within the first week or two of training, with performance continuing to improve over the subsequent weeks of training. In contrast, others researchers have documented auditory perceptual learning after much shorter training paradigms, such as a total of four to six training sessions all concentrated in one week. Studies that have documented neurophysiological changes induced by auditory training typically observed such changes following a small number of auditory training sessions or even following a single training session. Individual variability in auditory learning following training has also been noted on perceptual tasks, with some individuals learning at a faster rate than others, as well as in the maintenance of neurophysiological changes post-training.

It appears that whether one conducts auditory training sessions daily versus weekly may have less influence on improvements in performance than the actual amount of training or total number of training sessions. Nogaki et al²⁵ compared perceptual skills of normally hearing listeners after completing five auditory training sessions that were delivered either within one week, three times per week, or once per week for five weeks. Results showed that training rate did not have an impact on performance. On the other hand, the specific auditory training task may be more likely to have an effect on the number of repetitions needed to yield an improvement in performance. Wright and Sabin²⁶ investigated the number of trials needed for normally hearing young adults to show an improvement on a pure tone frequency discrimination task and a temporal-interval auditory discrimination task. Participants listened to either 360 trials or 900 trials daily for six days. For the temporal-interval task, improvement was shown with 360 listening trials per day, and subjecting the listeners to additional practice trials did not lead to greater gains. In contrast, for the frequency discrimination task, 360 listening trials were insufficient to produce auditory learning but improvements occurred with 900 trials. Also using a frequency discrimination task with normally hearing adults, Moore and Amitay⁷ noted auditory perceptual improvements after 500 trials, which continued to increase with additional trials until a plateau was reached after 1500 to 2000 trials.

Q.2 Explain the importance of developing sound consciousness with exposure of pleasant and natural auditory stimuli.

The sounds that result from our movement and that mark the outcome of our actions typically convey useful information concerning the state of our body and its movement, as well as providing pertinent information about the stimuli with which we are interacting. Here we review the rapidly growing literature investigating the influence of non-veridical auditory cues (i.e., inaccurate in terms of their context, timing, and/or spectral distribution) on multisensory body and action perception, and on motor behavior. Inaccurate auditory cues provide a unique opportunity to study cross-modal processes: the ability to detect the impact of each sense when they provide a slightly different message is greater. Additionally, given that similar cross-modal processes likely occur regardless of the accuracy or inaccuracy of sensory input, studying incongruent interactions are likely to also help us predict interactions between congruent inputs. The available research convincingly demonstrates that perceptions of the body, of movement, and of surface contact features (e.g., roughness) are influenced by the addition of non-veridical auditory cues. Moreover, auditory cues impact both motor behavior and emotional valence, the latter showing that sounds that are highly incongruent with the performed movement induce feelings of unpleasantness (perhaps associated with lower processing fluency). Such findings are relevant to the design of auditory cues associated with product interaction, and the use of auditory cues in sport performance and therapeutic situations given the impact on motor behavior. Our perception of our own bodies and our experience of the world around us is fundamentally multisensory in nature (Stein and Meredith, 1993; Driver and Spence, 2000). For example, we see and feel ourselves being gently stroked. Or, in contrast, we experience the jolting sensation of a braking car combined with the sickening sound of tires skidding across

the road's surface. The richness of such multisensory experiences are often taken for granted due to the seamless integration of numerous different sensory inputs. The brain constantly integrates, prioritizes, and filters numerous different sources of incoming sensory information, combining them with the aid of prior knowledge and experience, in order to create a unique perception – namely, a perceptual inference – concerning our body and the environment that surrounds it. This process is dynamic, with perceptual inferences continuously and rapidly being updated in order to allow for adaptive responses to changing bodily properties, or to an environment that is changing (Ernst and Bühlhoff, 2004). Moreover, as highlighted in the above examples, the integration of sensory inputs also provides information concerning meaning, influenced by the valence of the stimuli, which then guides appropriate action (primarily conceptualized in terms of approach vs. avoidance). Together, these dynamic adaptations are critical to survival.

Much of the perceptual inference that is relevant to 'us,' as individuals – namely, our perception of our own body and our interaction with the environment that surrounds us – involves movement. For example, the movement of a limb, through sensorimotor feedback, helps to shape the mental representations that underlie the perceived length of our limbs (Longo and Haggard, 2010; Proske and Gandevia, 2012). Such knowledge may be crucial in those situations in which our movement might result in harm, such as when reaching to put a log on the burning fire. Furthermore, it is movement that allows us to interact with the environment. In these situations, perceptual inferences from sensory input generated by movement allow us to experience what we are touching, such as the roughness of a surface, as well as to determine its pleasantness or unpleasantness (i.e., its emotional valence) (McGlone et al., 2014). These inferences then inform our consequent motor behavior. For example, how much pressure should we apply in order to touch a rough surface comfortably? What situations should we stay in (because they are pleasant) and which situations should we try to extract ourselves from (because they are unpleasant)? Thus, an individual's perception and their emotional responses during movement-related activity may well have a number of important implications for a variety of fields. For example, the perception of movement is likely to be of relevance in the treatment of those with movement-related painful conditions, for whom the perception of danger is inappropriately generalized to safe movement situations (Meulders et al., 2015a, b). Our perception of movements and their emotional sequelae may also be critically important for product design such as when the sensory input provided when consumers interact with products is altered to produce a particular desired auditory feedback, or for virtual reality (VR) applications where sensory input can be used to heighten the immersive virtual experience.

By now, it is well-established that the integration of visual, tactile, and proprioceptive information plays a key role in updating how we perceive our own body, its movement, and the environment we interact with (Maravita et al., 2003). In contrast, relatively little research has explored the contribution of auditory cues to the perceptual inferences that are made during movement-related activity. The last few years have seen a growing interest in audio-motor interactions, particularly in their effect on bodily perception and motor performance. Improved motor performance during development, athletic training, and rehabilitation is underpinned by motor

learning. Given that motor learning is based upon motor perception and multisensory representations of action, including audition (Shea et al., 2001), a review of these new studies investigating what might be termed audio-motor interplay is timely and may well have significant ramifications for both training and therapeutic purposes. Investigation into auditory influences on perception during movement is inherently relevant. After all, almost every bodily movement gives rise to some sort of auditory feedback that provides potentially useful information concerning the movement and providing information about body position (for example, the sound of footsteps during walking). These self-produced sounds are known to be represented in the action-recognition system (Aglioti and Pazzaglia, 2010). For example, neurophysiological evidence in monkeys shows that neurons in the premotor cortex discharge both when a movement is performed as well as when a monkey hears a sound corresponding to that movement being performed (Kohler et al., 2002; Keysers et al., 2003). Similarly, neuroimaging work in humans has revealed that activation within the ventral premotor cortex occurs both during movement and when listening to the sound of that movement (Gazzola et al., 2006). It has been theorized that during movement, an internal representation of the movement is created that allows an individual to determine, using movement-induced sensory feedback, whether the actual movement matches the intended one or not. Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) and functional neuroimaging studies support such an idea, showing that an internal representation of movement exists that is evoked solely by the sound produced by that movement. In addition to self-produced sounds, subtle auditory cues that we may be unaware of are often associated with, and can influence, our actions and behaviors. Together, this supports the potential for profound auditory influences on movement that may stem from varied auditory sources, including those that we may or may not be consciously aware of.

Here, it is also pertinent to consider audio-tactile interactions during self-generated movement; that is, how auditory information generated by tactile contact could impact our perception of our own movement and of the environment that we happen to be interacting with. Such interactions are relevant to consider given physiological, behavioral, and neuroanatomical links between these two senses. For example, the receptor organs for both touch and audition depend upon the mechanical displacement of receptors to encode physical stimuli as neural signals. Thus, both auditory and tactile input from self-generated movement provide information about the mechanical energy produced by said movement. Both modalities are also frequency dependent (Yau et al., 2009) which raises the possibility of systematic perceptual interactions, given that the more so-called amodal properties shared by different modalities, the more likely the brain is to attribute them to a common source (Stein and Meredith, 1993). For example, auditory stimuli affect the perception of somatosensory vibrations only when provided at the same or similar frequency (Ro et al., 2009) and this extends to complex, higher-order representations [e.g., tactile sweep direction perception is not influenced by auditory stimuli if provided at a different absolute frequency (Crommett et al., 2019)]. Such findings occur despite temporal frequency matching judgments [same/different] of audiotactile pairs being least accurate for small discrepancies between stimuli (Occelli et al., 2009). If two senses detect very highly correlated

information (e.g., vision and touch detecting object shape or audition and touch stimulated by the same kind of energy), then stronger coupling priors occur, with the result being increased binding (Parise, 2016; Chen and Spence, 2017). That is, having overlapping or shared mechanical stimulus in the environment may increase integration. Last, neural links between feeling and hearing have been supported by functional neuroimaging that has revealed extensive ipsilateral connections between the primary auditory and somatosensory cortices (Ro et al., 2013). Taken together, current evidence provides compelling support for the existence of crossmodal interactions between sound and touch. In fact, there is evidence to suggest that in some situations, auditory input may be more heavily weighted than tactile input in shaping perception (Huang et al., 2012), although such interactions are likely situation- and task-dependent – for example, see Occelli et al. (2011a) for differences in audiotactile interactions between front and rear space (i.e., surrounding the body).

Q.3 Elaborate the procedure to encourage the students with hearing aid to be expressive in classrooms and help them to improve the vocabulary.

The learning processes of students with a hearing loss may be affected in the following ways:

- Students who have been deafened in early childhood can be very different to students who have lost hearing later in life in terms of educational disadvantage. For example, their range of vocabulary may be limited, which in turn may affect their level of English literacy.
- Deaf and hard of hearing students can sometimes prefer visual learning strategies. This can be a challenge in an environment where much essential information is delivered exclusively by word of mouth.
- Students with a hearing loss may need to use assistive technology to participate in class. This assistive technology can be the laptop where software such as Skype can be used to deliver Auslan interpreters or captioning. For some it will be in the form of listening devices. For others it will be a combination of technology that includes both listening devices and computer based software.
- The impact of hearing loss can cause delays in receiving learning material. Students who need information transcribed from tape must sometimes wait for a significant period of time for this to happen. This needs to be considered in terms of developing suitable timelines for the completion of work for each student.
- Students with hearing loss may appear isolated in the learning environment. The possibility for social contact and interaction with other students is often limited, and this isolation or separateness may have an impact on learning.
- Participation and interaction in tutorials may be limited. Students who cannot hear the flow and nuances of rapid verbal exchange will be at a disadvantage.
- Some students with hearing loss coming straight from the school system have been familiar with a structured learning environment, and may require a period of adjustment when entering into the post-

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secondary learning environment. Communication difficulties and adjustments may lead to a level of anxiety about performing in front of others. This may affect participation in tutorials, particularly for students whose speech development has been impacted by their hearing loss.

Teaching Strategies

There is a range of inclusive teaching strategies that can assist **all** students to learn but there are some specific strategies that are useful in teaching a group that includes students with a hearing impairment:

- Encourage students with a hearing loss to seat themselves toward the front of the lecture theatre where they will have an unobstructed line of vision. This is particularly important if the student is using an interpreter, lip-reading, relying on visual clues or using a hearing aid which has a limited range. Be aware that some students may not be comfortable with this suggestion or have alternate strategies. Respect their choices.
- Use assistive listening devices such as induction loops if these are available in the lecture theatre. Hearing aids may include transmitter/receiver systems with a clip-on microphone for the lecturer. If using such a microphone, it is not necessary to change your speaking or teaching style.
- Ensure that any background noise is minimised.
- Repeat clearly any questions asked by students in the lecture or class before giving a response.
- Do not speak when facing the blackboard. Be aware that moustaches, beards, hands, books or microphones in front of your face can add to the difficulties of lip-readers. Students who lip-read cannot function in darkened rooms. You may need to adjust the lighting in your teaching environment. If a sign interpreter is employed, follow the hints for working with a sign interpreter.
- It is difficult for a student watching an interpreter to also take notes from an overhead or blackboard. An interpreter is unable to translate concurrently both your words **and** any information given on an overhead. It is important therefore that all information should also be available as handouts.
- Provide written materials to supplement all lectures, tutorials and laboratory sessions. Announcements made regarding class times, activities, field work, industry visits etc, should be given in writing as well as verbally.
- Allow students to record lectures or, preferably, make available copies of your lecture notes. Flexible delivery of teaching materials via electronic media is also particularly helpful for students who have difficulty accessing information in the usual ways. For students with a hearing loss, new technology - and the internet in particular - can be used to bridge many gaps.
- Ensure that lists of the subject-specific jargon and technical terms which students will need to acquire are made available early in the course. If interpreters or captioning are being used as an adjustment, make this list available to the professionals providing the service as early as possible.

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- Any videos or films used should, where possible, be captioned. When this is not possible, you will need to consider alternative ways for students with hearing impairment to access the information.
- In tutorials, assist students who lip-read by having the student sit directly opposite you and ensure, if possible, that they can see all other participants. Control the discussion so that only one person is speaking at a time.
- Students with hearing loss, especially those with associated speech issues, may prefer to have another student present their tutorial papers.
- Language abilities are often affected by hearing loss, depending on the age of onset. Students who acquired their hearing loss early in life may have literacy issues. In some cases, providing reading lists well before the start of a course for students with a hearing loss can be beneficial. Consider tailoring these reading lists when necessary, and provide guidance to key texts.
- Allow assignments or reviews to be completed on an in-depth study of a few texts rather than a broad study of many.
- Using Auslan interpreters and live remote captioning may require some adjustments in teaching styles, particularly the pace of the learning. Consult with the providers of the service early to identify any potential changes.
- Where live remote captioning is provided, a transcript of the session can usually be assessed within 24 hours. It is recommended that these be emailed directly to the student as an accurate record of reference.

Assessment Strategies

Always consider alternative forms of assessment where necessary. Standards are not expected to be lowered to accommodate students with a disability but rather are required to give them a reasonable opportunity to demonstrate what they have learnt. Once you have a clear picture of how the disability impacts on learning, you can consider alternative assessment strategies:

- When their range of literacy is an issue, students may require the use of a thesaurus or dictionary during exams. A personal computer with spelling and grammar functions may be required.
- Provide alternatives to those assignments which are based on interviews or questionnaires, and be flexible with assignment deadlines, particularly if students have had to wait for transcripts of learning sessions.
- Provide extra time in examinations, particularly extra time for reading questions. Some students will prefer to have questions and instructions 'signed' to them.

Q.4 Describe five basic components of language with appropriate examples from Urdu language.

Subject +Object Verbs are a very common order of words in the Urdu language. To fully understand the above point we can look at the example below.

وہ کھانا کھا رہی ہے

As Urdu is written from right to left, you will read it to see the structure of the SOV. For further clarification, we have included the translation of the letters of the same sentence, as well as the appropriate marking of the place.

woh khana kha rahi hai. (S O V) meaning "She is eating food."

The Subject

Fa'el (فاعل) in Urdu means "subject". If you want to become a fluent Urdu student and speaker, in sentences it's important to mention the subject. Applying subjects at all times will keep your sentence formation clear, and this will help you and your spokesperson to clearly understand everything without any mistakes.

Examples

- وہ بس چلتا ہے۔ (Woh bus chalta hai.) meaning He drives the bus.
- بس چلائیں (Bus chalai) meaning Drive a bus.

The first sentence has a subject, i.e. وہ (woh), which makes the sentence clear. However, the removal of the subject from the second Urdu sentence makes the structure of the sentence more vague or awful.

SOV Word Order

Feal, fail, and mafool are the most appropriate Urdu words that mean "subject," "action," and "object," respectively. فاعل - مفعول - فعل (Subject + Object + Action), as discussed above, is the most effective and applicable word order in Urdu sentences.

Subject Verb Agreement In The Urdu Language

"Verbs," are an important element of an Urdu sentence. Urdu verbs always start with the subject and sentence in Urdu grammar. Like English sentences, a subject in Urdu will determine the type of verb. Here below we have a contrast of English and Urdu sentences in word order which bring better understanding.

"He plays with a football"

We will translate this into Urdu Language, then we have to transfer the word order to SOV. So the Urdu translation is like this:

وہ فٹ بال سے کھیلتا ہے۔ (Woh football se khelta hai.) follows an S O V word order.

Modal Verbs To Ask For Permission

"May"

کیا میں اندر آ سکتا ہوں؟ (Kya mein ander aa sakta hu?) meaning "May I come in"?

"Can"

کیا میں یہاں کھیل سکتا ہوں؟ (Kya mein yaha khel sakta hu?) meaning "Can I play here"?

Modal Verbs To Express Ability

"Be Able To"

وہ وقت پر کام کر سکے گا۔ (wo waqt per kaam kar sakay ga) meaning "He is able to work on time".

"Could"

وہ غریب بچے کی مدد کر سکتے تھے۔ (wo ghareeb bachay ki madad kar saktay thay) meaning “They could help a poor child”

Urdu Verb Conjunction

As an Urdu reader, you are curious to know about compound actions, which allows you to apply verbs correctly in any sentence, so let's take a look below.

Preparing Urdu Sentences

So far in the above example, you get some idea regarding Urdu grammar and the formation of words in Urdu linguistics. So now we will further proceed to add more features in forming Urdu sentences.

Pronouns are the elements that are important for the construction of Urdu sentences. Urdu Pronoun may cause conjunctions in forming sentences so while you mention it in your sentence you should be careful.

While you work with noun pronouns, you should keep in view not to replace their positions in Urdu Sentence.

- وہ دفتر جاتی ہے۔ (Woh daftar jati hai.) meaning “She goes to the office”.
- ہم دفتر جاتے ہیں۔ (Hum daftar jate hai.) meaning “We go to the office”.

However, the Urdu word order will exactly remain the same in the sentences. It never matters what type of pronoun you are using, the order in which Urdu words are changed will not change.

Placing Adjectives In Urdu Sentences

Adjectives make a sentence more interesting by adding words with a noun in the sentence. Let's take a look at the sentences below and understand how and where adjectives are placed in Urdu sentences.

Adjectives are placed in the front of nouns in Urdu sentences.

- نیلا فراک (Neela faraak) meaning Blue frock
- گندی گلی (Gandi Galli) meaning Dirty Street
- خوبصورت موسم (Khoobsurat Mosam) meaning **beautiful** weather
- وہ نیلے رنگ کا فراک پہنتی ہے۔ (Wo neelay rang ka farak pehenti hai) meaning “She wears a blue frock”.

Placing Adverbs In Urdu Sentences

In Urdu, placing verbs, or adverbs provides clarity in a sentence. Let's understand the examples below.

- میں اچھی طرح چلتا ہوں۔ (Mei achi tarha chalta hon.) meaning “I walk well”.
- میں بہت اچھی طرح چلتا ہوں۔ (Mei bhoot achi tarha chalta hon.) meaning “I walk very well”.
- یہ پھل بہت میٹھے ہیں۔ (Yeh phaal bhoot meethei hai.) meaning “These fruits are so sweet”.

In the previous sentence, اچھا (acha) refers to the verb. The second, بہت (bohat) exaggerates and emphasizes it more. The third, بہت (bohat) changes the adjective. You might notice one thing in every Urdu sentence, the adverbs are mentioned before the verb, adjective, or adverb.

Urdu pronouns usually express the linkage between a noun pronoun and other forms of a sentence. Here are some examples:

- بلی میز کے نیچے ہے۔ (Billi maiz ke nechei hai.) meaning “The cat is under the table”
- میں پارٹی میں جانا چاہتا ہوں لیکن میں مصروف ہوں۔ (Me party me jana chata hon par me bhoot masroof hon.) meaning “I want to go to the party but I’m busy.”
- میں کل کے بعد آزاد ہوں۔ (Me kal ke baad azad hon) meaning “I’m free after tomorrow”.

Urdu Grammar

The structure of all languages depends on their grammar. Basic grammar comprehension allows learners to develop their understanding of listening and using language clearly and accurately. Urdu grammar also comprises certain tools just like English and other languages.

Urdu Pronoun

A Pronoun is a word or a group of words that are used in place of a noun to avoid the repetition of words.

For example:

- اس نے کتاب پڑھی۔ (us ney kitaab parhi) meaning “He read the book”.
- وہ باغ میں کھیل رہے ہیں۔ (wo baagh mein khel rahay hain) meaning “They are playing in the garden”.

Basic Type Of Pronoun In Urdu Grammar

Here are three basic types of pronouns in urdu grammar that you should know about!

- ضمیر متکلم (zameer mutkallam) – “first person”
- ضمیر حاضر (zameer hazir) – “second person”
- ضمیر غائب (zameer ghayab) – “third person”

Urdu Verbs

In Urdu grammar, the verb is more congested in replace of that we use an infinitive

Urdu infinitives end at (Na)

- کھیلنا (khelna) meaning Playing
- رونا (rona) meaning Crying

Urdu Gender

Gender always plays an important role in conjugating Urdu verbs (infinitives)

Male

میں کھیلتا ہوں۔ (Mein khelta hu) meaning I (male) play.

Female

وہ اپنی ماں کے ساتھ سوتی ہے۔ (wo apni maa key sah soti hai) meaning She sleeps with her mother.

Urdu Pronunciation

Use these points to improve your pronunciation

- Use voice recording tools to improve pronunciation.

- Practice in front of a mirror.
- Train your ear with the tongue.
- Get used to it, get used to it, and get used to it.
- Make friends with a native Urdu speaker.
- Take video lessons.

Q.5 Explain the common speech defects found in deaf children. Suggested reasons to improve them

Speech and language problems may make it hard for your child to understand and speak with others, or make the sounds of speech. They're common, affecting as many as one in 12 kids and teens in the U.S.

Kids with these disorders often have trouble when they learn to read and write, or when they try to be social and make friends. But treatment helps most children improve, especially if they start it early.

Adults can also have these disorders. It may have started in childhood, or they may have them because of other problems such as brain injuries, stroke, cancer, or dementia.

Speech Disorders

For children with speech disorders, it can be tough forming the sounds that make up speech or putting sentences together. Signs of a speech disorder include:

- Trouble with p, b, m, h, and w sounds at 1 to 2 years of age
- Problems with k, g, f, t, d, and n sounds between the ages of 2 and 3
- When people who know the child well find it hard to understand them
- The causes of most speech disorders are unknown.
- There are three major types:
- **Articulation:** It's hard for your child to pronounce words. They may drop sounds or use the wrong sounds and say things like "wabbit" instead of "rabbit." Letters such as p, b, and m are easier to learn. Most kids can master those sounds by age 2. But r, l, and th sounds take longer to get right.
- **Fluency:** Your child may have problems with how their words and sentences flow. Stuttering is a fluency disorder. That's when your child repeats words, parts of words, or uses odd pauses. It's common as kids approach 3 years of age. That's when a child thinks faster than they can speak. If it lasts longer than 6 months, or if your child is more than 3.5 years old, get help.
- **Voice:** If your child speaks too loudly, too softly, or is often hoarse, they may have a voice disorder. This can happen if your child speaks loudly and with too much force. Another cause is small growths on the vocal cords called nodules or polyps. They're also due to too much voice stress.

Language Disorders

Does your child use fewer words and simpler sentences than their friends? These issues may be signs of a language disorder. For kids with this disorder, it's hard to find the right words or speak in complete sentences. It may be tough for them to make sense of what others say. Your child may have this disorder if they:

- Don't babble by 7 months

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- Only speak a few words by 17 months
- Can't put two words together by 2 years
- Have problems when they play and talk with other kids from the ages of 2 to 3

There are two major types of language disorders. It's possible for a child to have both.

Receptive: This is when your child finds it hard to understand speech. They may find it hard to:

- Follow directions
- Answer questions
- Point to objects when asked

Expressive: If your child has trouble finding the right words to express themselves, they may have this type of language disorder. Kids with an expressive disorder may find it tough to:

- Ask questions
- String words into sentences
- Start and continue a conversation

It's not always possible to trace the cause of language disorders. Physical causes of this type of disorder can include head injuries, illness, or ear infections. These are sometimes called acquired language disorders.