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Implications of Faulty Sentences in Communication

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Abstract

Faulty sentences are some of the barriers to effective communication. Communication is effective when its content is not marred or distorted by errors, solecism, ambiguity and other inadequacies arising from language misuse and poor/lack of knowledge of language and communicative principles that make communication effective. This study explores the implications of faulty sentences in communication. Data are drawn from observation and library and internet secondary sources. Qualitative method and text-content analysis are employed. The analysis shows that the implications of faulty sentences include marring meaning and comprehension, and generating solecism, ambiguity and structural imbalance. The study concludes that faulty sentences amount to violation of syntactic rules and communicative principles, pose challenges to effective communication, and show poor knowledge and use of syntax and grammar of a language. It charges individuals to learn and master how faultless sentences are formed, and internalise syntactic rules and principles of effective communication.

Keywords: Sentences, Faulty, Communicative Principles, Language Misuse, Syntactic Rules.

Introduction

Although faulty sentences obtain in both oral and written forms of communication or speeches, they are usually quite obviously obtained more in written pieces of communication. Extant studies focus attention solely on students' mechanical inaccuracies and other errors, leaving out faulty sentences in the writing of other persons involved in formal writing. Perhaps, that is because every individual has 'the rights to make mistakes' and 'express themselves as long as they do not violate the rights of others' (Jakubowski-Spector, 1977). Writing in the English Language is said to be a very difficult task for both non-native speakers (Rattanadilok Na Phuket & Othman, 2015; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013; Hengwichitkul, 2009) and native speakers too (Kukurs, 2012).

The above noted difficulty is caused by several factors. The commonly identified and affirmed ones are limited knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary (Weigle, 2002; Olsen, 1999; Silva, 1993), inter-lingual interference (Rattanadilok Na Phuket & Othman, 2015; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013; Bennui, 2008), intra-lingual interference and carelessness (Sermsook, Liamnimitr & Pochakorn, 2017). Given the preoccupations of the study, its importance cannot be over-emphasised. This is because of its benefits to the reader. The benefits include becoming well acquainted with and conscious of faulty

sentences and being poised to making correct (faultless or less faulty) sentences, following the exposition made by the study. The study is also important because it contributes to the growing literature on this subject matter. It is also hoped that the study would cause a change by making its audience to always try as much as possible to avoid making faulty sentences.

Statement of Problem

Faulty sentences cause a lot of mishaps in communication, both written and spoken forms alike. In both oral and written forms of communication or speeches, faulty sentences are largely disregarded. What is communicated to the audience is usually expressed in different sentences. All that goes wrong or manifests as consequences of faulty sentences constitute the implications of such sentences.

Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to make an exposition of the implications of faulty sentences in communication. Its objectives are to:

i. Make an exposition of the implications of faulty sentences in order to rouse deserving scholarly attention to the attendant issues;
ii. Rouse the consciousness to the implications of faulty sentences in formal communication;
iii. To cause the avoidance of making faulty sentences among individual users and learners of English.

Sentences: Meaning and Elements

Sentences are plural strings of grammatical constructions that contain finite verbs and make meaning. A sentence consists of a group of words (morphemes) having a finite verb, with/out infinite verb(s) serving as supplementary verbs to the finite verb(s). Words, phrases and clauses make up a sentence. In fact, all simple sentences are independent clauses of varied kinds. Dependent clauses, which cannot make a compete meaning on their own, are usually joined with independent clauses to form compound, complex and compound-complex (multiple sentences) respectively (Monday & Eze, 2012). Faulty sentences are mostly realised in these sentence types. These kinds of sentence are sentence types according to structure, not according to functions. Sentences according to functions are declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory sentences. Dative sentences (e.g. No Road, Men at work, No noise, No trespass, Good morning, Thanks, Congrats/congratulation, Hello, etc.) are also sentences according to functions, not structure.

Depending on the type of sentence, subject, verb, object, complement and adjunct are the basic elements of a sentence. While some sentences, simple sentences in particular, might have only a subject and a verb, others have more than these two. Nouns, pronouns, gerunds (ing verbs) and to-infinitive verbs) and other nominal's (.e.g., the blind, the deaf, etc.) serve

as either subjects and/or objects of sentences. Verbs constitute the predicate of sentences. Adjectives constitute the complement of sentences. Adverbs are the adjuncts of sentences. Determinants accompany subjects and objects of sentences. Prepositions and conjunctions serve supplementary grammatical functions to either the subject or the predicate of sentences. Interjections merely express emotions, feelings, etc., without grammaticality.

Again, sentences are the largest elements of the syntactic/grammatical component of language. They are the largest because a sentence might comprise words, a phrase(s) and a clause(s), with all these constituents having phonemes. Grammatically, a sentence consists of a subject and a predicate. The subject of a sentence is its part that often appears first and is invariably a noun or a noun phrase that answers the 'what' or 'who' about the predicate. The leftward part of a sentence is the subject of the sentence. This part begins with or is headed by a noun or its equivalent that performs the action in the sentence. The other rightward part of the sentences constitutes the predicate, which begins with a verb. Both subject and predicate have their respective constituents. Consider the following examples, with the subjects being in italics:

The man killed the mad dog gruesomely.

My mother and I love each other so much.

She punished her younger sister for disobeying her.

As Nwala (2008, p. 127) affirms, 'there are principles and rules that 'define the structuring and combination' of morphemes and words into phrases, clauses and sentences with which messages about whatever subject matter are passed across to the audience in communication of all forms. The principles and rules, which make utterances grammatical or ungrammatical, are clearly defined by syntax (Nwala, 2008, p.127), not any other level of linguistic analysis. The other levels of linguistic analysis are phonology, morphology, semantics and pragmatics. The grammar of a language is said to be a model of the linguistic competence of the native speakers, which comprises sets of rules or principles that specify how to form, pronounce and interpret phrases, clauses and sentences (Nwala, 2008; Radford, 1988). The rules or principles talked about are syntactic. The violation of these rules leads to or causes faulty sentences. Over the years, the syntactic relations of morphemes, words, phrases, clauses and sentences and 'the rules of their concatenations and combinations have been described using various grammatical approaches' (Nwala, 2008, p. 128).

As far as sentences and other syntactic elements are concerned, Immediate Constituent Grammar (ICG) and Generative Grammar (GG) are two approaches that apply. These two approaches directly concern the conventional or traditional use of language with its syntax and syntactic rules for communication purposes at individual and group levels. ICG teaches that words are not used arbitrarily in constructing meaningful linguistic structures. GG teaches how sentences are generated. The implication is that the generation of sentences must be in line with universal ways and principles of generating (forming acceptable and grammatically correct) sentences in formal contexts. In informal contexts, sentences could be otherwise. One of such contexts is that literary context of sentence of sentence

formation and use. Literary sentences are informal sentences conveying varied figures of speech, with ignored violation of grammatical rules and formal principles of communication.

The concatenations of words and larger structures ideally follow the rules of the language in use and the spatial relationship, which both define the linear sequence of the items, as they appear from left to right (Ndimele, 2001; Agbedo, 2000; Tomori, 1977; Allerton, 1979; Nwala, 2008). As such, faultless sentences are those that follow the rules of sentence formation and make communication meaningful. The concern of this paper is on the imperative of correct combination and arrangement of words, phrases, clauses and sentences in communication. Within the context of syntax, the issues at stake include wrong spelling (misspelt words), punctuation and tense errors, use of abbreviations and slang.

Communication: Meaning and Elements

Communication, as Ndimele (2001) notes, is a social transaction that involves getting one's ideas across to others, and in the process, expressing oneself in such a way that the listener or the recipient of the piece(s) of information can understand what is expressed or communicated. The implication of the foregoing definition of communication is that it is a social activity that most often involves at least two parties. That kind of communication is regarded as interpersonal or intergroup communication, because two or more persons or groups are involved. The other kind involving communicating with self is regarded as intrapersonal communication, because only one person is involved in the communication process. The two or more parties engage in the exchange of knowledge, thoughts, ideas, feelings, messages, etc. Each of the parties ensures that exchange follows the linguistic principles of language use for communication (communicative discourse). The most essential principle is clarity. Without clarity, what is communicated is not (well) understood. Every communicative situation involves some shared situational knowledge, which gives the communication situation a background. The situational knowledge is determines the extent to which the intended communicative content is shared or extended. This situational knowledge and its entailments can be regarded as communication dependent variables or conditions. Searle (1969) and Wardhaugh (1970) call them 'felicity conditions', while Grice (1975) refers to them as the co-operative principles. These conditions, principles, processes, means and styles of any communication influence the intended meaning. As a matter of fact, some parts are necessarily brought together to form the relation between coding, message and reception, as the process of communication. Ndimele (2001, p. 158) posits that nine basic elements (models) are involved in the process of communication, which influence communications. These are sender, message, coding, process, feedback, social setting, encoding process, channel, receiver and noise.

According to McRaney (2003, p. 101), there are three styles of communication. These are self centred, message-centred and other-centred communication styles. Accordingly, self-centred communication is the one that centres on the communicator. It is often marked

with fear and uneasiness. It focuses on the communicator with exaggerated self awareness. Next, the message-centred communication style is marked with less stress on the self, but on the message. That is, it focuses on and emphasises the message, not the communicator or the audience. And, other-centred communication is the style marked with respect for the receiver, language, frame of reference, life situation, social class, clues and self. By implication, this third style takes into consideration the applicable rules, styles and devices that appropriate for a verbal or a written discourse that demonstrates effective communication. Thus, the third style could be adjudged the best of the three.

Contemporary experts in communication largely affirm these three styles of communication to be the techniques to help meet up with the achievement of the purposes of communication (Hesselgrave, 1991, p. 87). Communication serves a great deal of purposes. That is, there is always a purpose for communication of all kinds. Communication plays essential functions. Stewart (2007) has identified the following functions of communication:

i. Referential – transmit information, knowledge,
ii. Emotive – expressiveness
iii. Conative – intentional, motivational
iv. Peotic – fusion of concrete perception and abstraction
v. Phatic – belongingness, affiliation
vi. Metalingual – communication about communication
vii. Metaphysical – worldview.

Each kind of communication has a pattern. It is for this reason that Obeg (2003) has identified five patterns of communication, which are the (same as) kinds of communication. According to Obeg (2003), the patterns of communication are the following:

(a) Interpersonal communication: This involves two persons or a very few people having a one-to-one exchange of ideas, views, feelings, etc. It gives room for feedback.

(b) Group communication: The number of people involved differs according to the topic and occasion of discussion. It may involve a large number of people or a small number. Communication here is based on common interests and it is problem-solving.

(c) Mass communication: This involves the use of print and electronic media and technological devices. A very large audience from different fields of life, different geography, and different status are involved. The boost in the electronic media in the past few decades has helped a lot. It is this kind of communication that serves as the medium of globalisation.

(d) Organisational communication: Organisations consider members of their group as a family unit. There are a lot of communication methods as well as instances that go on in such organisations. Such communication methods can be internal or external, vertical, horizontal or diagonal depending on the organisational set up. Such communication methods can be internal or external, vertical, horizontal or diagonal depending on the organisational set up. Such communication methods also call for personal relationship

among the workers and even with the administration. The external aspect of communication may be with other organisations or customers.

(e) Public communication: This involves a speaker and an audience of many people. Here, the speaker communicates in a formal setting to a large audience, whose membership is not restricted. This type of communication does not allow much feedback. Most often than not, the only feedback may be non-verbal. Such communicative occasions include public lectures, conventions, seminars, conferences and preaching, among others.

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on the syntactic theory of Universal Grammar, championed by Chomsky (1975). The generative grammarians (generativists) considered the need to ascertain, describe, analyse and show what grammatically apply to all languages. Common grammatical features and property are what apply to, or that run through, all languages. The need followed advances in analytical techniques and the examination of a wide range of languages of the world. The generativists, led by Noam Chomsky, took up the task of theorising language from the Universalist perspective. Chomsky's syntactic theory of Universal Grammar lends credence to this study in that it demands for universal acceptability and grammaticality of sentences, which must conform with universal syntactic rules that apply to all languages of the world in formal contexts of language use.

Universal Grammar (UG) concerns itself with: (i) saying *that* languages have certain structural features and (ii) accounting for *why* this is the case (Hickey, 2022). Its 'principles are concerned with the form of a possible human grammar, with restrictions on what is permissible and with generalisations which apply to several word classes' (Hickey, 2022, p. 2). The principles are:

(i) Subjacency: A moved element cannot be separated from its trace by more than one binding element.

(ii) Tensed S constraint: No rule involves two elements respectively inside and outside a tensed S.

(iii) Bound anaphora interpretation: This associates reflexive pronouns with potential intra-sentential co-referents.

(iv) Disjoint co-reference: No two NPs may be interpreted as intersecting in reference.

(v) Cross-categorical generalisation: Verbs and prepositions take formally similar arguments; for instance, the traditional accusative case.

For any model of universal grammar to achieve the higher goal of explanatory adequacy, it must be: universally valid, psychologically real, and maximally constrained. These are its three core attributes for achieving the higher goal of explanatory adequacy. Accordingly, the first attribute obviously states that universal grammar applies to all human languages, past, present and even possible future languages (Chomsky, 1975; Keenan & Comrie, 1977; Hickey, 2022). The second attribute maintains that the linguist's universal grammar postulates must be in accordance with what one knows about the psychology of language (Chomsky, 1975; Keenan & Comrie, 1977; Hickey, 2022).

Basically, the second characteristic demands: being congruent with the facts of first language acquisition; confirming peripheral areas like aphasia, where language breakdown can be observed; and the linguist's postulates of universal grammar to be in accordance with what one knows about temporary dysfunctions, such as slips of the tongue (Hickey, 2022). The third attribute of UG disallows the generation of obviously ungrammatical sentences in any language of the world. Rather, grammaticality must be ensured and sustained across languages. Besides, every UG model is required to compulsorily ban rules that are universally impossible.

Given the foregoing, it is quite clear that UG aptly suits this study. The theory considers syntactic rules in universal context and emphasises grammaticality, acceptability, correctness and universality of sentential rules in communication. The essence is to have universally acceptable sentences in communication, which do not distort meaning and generate sentential and communicative inadequacies and issues. Of course, communication is only possible with language use, which is guided or ought to be based on the rules of the language in use. Language is rule-governed and formal communication of all kinds is likewise. Thus, faulty sentences are manifestations of violation of universal syntactic rules applicable to acceptable and grammatically correct sentences. Thus, the avoidance of the violation allows for the formation of correct and meaningful sentences, particularly in formal communication.

Methodology

Plausible methods and techniques are employed in sourcing and analysing data. With survey design and observation, faulty sentences, the primary data, are drawn from both oral and written sources for exemplification. The essence is to prove cases of faulty sentences in empirical contexts. Apart from the primary sources, secondary data are sourced from textual library and internet materials. The qualitative method suits the study. Text-content analysis is employed in analysing the sourced primary and secondary data.

Faulty Sentences

In written pieces of communication, the commonest faulty sentences are fragments, run-ons, comma splices, misplaced modifiers, sentence sprawl and faulty parallelism (UNT Writing Center, n.d.). Fragments are incomplete sentences that most often have subjects without predicates. For example, the following structures have subjects without predicates: 'The man who has the costliest cars in this town'; 'Since the menace of cultism cannot be quantified'. A further analogy of these examples of fragments shall be made hereunder. Run-ons are two ungrammatically joined independent clauses. In other words, when two independent clauses are incorrectly joined, run-on is realised. Consider these examples: 'The surgeon carried out the surgical operation the patient died'; 'The police paraded the suspect suddenly shot him dead'; Let's go to Tycoon Hotels they have fine lodging and swimming pool'. A further analogy of the first two examples of run-ons shall be made hereunder.

Comma splices refer to two independent clauses joined by a comma, whereby the way in which they are joined is grammatically unacceptable. Consider these examples: 'The surgeon carried out the surgical operation, the patient died'; 'The police paraded the suspect, suddenly shot him dead'; 'All graduating students ought to pay their departmental levies, otherwise they won't be able to graduate' (All graduating students ought to pay their departmental levies, or they won't [be able to] graduate'). A further analogy of the first two examples of run-ons shall be made hereafter. The above faulty sentences can be changed to the following corrected forms.

Changed Fragments

(i) 'The man who has the costliest cars in this town':

(a) The man has the costliest cars in this town (*remove 'who'*):

(b) The man, who has the costliest cars in this town, was arrested in connection with the cars (*add a predicate*).

(ii) 'Since the menace of cultism cannot be quantified'

(a) The menace of cultism cannot be quantified (*remove 'since'*).

(b) Since the menace of cultism cannot be quantified, strong laws should be made against it by concerned authorities (*add a predicate*).

Changed Run-ons

(i) 'The surgeon carried out the surgical operation the patient died'

(a) After the surgeon carried out the surgical operation, the patient died (*add a conjunction*).

(b) The patient died after the surgeon carried out the surgical operation (*reconstruct using passive voice*).

(c) The surgeon carried out the surgical operation; the patient died (*add a semi-colon*).

(d) The surgeon carried out the surgical operation. The patient died (*create two sentences*).

(ii) 'The police paraded the suspect suddenly shot him dead'

(a) After parading the suspect, the police suddenly shot him dead (*add a conjunction*).

(b) The suspect, paraded by the police, was suddenly shot dead (*use apposition*).

(c) The paraded suspect was suddenly shot dead by the police (*insert auxiliary verb*).

(d) The police paraded the suspect and suddenly shot him dead (*add a conjunction*).

Changed Comma Splices

(i) 'The surgeon carried out the surgical operation, the patient died'

(a) Although the surgeon carried out the surgical operation, the patient died *(add a conjunction*).

(b) The surgeon carried out the surgical operation; the patient died (*joined with a semi-colon*).

(c) The surgeon carried out the surgical operation, but the patient died (add a conjunction).
(d) The surgeon carried out the surgical operation. The patient died (*create two sentences*).

Misplaced Modifiers

Modifiers are words that modify or give more details about nouns or their equivalents in a sentence. Thus, modifiers have to be placed rightly in order to avoid misplacement. When they are not placed accordingly in their supposed or commonly accepted places in sentences, there is a case of misplaced modifiers, which indicate faulty sentences in communication. When misplaced, they wrongly modify other nouns in the sentences. Modifiers are usually or mostly placed next to the nouns or noun equivalents that they modify in sentences.

Compound words, such as *white* house, *greenhouse* gas, *marker* board, *green* purse, etc., have the italicised words as their modifiers, because they tell more about the nouns (house, board and purse) respectively. Consider these examples: 'Dusty and bleak the camel walked along the trail' (right version: 'The camel walked along the bleak and dusty trail'); 'The lady dirty oozing is beautiful' ('The dirty and oozing lady is beautiful').

Sentence Sprawl

This is a category of faulty sentences, whereby multiple (three or more) independent clauses are joined together with conjunctions in such a way that confusion arises for the audience, because the sentence is very long. Student essays and other academic write-ups are largely characterised be sentence sprawl. Consider this example:

'I waited for him but he never showed up I had no other option than to go and I was worried because I had missed him for some time.' This faulty long sentence can be rewritten as follows:

(a) I waited for him, but he never showed up. I was worried, because I had missed him for some time, but had no other option than to go.
(b) The long sentence can be rewritten viz:

I waited for him.
He never showed up.
I had no other option than to go.
I was worried.
I had missed him for some time.

Faulty Parallelism

This type of faulty sentence involves grammatical parallelism, whereby things are kept grammatically alike, as in using all verbs when listing items or beginning all sentences with a noun. Consider examples:

(i) The objectives of this study are to:

(a) Make an exposition of the implications of faulty sentences in communication;
(b) Explain with instances types of faulty sentences;
(c) Show how faulty sentences obtain in sentences.

(ii) I am coming to:

- Help you sweep
- Cook
- Wash
- Plait

In the example given above, each of the bullets is a verb. Grammatical parallelism also obtains at sentence level of grammatical constructions. For example, 'it is better to laugh than crying.' Here, 'to laugh' is a to-infinitive verb (to + laugh), 'crying' is a gerund. Both 'to-verbs' and gerunds (gerundial verbs) act as nouns. They are nominal nouns – verbs accorded grammatical status and functions of nouns. Gerunds are 'ing' verbs serving as nominal nouns. As such, for the above sentence to be correctly made grammatically parallel, it has to be written thus:

It is better to laugh than to cry.
To laugh is better than to cry.
Laughing is better than crying.

Implications of Faulty Sentences in Communication

Effective communication involves effective use of language along with its applicable rules and the principles of communication (Nwankwegu & Nwode, 2012). Thus, faulty sentences are constraints to effective communication. These sentences also show that the communication involving them is ineffective. Besides following the applicable rules and principles, effective communication involves using the right lexicons according to the context of the communication (Nwankwegu & Nwode, 2012; Andras & Charlton, 2006). Andras and Charlton (2006) have noted that faulty communication occurs in organisations, when unfitting lexicon of a system's language is used. They give the following example:

...In human language the pronunciation of a meaningless phoneme such as 'belf' in the context of 'I am wearing a belf to keep my trousers up' is a faulty communication in English, since 'belf' is not a word. Similarly, the phoneme combination 'belch' would be a faulty communication in the context of 'I am wearing a belch to keep my trousers up' since, although belch is a word, a belch cannot be worn, and there is zero probability of producing this word in this context according to the grammar of English communication (Andras & Charlton, 2006, pp. 9-10).

In addition, they point out that faulty communication leads to the discontinuity of communication, misunderstanding and context errors (Andras & Charlton, 2006). Matters arising from the errors or faults in communication have traces to faulty sentences or lexicons that misled, misinformed and/or *disinformed* the audience (Cialdini, 2009; Buchanan, 2020). That is because the faults or errors were expressed in sentences. Andras and Charlton (2006) are of the opinion that faulty communication can also have positive

consequence of systemic adaptability. Although their focus and reference are on computer as well as phenomenal system, they lend credence to ours on human. In our case, we argue that liberal, adaptive, innovative and willing-to-learn persons are bound to adjust and get adapted to the correct forms of their faulty sentential constructions, upon being corrected or self-made corrections. Yet, as Andras and Charlton (2006) point out, all systems have maladaptive features and exhibit them at one time or the other. It follows that in our case under study, faulty sentences and other communication faults or errors arise in part from human's internal maladaptive systems of communication.

Faulty sentences have a lot of grave implications for effective communication. They mar effective communication. That is because the meanings of the sentences are distorted, lost, concealed or ruptured by the blunder(s) making them faulty. They cause confusion. Comprehension difficulty is another problem as well as implication of faulty sentences in communication. Solecism arises from faulty sentences. The order of sentential elements is destroyed or ruptured. Some grammatical elements are left hanging and their functions hampered. The morphology of the sentence or the entire piece of communication is destructively affected. Effective communication is not realised where faulty sentences obtain. They transfer errors to learners, because the learners in contact with the piece might assume the sentences to be correct and subsequently write or make such sentences. Such sentences display the linguistic incompetence of the encoder– the speaker/writer.

Mixed messages are conveyed by faulty sentences, even against the initial intention of the speaker or the writer. Since the sentences are misunderstood, because of the grammatical faults, misinterpretation arises. As Andras and Charlton, 2006) lend credence to this study, incorrect descriptions of whatever subject matter or content of communication often lead to the incorrectness of what is intended, what comes afterwards as the end results and what is decoded from the encoded message(s) in the incorrect descriptions or faulty sentences. Where communication follows language rules and communicative principles, faulty sentences do not obtain. The reason is that by following the applicable language rules and communicative principles, faulty sentences are avoided.

According to Nwala (2008, p. 127), 'the knowledge of the syntax of a language gives one the linguistic competence to know which words in a sentence 'go with' or 'modify' which other words; when to use certain words and when not to. By implication, faulty sentences are an in indication of poor or lack of the knowledge or mastery of the syntax of a language. The said knowledge (Nwala, 2008, p. 127) makes it possible for one to adhere strictly to rules of grammatical concord and other syntactic rules (e.g. insertion, elision, conversion, binding and theta rules). Certainly, one who is knowledgeable in the syntax of a language would seldom form faulty sentences. At least, the person is most often mindful of what to construct. As such, it is appropriate to attain mastery knowledge of the syntax of a language in order to be able to construct faultless sentences. One also has to read and reread, spot out blemishes and duly revise sentences written out. In the case of unwritten speeches, one as to do so very fast deep within self in the mental faculty, while generating the sentences,

before emitting them. Faulty sentences also reveal the violation of the syntactic principles of well-*formedness*, acceptability, conformity, correctness and grammaticality.

There are barriers to communication, which interfere with information (message or communicative content) transmission, comprehension and acceptance. The three basic barriers are the deficiencies of the sender, the deficiencies of the listener and inappropriate means of communication. In the case of this study, faulty sentences indicate the senders' deficiencies in grammar and syntax of the language in use for the communication. The communication barriers from the sender include violation of language rules and communicative principles, faulty sentences, wrong diction resulting in badly encoded messages, poor or lack of planning, lack of clarity and ambiguity, difference in perception, wrong choice of channel, etc. The barriers to communication from the receiver include poor listening, lack of interest, difference in perception, and biased attitude, among others. And, the channel-based barriers include noise, wrong selection of medium, technical defects, etc.

Of the above noted three barriers, the focus of this paper is on those from the sender of communicative content. See attached appendix, after the reference section for graphic representation of the barriers to communication. For Pfeiffer (1998, pp. 2-5), the barriers to effective communication are: preoccupation, emotional blocks, hostility, charisma, past experiences, hidden agendas, inarticulateness, stereotyping, physical environment, mind wandering, defensiveness, relationships, and status. Since the meanings of these identified barriers are self-explanatory (as the words suggest), this paper leaves out the task of doing so. It should be noted that these barriers reflect or tally with the commonly mentioned ones, which are given above in three basic folds.

Sending and receiving messages (i.e., communicative content) are said to be seen or made manifest in forms of pictures, attitudes, communication skills, and the frame of reference (Chartier, 1998, pp. 23-25). Among these, communication skills are of concern to this paper in that faulty sentences imply poor communication skills in the communicator who has the faulty sentences. Some of the major considerations to make in communication in order to make it effective are the context of communication, the kind of message to pass across, and the seven principles for increasing accuracy and clarity of encoded messages (Chartier, 1998, pp. 25-26). The seven principles are principles of relevance, simplicity, definition, structure, repetition, comparison and contrast, and emphasis (Chartier, 1998, pp. 26-28). The sentential summaries of these seven principles are as follow:

(i) Make the message relevant to the audience– listener/reader.

(ii) Keep ideas reduced to the simplest possible terms.

(iii) Before developing the messages or ideas, define them; explain before amplifying.

(iv) Organise the communicative content into a series of successive stages. That is, make the order or structure of a communicative content (message) to be apparent.

(v) The key concepts of the message should be repeated.

(vi) Relate new and old ideas; associate the known with the unknown.

(vii) The focus should be on the vital aspects of the communication (Chartier, 1998, pp. 26-28).

Conclusion

So far, this study demonstrates that faulty sentences have significant grave implications in communication. As discussed in the body of the work, faulty sentences take varied forms. Poor knowledge of the syntax of the language in use is one major cause of faulty sentences. One who lacks linguistic competence is bound to commit sentential errors. In the case of English Language, many non-native and native speakers alike face difficulties, such as those arising from interference, and intra-language linguistic issues arising from the cumbersome nature and features of English and so on. The emergence of new media language with its writing style has worsened the occurrence of faulty sentences, as many young users import the informal ways of forming sentences on the new media to formal writing. On the whole, the study submits that faulty sentences imply the violation of syntactic and grammatical rules and communication principles. Besides, they constitute barriers to communication, as communication issues arise from faulty sentences in written and oral communication alike. The study charges individuals to learn and master how good, acceptable and correct (i.e. faultless) sentences are formed, and to duly internalise syntactic rules and principles of effective communication.

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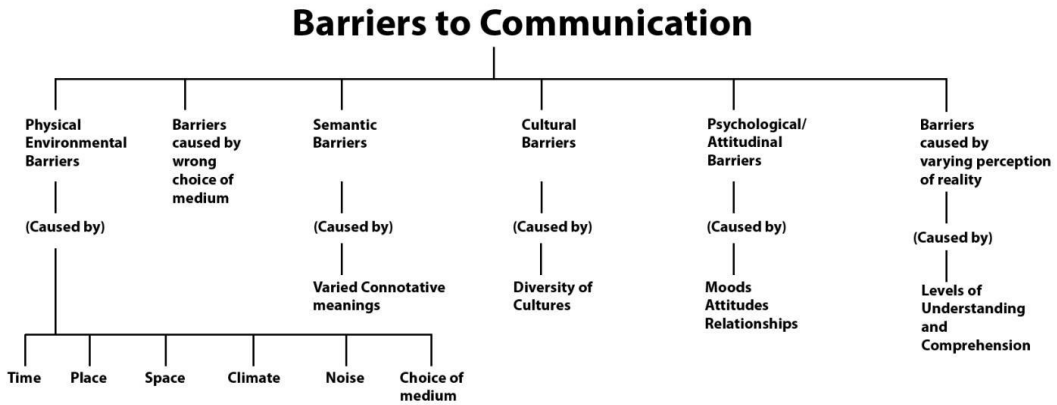
Appendix