



O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI  
OLIV VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI

NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

Ingliz tili o'qitish metodikasi kafedrası

**Til aspektlari amaliyoti**

FANINIDAN  
O'QUV-USLUBIY MAJMUA

2020/2021 o'quv yili kunduzgi ta'lim shakli, 2-kurslari uchun



**Bilim sohasi: 100000 – gumanitar**

**Ta'lim sohasi: 110000 – pedagogika**

**Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 5111400 – xorijiy til va adabiyot (ingliz tili)**

**NAMANGAN-2021/22**

O'quv-uslubiy majmua O'R OO'MTV tomonidan №BD5111400-2.07 raqami bilan 27.06.2018 yilda ro'yhatga olinib tasdiqlangan «5111400 - Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz tili)» ta'lim yo'nalishi na'munaviy fan dasturiga hamda «5111400 – Xorijiy til va adabiyot (ingliz tili)» ta'lim yo'nalishi o'quv dasturi va o'quv rejasiga muvofiq ishlab chiqildi.

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O'quv-uslubiy majmua Ingliz tili o'qitish metodikasi kafedrasining 2021 yil 25 avgustdagi 1-sonli yig'ilishida muhokamadan o'tgan va fakultet Kengashida ko'rib chiqish uchun tavsiya etilgan.

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O'quv-uslubiy majmua Ingliz filologiyasi fakultetining 2021 yil 27 avgustdagi 1-sonli Kengashida ko'rib chiqilgan va foydalanishga tavsiya etilgan.

**Fakultet dekani:**

**f.f.n., dots. Q.A.Sidiqov**

## MUNDARIJA

### 1. MA'RUZA VA AMALIY MASHG'ULOTLAR

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### 2. ILOVALAR

.....

#### 2.1. Mustaqil ta'lim mashg'ulotlari

.....

#### 2.2. Glossary

.....

#### 2.3. Fan dasturi

.....

#### 2.4. Ishchi o'quv dastur

.....

#### 2.5. Tarqatma materiallar va keyslar to'plami

.....

#### 2.6. Testlar

.....

# AMALIY MASHG‘ULOTLAR

## DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

### Lesson 1

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Introduction to the course: Characteristics of different types of genres</i>	
<b>Time:</b> 2 hours	<b>The number of students:</b> 15-16
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of spoken and written English discourse.</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze naturally occurring spoken data using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand the different modes of discourse and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce with the theme of the lesson ;</li> <li>2. To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up.</li> <li>3. To work with the vocabulary of topic;</li> <li>4. To give definition to the terms;</li> <li>5. To get information from the texts;.</li> </ol>	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. To apply this ability to the analysis of spoken texts;</li> <li>3. To demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of spoken and written discourse,</li> <li>4. To apply that knowledge in analyzing different types of naturally occurring texts,</li> <li>5. To transcribe and analyse a spoken text using one more approaches to discourse analysis covered in the course.</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 1.

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	Students
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Greets the students and introduces the course syllabus of writing and assessment specifications</li> <li>2. Barinstorms students with giving questions like: What is the language saying? What is the language doing?</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students get information about the course syllabus of writing and assessment specifications and make notes about the course.</li> <li>2. Answer the questions</li> </ol>

	<p>What is the language being?          What is its significance?          What is language practicing?          How do I identify the language?          What relationship do I have with language?          Is the language political?          What connections are being made?          What knowledge do I personally hold about the symbols?</p>	
<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students to discuss the concept of “discourse” as the “full text, oral or written, delivered at a specific time or place or delivered at several instances”  <b>DISCOURSE ANALYSIS</b> is the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse. Put simply, in discourse analysis we are interested in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Who is talking to whom about what?</li> <li>• Why?</li> <li>• What is their purpose?</li> <li>• What effect are they trying to have?</li> </ul> <p>T explains and gives definition of discourse based on different language sources (Handout 1)</p> <p>2.2 Introduces objectives of discourse analysis (Handout 2)</p> <p>2.3 Gives some information on notion and some peculiarities of Discourse Analysis and its applying in linguistics. (handout 3)</p> <p>2.4. Introduces each aim of discourse, and which part of the triangle it corresponds to</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Referential- subject matter           <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Exploratory- asks a question</li> <li>- Informative- answers a question</li> <li>-Scientific- proves the answer</li> </ul> </li> <li>b. Persuasive/Rhetoric- dominated by “decoder”- reader- focused on eliciting a specific response from the reader</li> <li>c. Expressive- dominated by design of the “encoder” to discharge his emotions or achieve his own reality or embody his personal or group aspirations</li> <li>d. Literary- focus of the product as an object worthy of being appreciated in its own right</li> </ol> <p>2.5. Discusses the modes of discourse</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Narration</li> <li>b. Description</li> <li>c. Exposition</li> <li>d. Argument</li> </ol> <p>2.7 Will have the students get aware of the form of spoken and written discourse</p> <p>2.8. Will have students break into four</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about the notion of discourse</p> <p>2.2 Be aware of some notions on objectives of discourse analysis</p> <p>2.3 Get information on applying the notion ‘discourse analysis’ in linguistics</p> <p>2.4 Discuss the modes of discourse</p> <p>2.5 Do the activities.</p>

	groups and brainstorm different examples of each aim of discourse	
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	<p>3.1 Record and transcribe a 5-10 minute conversation between two or three people. What can you say about the following characteristics?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Topic</li> <li>- Purpose or function</li> <li>- Setting</li> <li>- Participants and their relationship</li> <li>- Message form and content</li> </ul>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

### **Handout 1. What is discourse itself? Definitions.**

For Cook (1989: 1) « Discourse Analysis examines how stretches of language, considered in their full textual, social, and psychological context, become meaningful and unified for their users.»

On the other hand, Brown and Yule (1983:1) state « ...the analysis of discourse, is necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs.»

For Fairclough (1989:23), there is a reciprocity between language and society: «Language is a part of society; linguistic phenomena are social phenomena of a special sort, and social phenomena are linguistic phenomena.»

#### **1. From The American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language:**

- n. Verbal expression in speech or writing.
- n. Verbal exchange; conversation.
- n. A formal, lengthy discussion of a subject, either written or spoken.
- n. Archaic The process or power of reasoning.
- intransitive v. To speak or write formally and at length.
- intransitive v. To engage in conversation or discussion; converse.
- transitive v. Archaic To narrate or discuss.

#### **2. From Dictionary:**

- n. Verbal exchange, conversation.
- n. Expression in words, either speech or writing.

- n. A formal lengthy exposition of some subject, either spoken or written.
- n. Any rational expression, reason.
- n. An institutionalized way of thinking, a social boundary defining what can be said about a specific topic (after Michel Foucault).
- v. To engage in discussion or conversation; to converse.
- v. To write or speak formally and at length.
- v. (transitive) To debate.

### **3. From the GNU version of the Collaborative International Dictionary of English:**

- n. The power of the mind to reason or infer by running, as it were, from one fact or reason to another, and deriving a conclusion; an exercise or act of this power; reasoning; range of reasoning faculty.
- n. Conversation; talk.
- n. The art and manner of speaking and conversing.
- n. Consecutive speech, either written or unwritten, on a given line of thought; speech; treatise; dissertation; sermon, etc..
- n. Dealing; transaction.
- intransitive v. To exercise reason; to employ the mind in judging and inferring; to reason.
- intransitive v. To express one's self in oral discourse; to expose one's views; to talk in a continuous or formal manner; to hold forth; to speak; to converse.
- intransitive v. To relate something; to tell.
- intransitive v. To treat of something in writing and formally.
- transitive v. To treat of; to expose or set forth in language.
- transitive v. To utter or give forth; to speak.
- transitive v. To talk to; to confer with.

### **4. From The Century Dictionary and Encyclopedia:**

- n. A running over a subject in speech; hence, a communication of thoughts by words; expression of ideas; mutual intercourse; talk; conversation.
- n. A running over in the mind of premises and deducing of conclusions; the exercise of, or an act of exercising, the logical or reasoning faculty; hence, the power of reasoning from premises; rationality.
- n. A formal discussion or treatment of a subject; a dissertation, treatise, homily, sermon, or the like: as, the discourse of Plutarch on garrulity, of Cicero on old age; an eloquent discourse.
- n. Debate; contention; strife.
- n. Intercourse; dealing; transaction.
- To hold discourse; communicate thoughts or ideas orally, especially in a formal manner; treat in a set manner; hold forth; expatiate; converse: as, to discourse on the properties of the circle; the preacher discoursed on the nature and effect of faith.
- To treat of or discuss a subject in a formal manner in writing.
- To narrate; give a relation; tell.
- To reason; argue from premises to consequences.
- To treat of; talk over; discuss.
- To utter or give forth.
- To talk or confer with.
- n. That sort of mental operation, performed by one person or by several, in which a line of thought is followed out.

### **Etymologies**

Middle English *discours*, *process of reasoning*, from Medieval Latin *discursus*, from Latin, *a running about*, from past participle of *discurrere*, *to run about* : *dis-*, *apart*; see *dis-* + *currere*, *to run*; see *kers-* in Indo-European roots.

(American Heritage® Dictionary of the English Language, Fourth Edition)

Either from French *discours*, or a direct alteration of Late Latin *discursus* («the act of running about»), itself from *discurrō* («run about»), from *dis-* («apart») + *currō* («run»). (Wiktionary)

**Handout 2. All forms of discourse will involve an interaction between these four elements, which means that there will be overlap between the aims of discourse.**

1. **Expressive Discourse** focuses on the “encoder” or writer. Examples:

Of the Individual

Conversations, Journals, Diaries, Prayers

Of Social

Minority protests, manifestos, declarations of independence, personal contracts, religious credos

2. **Referential Discourse** will focus mainly on the “reality” or subject. Examples:

Exploratory

Dialogues, seminars, proposing a solution to a problem

Scientific

Proving a point by arguing from accepted premises, such as research paper

Informative

News articles, summaries, reports, non-technical encyclopedia articles, textbooks

3. **Literary Discourse** will focus mainly on the “signal,” or the piece of writing itself. Examples

Short story, lyric, narrative, limerick, ballad/folk song, drama, television show, movie

4. **Persuasive Discourse** will focus mainly on the decoder, or the writer. Examples:

Advertising, political speeches, religious sermons, legal oratory, editorials

### **Some types of spoken discourse**

It is not an easy job to predict all types of spoken discourse because a person encounters different types of speech even within a single day. Conversations vary in their settings and degree of structuredness. Some types of speech are as follows:

*Telephone calls* (Business and private)

*Classroom* (Classes, lectures, tutorials, seminars)

*Interviews* (Jobs, journalistic, in official settings)

*Service encounters* (Hotels, ticket offices, shops, etc.)

*Rituals* (Prayers, sermons, weddings)

*Language-in-action* (Talk accompanying doing: fixing, cooking, demonstrating, assembling, etc.)

*Monologues* (Strangers, relatives, friends)

*Organizing and directing people* (Work, home, in the street)

### **Some types of written discourse**

Everyday people come into contact with written texts and interpret their meanings so as to get what they intend. We can never think of a literate man who never writes or tries to write something. Like spoken discourse, written discourse is also of many kinds as:

*Newspaper*

*Poem*

*Letter to/from friend*

*Business letter*

*Instruction leaflet*

*Literary publication*

*Public notice*

*Academic article*

*Small ads*

It is certain that most people will read more of the text types mentioned above than actually write them. Both spoken and written discourse perform different functions in society, use



different forms, and exhibit different linguistic characteristics.

Discourse analysis is an attempt to discover linguistic regularities in discourse using grammatical, phonological and semantic criteria e.g. cohesion, anaphora, inter sentence connectivity etc. It is an effort to interpret what the writer or speaker intended to convey with in a sensitive social context.

**Example:**

*Father: Is that your coat on the floor again?*

*Son: yes (goes on reading)*

Here in the above example Discourse Analysis says that the answer of the son is not clear one. It shows the exploitation of ambiguity about father's command to pick up his coat. Rather the son deals his father's command as a simple content question which can be answered in yes /no.

Discourse Analysis is a process in which the reader and listener's mind is working up on the linguistic features of the utterance to grasp the intended meaning of the writer or speaker.

Even if the utterances or sentences are ungrammatical the Discourse Analysis makes us grasp the intended meaning.

**Example:**

*My natal was in a small town, very close to Riyadh capital of Saudi Arabia. The distance between my town and Riadh 7 miles exactly. The name of this Almasani that means in English factories. It takes its name from the people carrer. In childhood I remember the people live. It was very simple most the people was farmer.*

The above paragraph is full of grammatical mistakes since by Discourse Analysis of this text we can grasp mostly what are the informations the writer wants to communicate.

Discourse concerns with communication so Discourse Analysis gives us the interpretation of the communicated commodity.

- We analyze and investigate all those features of that are part of the total communicative act: context of utterance, relationships, mode of discourse and so on
- Conversational behavior is observed
- Conventions of conversation (turn-taking)
- Strategies for beginning and ending a conversation
- How topics appear and disappear
- How different speech acts (e.g. politeness) are performed
- To establish underlying norms of conversation

**Activity 1. Spoken and written discourse**

The teacher can choose any piece of informative written discourse that serves the main objective(s) of the lesson. In addition, through the same text, the teacher can highlight other aspects of written English like punctuations or capitalization depending on the age and the level of the students. For instance, a passage about a certain topic, e.g. famous sites in the world "Statue of Liberty", can be chosen to teach the passive voice in context as well as developing other language skills.

**Reading**

- Students practice reading the text.
- Students learn some information about the history of the "Statue of Liberty" and develop comprehension.
- Through reading the text, students learn the passive voice inductively and see how it is employed in context.
- Students learn new vocabulary.

**Speaking**

- As a warm-up, the teacher can start by asking students about the “Statue of Liberty”, e.g. ask questions about its location, history, etc.
- As a post activity, students can discuss in pairs or as a class other famous sites with an emphasis on using the passive.

### **Listening**

- Through engaging in discussions, learners have the opportunity to listen to each other speaking. While students are working in pairs, the teacher may ask each partner to write down notes, like misuse of the passive, as a form of peer review.

### **Writing**

- Students may be asked to choose a famous sight, gather information, and write an essay/paragraph about it. It can be assigned as homework.

## **Spoken Discourse**

The teacher can adopt any material of English spoken discourse, e.g. TV interview, that serves the point of the lesson and suits the level of the learners. It is important for the teacher to provide a written copy of the listening material after practicing listening several times in order for the learners to write notes and go back for it later whenever needed.

### **Listening**

- After introducing the topic, learners listen to/watch the TV interview several times.
- Learners get familiar with the English intonation, stress, pausing and other characteristics of the spoken language.
- Learners get the chance to listen to expressions, phrasal verbs, and grammatical structures used in real-life context.

### **Speaking**

- After listening several times, the teacher can design a speaking activity, like working in pairs or groups of three to analyze, discuss, report, or debate what they have listened to. The teacher should monitor students’ use of suprasegmentals, grammar and use of expressions.

### **Writing**

- Learners can be assigned to write a paragraph or essay, like a reflection or their opinions, about a certain point in the listening section.

### **Reading**

- As a peer review, students can exchange papers, read each others’ writing and write comments, if necessary, for improvement.

### *History of the Statue of Liberty*



The Statue of Liberty was originally known as Liberty Enlightening the World. It was given to the United States by France to celebrate their alliance during the Revolutionary War. A sculptor by the name of Frédéric Auguste Bartholdi designed the statue, and Gustave Eiffel (the man who designed the Eiffel Tower) was responsible for the iron framework underneath the copper plating.

The statue was built in Paris and then shipped to the U.S. in 1885. Various parts of the statue were on display throughout Paris as they were completed. Miss Liberty's head was exhibited in the gardens at the Tracadéro, and her torch was on display as well, as you can observe in the images on this page.

### *When was the Statue of Liberty built?*



Construction began in 1875 and was not completed until 1884. Crews worked round the clock, seven days a week, for nine years to finish the Statue of Liberty. When it was complete in 1885, the statue was disassembled into 350 pieces, shipped to New York City, and reassembled. It took 4 months just to put the Statue of Liberty together again!

The Statue of Liberty was officially dedicated and unveiled on October 28, 1886.

*How much did the Statue of Liberty cost to build?*



A collection was taken up in France to fund the statue, raising 2,250,000 francs (\$250,000 U.S. dollars). It doesn't look like much, but \$250,000 in the 19th century would be the same as millions of dollars today. Both the U.S. and France participated in fundraising activities, and it took a very long time to raise enough money to finish construction.

*What does the Statue of Liberty represent?*

The Statue of Liberty represents many things, among them friendship between nations and freedom from oppression. Before air travel, ships would sail into New York Harbor and Lady Liberty would welcome their passengers, many of them being immigrants traveling to the United States for the first time. Lady Liberty is one of the first sites when sailing into the harbor, and she is symbolic of freedom.

*Why is the Statue of Liberty important?*

Historically, the Statue of Liberty is important because she was given to the U.S. by France to celebrate America's first 100 years as a nation. It commemorates the alliance between France and the U.S. during the Revolutionary War.



Lady Liberty's classic stature, face, and attire come from the Roman goddess Libertas, who also represents freedom from tyranny and oppression. The crown is reminiscent of a halo and its spikes show similarities to those of the sun gods--the Roman Apollo, and the Greek Helios. Her right foot is raised as if she is continually on the move, forever bringing freedom to others.

Lady carries enlightenment to the world with the forever-lit torch (Liberty's original name was Liberty Enlightening the World). Along with tools, the ability to create fire is one of the skills that led to civilization as we know it. Fire is symbolic of knowledge and brings light to the people.

*Where is the Statue of Liberty located?*

The statue stands on Liberty Island in New York Harbor, but the location of the Statue of Liberty has not always been so clear. Originally, the island was known as Bedloe Island and was officially renamed in 1956. Before Lady Liberty inhabited the island, it was home to Fort Wood. The fort was built in the shape of an eleven-point star, upon which the statue and pedestal now sit.



The island itself has had quite a history: it was a quarantine station for smallpox victims in the 18th century, a summer home for the Earl of Cassils, a rental property, a place for Tory refugees, a lighthouse, and finally, a defensive fort.

The Statue of Liberty is closer to New Jersey than New York and, in fact, resides in New Jersey's waters. However, it has been established as part of the 8th Congressional District of New York according to the U.S. Geological Survey. New Jersey has never claimed rights to the island.

### Lesson 2

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Characteristics of scientific genre</i>	
<b>Time:</b> 2 hours	<b>The number of students:</b> 15-16
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of spoken and written texts of English discourse. 2. To have students understand the different texts of discourse and how they relate to the aims.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> 1.To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; 2. To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. 3. To work with the vocabulary of topic; 4. To give definition to the terms; 5. To get information from the texts;..	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> 1. To be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. To apply this ability to the analysis of spoken texts; 3. To demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of spoken and written discourse texts, 4. To apply that knowledge in analyzing different types of naturally occurring texts,
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 2

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students and introduces the course syllabus of writing and assessment specifications 2. Brainstorms the students with giving questions What is text? How is the text analyzed? Give examples for text analyze	1. Students answer the questions

<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students the theme: Text analyze  A text is effective if it succeeds in achieving its purpose. The purpose of a text can be anything from the communication of factual information to convincing the audience of the validity of certain opinions. In all cases, the communicative effectiveness can be judged in two broad areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Whether the text lays out its experiential content in the best possible way for the receiver to follow easily.</li> <li>• Whether the text satisfies the expectations of its register in terms of its Field, Mode and Tenor.</li> </ul> <p>A text is effective if it is suitable to the register of which it claims to be an instance. This includes:</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about text analyse</p> <p>2.2 Know about linking adverbials link meanings together across larger units of text, such as from one sentence to another or from one paragraph to another.</p> <p>2.3 Do the activities.</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Field: A text is effective if the Field as constructed by the text is identical to the Field intended for the text. In other words, a text is effective if it appears to be “about” what it is meant to be “about”.</li> <li>• Mode: A text is effective if it displays the characteristics of its intended mode. For example, a scientific journal is deemed effective if it constructs its mode in accordance with the customs of scientific articles, namely with low interactivity and low spontaneity.</li> <li>• Tenor: A text is effective if it constructs the expected tenor for the participants. For example a political speech is deemed effective if its tenor is such that the speaker appears confident about the information presented. A speech where the speaker comes across as uncertain would be judged as ineffective.</li> </ul> <p>Lexical cohesive devices:</p> <p>Repetition of wording: Sometimes the repeated word may be morphologically different, such as “age” – “aged” – “ageing”.</p> <p>Plain repetition is frowned upon in some registers such as fiction where lexical variation is valued.</p> <p>Repetition of meaning, worded differently:</p> <p>Synonymy (different words with the same meaning)</p> <p>Literary metaphor</p> <p>Co-reference, e.g. “Donaghy” – “the Chelsea veteran” – “the 35- year old Belfast man”.</p>	

	<p>(handout 1)</p> <p>2.2 Introduces Linking adverbials link meanings together across larger units of text, such as from one sentence to another or from one paragraph to another.</p> <p>The following semantic categories of linking adverbials can be recognized:</p> <p>Enumeration: first, second, finally, in the first place, in the second place, for one thing, for another, first of all, to begin with, next.</p> <p>Addition: in addition, similarly, also, by the same token, further, furthermore, likewise, moreover.</p> <p>Summation: in sum, to conclude, all in all, in conclusion, overall, to summarize.</p> <p>Apposition (shows that the following text is equivalent to, or included in, the preceding text): in other words, i.e. (= that is), e.g. (= for example), viz. (= namely), which is to say, that is to say, for instance, specifically.</p> <p>Result/inference: consequently, thus, therefore, so, then, hence, as a result.</p> <p>Contrast: in contrast, alternatively, on the other hand, conversely, instead, on the contrary, by comparison.</p> <p>Concession (shows that the following text expresses something contrary to the expectations raised by the preceding text): though, nevertheless, anyway, besides, still, in any case, at any rate, in spite of that, after all, yet.</p> <p>Transition (shows that the following text is only loosely connected, or completely unconnected, to the previous text): by the way, incidentally, by the by, meanwhile</p>	
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses the differences in layout and language between informal and informal letters. (indentation, the use of contracted verb forms, the use of phrasal verbs and idiomatic language, etc.)</p> <p>3.2 Will have students write an informal letter choosing one of the suggested topics.</p> <p>3.3. Let the students to create their own checklist or rubric for evaluating their letters. (Handout 3)</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

### Handout 1. Text Analysis

A text is effective if it succeeds in achieving its purpose. The purpose of a text can be anything from the communication of factual information to convincing the audience of the validity of certain opinions. In all cases, the communicative effectiveness can be judged in two broad areas:

- Whether the text lays out its experiential content in the best possible way for the receiver to follow easily.
- Whether the text satisfies the expectations of its register in terms of its Field, Mode and Tenor.

### **Suitability to register**

A text is effective if it is suitable to the register of which it claims to be an instance. This includes:

- **Field:** A text is effective if the Field as constructed by the text is identical to the Field intended for the text. In other words, a text is effective if it appears to be “about” what it is meant to be “about”.
- **Mode:** A text is effective if it displays the characteristics of its intended mode. For example, a scientific journal is deemed effective if it constructs its mode in accordance with the customs of scientific articles, namely with low interactivity and low spontaneity.
- **Tenor:** A text is effective if it constructs the expected tenor for the participants. For example a political speech is deemed effective if its tenor is such that the speaker appears confident about the information presented. A speech where the speaker comes across as uncertain would be judged as ineffective.

### **Handout 2. Cohesion**

A text is coherent if it “makes sense” in the wisest possible meaning of the phrase: if it fits the receiver’s expectations, previous knowledge and cultural knowledge.

Coherence can be achieved by:

- Usage of cohesive devices such as repetition, linking adverbials, etc. Cohesive devices are dealt with in the rest of this text.
- Even in the absence of cohesive devices, the receiver can use their cultural knowledge etc. to construct a coherent interpretation for themselves. For example:

Ann: “Brian! Phone!” [coherent interpretation: ‘Brian, answer the phone!']

Brian: “I’m in the bath!” [coherent interpretation: ‘I can’t answer it.’]

Ann: “Okay”.

Cohesive devices can be divided into two broad categories: clause cohesion and logical cohesion.

#### **Clause cohesion**

Some cohesive devices are used to keep track of participants, circumstances, etc. from one clause to another. Each time a participant etc. is referred to in a text, it is either a presenting reference or a presuming reference.

- Presenting references introduce new participants into the text.
- Presuming references refer to existing participants. A presuming reference presumes that the reader will be able to retrieve the referent from previous text or from context. Presuming references are used to achieve cohesion.

The following devices are used for participant cohesion:

- Lexical cohesive devices:
  - Repetition of wording: Sometimes the repeated word may be morphologically different, such as “age” – “aged” – “ageing”. Plain repetition is frowned upon in some registers such as fiction where lexical variation is valued.
  - Repetition of meaning, worded differently:
  - Synonymy (different words with the same meaning)
  - Literary metaphor
  - Co-reference, e.g. “Donaghy” – “the Chelsea veteran” – “the 35- year old Belfast man”. Often used in news not only as a cohesive device but also as a vehicle to communicate additional information about the referent.

- Relexicalization, when a meaning is repeated with different words and at the same the meaning is altered, for example:

A: “Do you work on Saturdays?”

B: “Well I sometimes float in on Saturdays...”

Here, B has relexicalized the original meaning “work on Saturdays” into “float in Saturdays”, putting a more casual “spin” on it.

Introduction of a related meaning:

- Antonymy (words with opposite meanings)
  - Hyponymy: referring to a class and its subclass.
  - Co-hyponymy: referring to two members of the same class.
  - Meronymy: referring to a whole and its part.
  - Co-meronymy: referring to two parts of the same whole.
- Grammatical cohesive devices:

Personal pronouns (“he”): particularly common in certain types of fiction.

- Possessive pronouns (“Is the book hers?”)
- Demonstrative pronouns (“Those are difficult”)
- Definite articles (“the book”)
- Demonstrative determiners (“this argument”): especially common in scientific writing where precision of reference is valued.
- Possessive determiners (“his book”)
- Comparatives (“the other book”): The identity of the presumed referent can be retrieved not because it has already been mentioned but because a different, comparable item has already been mentioned.
- Place adverbials (“Here we see the main argument”)
- Time adverbials (“Back then, times were hard”)

Each reference can be more or less direct, depending on how much work is required on the reader’s part to work out who the referent is. An indirect reference may lead to

**reference-retrieval problems.**

Each presumed reference may refer to something that has been mentioned already (**anaphora**, backward reference), to something that is yet to be specified fully (**cataphora**, forward reference) or to a point on time or space (locational reference). Cohesive references effectively set up **reference chains** throughout the text.

### **Handout 3. Logical cohesion**

While clause cohesion is used to keep track of participants from one clause to another, logical cohesion is used to link larger units of meaning into a single coherent text. For example, in an argumentative essay, logical cohesion devices would be used to combine arguments for and against a proposal into a single, easy-to-follow text.

Logical cohesion is usually achieved by linking adverbials. These are similar in function to conjunctions, but the main difference is that:

- Conjunctions link the meanings of clauses together.
- Linking adverbials link meanings together across larger units of text, such as from one sentence to another or from one paragraph to another.

The following semantic categories of linking adverbials can be recognized:

- Enumeration: first, second, finally, in the first place, in the second place, for one thing, for another, first of all, to begin with, next.
- Addition: in addition, similarly, also, by the same token, further, furthermore, likewise, moreover.
- Summation: in sum, to conclude, all in all, in conclusion, overall, to summarize.



- Apposition (shows that the following text is equivalent to, or included in, the preceding text): in other words, i.e. (= that is), e.g. (= for example), viz. (= namely), which is to say, that is to say, for instance, specifically.
- Result/inference: consequently, thus, therefore, so, then, hence, as a result.
- Contrast: in contrast, alternatively, on the other hand, conversely, instead, on the contrary, by comparison.
- Concession (shows that the following text expresses something contrary to the expectations raised by the preceding text): though, nevertheless, anyway, besides, still, in any case, at any rate, in spite of that, after all, yet.
- Transition (shows that the following text is only loosely connected, or completely unconnected, to the previous text): by the way, incidentally, by the by, meanwhile, now.

### Activity 1 - Text Analysis

**Read the text below and answer the questions at the end.**

#### *The Death of the Full-Time Job*

Today's unemployment numbers are economically uninteresting - but socially fascinating. They show the jobless numbers stabilising, as you'd expected, but the really interesting stuff is hidden away in the details. They show what can only be described as the death of the full-time job. Even as unemployment is stabilising, the number of full-time jobs is still shrinking - and part-time jobs are very much on the rise. And not because we want this new flexibility. The number of people saying that they are working part-time because they couldn't find a full-time job is over 1 million – an astonishing number. There's also quite a jump in the numbers simply opting out of the labour market, especially the young, who self-describe themselves as students. "Student" may well be a convenient euphemism for "unemployed", just as "resting" often is for actors. Whether they will ever get to go on a course or get a job is a moot point.

This all has long-term consequences for the nation, and I suggest it means an even more divided, unequal society. Those who have traditional full-time secure jobs with a pension are increasingly a blessed minority - the rest of the nation is scrabbling away trying to get work where and when they can, with not even paid holidays, let alone a final pension scheme. That also, by the way, means that they will be able to build up less capital over their lives, and banks and building societies will be unwilling or unable under tougher rules to offer mortgage to the newly casualised British worker.

And the poorer you are, the worse the life chances of your children, so these new, deeper inequalities will echo down the generations. The Britain that leaves this recession will look very different from the one that entered it.

(Adapted from an article by Sean O'Grady in *The Independent*, Wednesday, 17 February 2010)

#### *Questions*

1. In line 2 you find *as you'd expected*. Write this sentence without using the contraction.
2. In the first 12-line paragraph, there is a sentence fragment placed between two full stops. Identify it and turn it into the corresponding complete sentence.
3. Why are the words *student* and *resting* placed within inverted commas in line 10?
4. What does the author see as the similarity between *student* and *actor* (lines 10-11)?
5. Find the words and expressions in this text that mean the same as: *become fewer, increasing, choosing not to work, uncertain, fortunate/holy, move quickly about, downturn*.
6. Explain the meaning of *to offer mortgages to the newly casualised British worker* in simpler language (line 19).
7. Which word does *it* (line 22) refer back to?

8. Write a paragraph, based on this article, in which you explain why ‘the death of the full-time job’ will have important consequences for Britain in the future. Use your own words.

### Lesson 3

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Characteristics of newspaper article genre</i>	
<b>Time:</b> 2 hours	<b>The number of students:</b> 15-16
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. To understand the importance of the use of cohesion in text analyse; 2. To identify and explain markers of cohesion in text and concept of coherence; 3. To practice reference in English texts
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> 1.To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; 2. To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. 3. To work with the vocabulary of topic; 4. To give definition to the terms; 5. To get information from the texts;..	<b>The results of teaching activity</b> 1. To be able to identify and explain markers of cohesion in text and concept of coherence 2. To be able to understand the importance of the use of cohesion in text analyse;
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 3

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	Student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students and introduces the course syllabus of writing and assessment specifications 2. Introduces the topic “A Letter to my teacher”.	1. Students get information about the course syllabus of writing and assessment specifications and make notes about the course.
<b>Main part</b>	2.1 Explains what the text is: A text is «a communicative occurrence which meets [...] the standards of textuality (handout 1) 2.2 Introduces students the concept of	2.1 Students get information about the notion of text and textuality

<p><b>of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>“coherence” in English texts. (handout 2): Cohesion, in the linguistic sense of the term, can be defined as the cues that show how sentences are related to other sentences. By using the resources of cohesion to show the relationships between sentences, meaning is created and it facilitates the processing of text. Cohesion can show relationships on various levels: between clauses, between phrases and between words. Cohesion can be used between speaker’s own contributions to a text or across the contributions of speakers which can be an indicator of cooperativeness. In one of his books, <i>Cohesion in English</i>, M.A.K.Halliday introduces and explains cohesion and describes five ways cohesion is created in English: conjunction, reference, ellipsis, substitution and lexical cohesion. (handout 2)  2.3 Speaks about cohesion and coherence (handout 3)  2.4 Explains what reference is and gives examples (handout 4): <b>Reference</b> is cohesion created when «an item in one sentence refers to an item in another sentence  2.5 Explains ellipsis and substitution (handout 5)  2.6 Will have the students do the activities</p>	<p>2.2 Know about the concepts of coherence and cohesion</p> <p>2.3 Get information about reference and its types</p> <p>2.4 Do the activities</p>
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses the differences of cohesion and coherence  3.2 Estimates the activity  3.3 Gives the hometask</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.  3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.  3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

**Handout 1. What is a text?**

• A text is «a communicative occurrence which meets [...] the standards of textuality» (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1983, p. 3).

Standards of textuality:

1. Cohesion «[...] concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence.
2. Coherence «[...] concerns the ways in which the components of the textual world, i.e. the configuration of concepts and relations which underlie the surface text, are mutually accessible and relevant». Coherence is the outcome of cognitive processes among text users (see below).
3. Intentionality «[...] the text producer’s attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer’s intentions, e.g., to distribute knowledge or to attain a goal specified in a plan»

## Handout 2. Cohesion and coherence

As to Halliday and Hasan (1976):

- Cohesion is linguistically explicit and signals underlying semantic relationships between text elements.
- Coherence: underlying organiser which makes the words and sentences into a unified discourse that conforms to a consistent world picture. A coherent text is meaningful, unified, and gives the impression of «hanging together».

Categories of discourse cohesion	
	<b>Reference</b> Arthur's very proud of his <i>Chihuahuas</i> . I don't like <u>them</u> .
<b>Grammatical</b>	<b>Substitution</b> Tell a <i>story</i> . – I don't know <u>one</u> .
	<b>Ellipsis</b> How did you enjoy <i>the paintings</i> ? – A lot (of the <u>paintings</u> ) were very good but not all ( <u>the paintings</u> ).
<b>Lexico-grammatical</b>	<b>Conjunction</b> They thought he didn't believe them. <u>And</u> this was true.
<b>Lexical</b>	<b>Lexical cohesion</b> He met an old <i>lady</i> . The <u>lady</u> was looking at him for a while...

Cohesion, in the linguistic sense of the term, can be defined as the cues that show how sentences are related to other sentences. By using the resources of cohesion to show the relationships between sentences, meaning is created and it facilitates the processing of text. Cohesion can show relationships on various levels: between clauses, between phrases and between words. Cohesion can be used between speaker's own contributions to a text or across the contributions of speakers which can be an indicator of cooperativeness. In one of his books, *Cohesion in English*, M.A.K.Halliday introduces and explains cohesion and describes five ways cohesion is created in English: conjunction, reference, ellipsis, substitution and lexical cohesion.

## Handout 3. Textuality: Cohesion and Coherence

(6) a. John wants to visit his girlfriend. Mr. Smith lives in a small village nearby. The vacuum cleaner didn't work.

The barber down the street couldn't help. The last paper had been sold. It is going to be a long dull talk.

b. John wants to visit his girlfriend. Mary lives in a small village nearby. The car wouldn't start.

The garage down the street couldn't help. The last bus had already left. It is going to be a long hot walk.

- **coherence** connection through non-textual pragmatic knowledge: concepts & relationships must be relevant to each other (e.g. *car-garage*);
- **cohesion**: lexicogrammatical connection through dependency of one textual element on another:

**The store no longer sold porcelain figurines. It used to, but they didn't sell very well...**

A: I have a 6-year old kid.

B: That's all right.

A: I also have a dog.

B: I'm sorry.

- **Relationship between cohesion and coherence:**

A week has seven days. Every day I feed my cat. Cats have four legs. The cat is on the mat. Mat has three letters.

A: Can you go to Vancouver tomorrow?

B: The Air Canada pilots are on strike.

A: Can you go to Vancouver tomorrow?

B: Yes, I can.

- most texts are both coherent and cohesive; however,
- coherence does not have to be accompanied by cohesion ;
- cohesion does not necessarily cause or creates coherence ;
- cohesion is the means whereby to highlight the presence of coherence.

#### **Grammatical cohesive devices:**

- Personal pronouns («he»): particularly common in certain types of fiction,
- Possessive pronouns («Is the book hers?») o Demonstrative pronouns («Those are difficult») o Definite articles («the book»)
- Demonstrative determiners («this argument»): especially common in scientific writing where precision of reference is valued.
- Possessive determiners («his book»)
- Comparatives («the other book»): The identity of the presumed referent can be retrieved not because it has already been mentioned but because a different, comparable item has already been mentioned.
- Place adverbials («Here we see the main argument»)
- Time adverbials («Back then, times were hard»)

Each reference can be more or less direct, depending on how much work is required on the reader's part to work out who the referent is. An indirect reference may lead to **reference-retrieval problems**.

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- Transition (shows that the following text is only loosely connected, or completely unconnected, to the previous text): by the way, incidentally, by the by, meanwhile, now.

### **Relationship between cohesion and coherence**

- Cohesion and coherence are related notions, but they are clearly distinct. There are two types of views concerning their relationship.

A) Cohesion is neither necessary nor sufficient to account for coherence.

A: That's the telephone.

B: I'm in the bath.

A: O.K. (Widdowson, 1978, p. 12)

B) Cohesion is necessary, though not sufficient in the creation of coherent texts. In other words, cohesion is a crucial though not exclusive factor contributing to coherence, since it facilitates the comprehension of underlying semantic relations.

### **Example of text analyse:**

#### **Key:**

L.C.=lexical cohesion / Ref=reference / Ana=anaphoric / Exo=exophoric / Conj=conjunction

### **U.S. customs admit passport mixup**

U.S. border officials admit they've (*Ref-Ana*) made a mistake when two Winnipeg couples were given the wrong passports at a Canadian-U.S. border crossing. The passport mixup (*L.C.: synonym for mistake*) at the border crossing (*L.C.: repetition of border crossing*) near Emerson, Man., was an isolated incident, Chris Misson, a spokesperson for U.S. Customs and Border Protection, told CBC News on Monday.

On Nov. 15, 2010, Huguette and Gilles Remillard were crossing into the United States from Emerson, Man., on their (*Ref-Ana*) way to Mesa, Ariz.

After checking their (*Ref-Ana*) van, an American border official (*L.C.: repetition of border official*) handed them (*Ref-Ana*) back two passports (*L.C.: repetition of passport*). «I (*Ref-Exo*) said, 'Those (*Ref-Ana*) are not mine (*Ref-Exo*),'» Huguette recalled. «And (*Conj*) he (*Ref-Ana*) said, 'Uh oh.'

Border officials (*L.C.*) had mistakenly given their (*Ref-Ana*) passports (*L.C.*) to a couple in the car ahead of them (*Ref-Ana*), who (*Ref-Ana*) had driven off unaware of the error (*L.C.: synonym for mistake*).

The Remillards said U.S. officials (*L.C.*) made no effort to get their (*Ref-Ana*) passports (*L.C.*) back, but (*Conj*) did allow the couple (*L.C.: repetition of couples*) to continue on to Mesa without their (*Ref-Ana*) passports (*L.C.*). »If we (*Ref-Exo*) have an accident and (*Conj*) have to go into the hospital and (*Conj*) fly back, how the heck are we (*Ref-Exo*) going to do this (*Ref-Ana*)?» Gilles wondered.

After a week of calls to border officials (*L.C.*), they (*Ref-Ana*) were able to identify the couple (*L.C.*) with their passports (*L.C.*): Winnipeggers Dennis Slack and Susan Heywood, who (*Ref-Ana*) were on their (*Ref-Ana*) way to Texas.

The Remillards' son managed to track down Dennis Slack's son (*L.C.: repetition of son*), also in Winnipeg. Slack's son (*L.C.*) told his (*Ref-Ana*) father to check his (*Ref-Ana*) passport (*L.C.*).

«I (*Ref-Exo*) pulled them (*Ref-Ana*) out and (*Conj*) said, 'Ahhh, what the hell are these (*Ref-Ana*)?'« said Dennis.

Both couples (*L.C.*) eventually got their (*Ref-Ana*) own passports (*L.C.*) back, but (*Conj*) they (*Ref-Ana*) said U.S officials (*L.C.*) should review their (*Ref-Ana*) security at the border crossing (*L.C.*).

Misson said there has always been a policy to verify the identity of a passport (*L.C.*) holder, but (*Conj*) one border officer made a mistake (*L.C.*) that day.

Officials (*L.C.*) have reviewed the policy (*L.C.: repetition of policy*) with staff and are reminding officers (*L.C.*) to always open each passport (*L.C.*) to verify the owner's identity (*L.C.: repetition of identity*) before handing the document (*L.C.: synonym for passport*) back, he (*Ref-Ana*) said.

#### Handout 4. Reference

- reference refers to the dependent relationship between the referring and the referred in a text;
- the referred item is usually a full NP, a sentence, or a passage;
- the referring item can be pronouns; demonstratives; the article *the*, and *such*.

(13) **The** schoolmaster was leaving **the** village, and **everybody** seemed sorry. **The** miller at Cresscombe lent **him** the small white tilted cart and horse to carry **his** goods to the city of **his** destination, about twenty miles off, **such** a vehicle proving of quite sufficient size for **the** departing teacher's effects.

#### Reference:

- within text > **anaphoric** (backward pointing)
- **cataphoric** (forward pointing)
- outside text > **exophoric** (outward pointing)

Anaphoric reference: backward pointing within text; expressed in several ways:

- **personal pronouns**: referring back to an earlier NP (e.g. (13))
- **it, this, that**: referring to a NP or a situation expressed by a S or a series of Ss:

(14) It rained day and night for two weeks. The basement flooded and everything was under water. **It** spoilt all our calculations.

(15) a. And the living room was a very small room with two windows that wouldn't open and things like that. And **it/?that** looked nice. **It/?That** had a beautiful brick wall.

b. You entered into a tiny little hallway and the kitchen was off **that**.

(16) a. ?Introduction: **It** traces the developments in dialectology in recent years...

b. Introduction: **This** traces...

**Table 2: Comparison between *it*, *that*, and *this* as referring items**

Referential Item	Discourse Function
<i>it</i>	to established topic
<i>that</i>	to refer across different topics
<i>this</i>	to refer to new topic

**Grammatical choices are pragmatically determined.**

**Cataphoric reference:** forward pointing within text; reference to oncoming item in text

(17) **This** is how to get the best results. You let the berries dry in the sun, till all the moisture has gone out of them. Then you gather them up and chop them very fine.

(18) Dear Abby: There's **this** guy I've been going with for near three years. Well, the problem is that *he* hits me. *He* started last year. *He* has done it only four or five times, but each time it was worse than before. Every time *he* hits me it was because *he* thought I was flirting (I wasn't). Last time *he* accused me of coming on to a friend of his. First *he* called me a lot of dirty names, then *he* punched my face so bad it left me with a black eye and black-and-blue bruises over half of my face. It was very noticeable, so I told my folks that the car I was riding in stopped suddenly and my face hit the windshield.

Abby, *he's* 19 and I'm 17, and already I feel like an old married lady who lets her husband push her around. I haven't spoken to *him* since this happened. *He* keeps bugging me to give *him* one more chance. I think I've given *him* enough chances. Should I keep avoiding *him* or what?

- Black and Blue -

A guy I haven't seen in years has just called me and ...

- **Exophoric reference:** outward pointing
  - referent in immediate context of situation (e.g. setting):

Can you show me **that**?

- referent as part of a shared world, such as social institutions (i.e. context of culture):

- a. **The** government are to blame for unemployment.
- b. **The** sun came out.
- c. She went into a restaurant and asked **the** waiter for **the** menu.

**Substitution:** use of pro-forms

- a. *one(s)*: She likes red ribbons, but her sister likes green **ones**.
- b. *do*: A: Did John take the letter?  
B: He might have **done**.
- c. *so/not*: Do you need help? If **so**, I'll stay; if **not**, I'll go.



d. *same*: They went to the cafeteria, and I did the **same**.

**Activity 1. Read through the following paragraph and examine the reference words. Determine whether they are *anaphoric*, *cataphoric*, or *exophoric*. Then read the explanations below it.**

Finally on 7 May 1945, Germany surrendered to the Allied Forces and <sup>2</sup>the war in Europe was over. By June of 1945, Great Britain, the United States, France, and the Soviet Union had occupied <sup>3</sup>the whole country. Immediately, <sup>4</sup>they devised <sup>5</sup>a system for controlling Germany: They divided Germany into four sectors-<sup>6</sup>three in the west and <sup>6</sup>one in the east. They also divided <sup>7</sup>the capital city into four sectors with Great Britain, the United States, France, and the Soviet Union each administering one sector of <sup>8</sup>the city. <sup>9</sup>All four countries agreed to help rebuild German cities, farms, industries, and transportation systems. <sup>10</sup>They also promised to promote the establishment of a democratic form of government in Germany

#### Lesson 4

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Characterstics of fiction genre</i>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis ellipsis and substitution 2. To have students understand the use of ellipsis and substitution and how they relate to the aims.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> 1.To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; 2.To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. 3.To work with the vocabulary of 4.topic; 5.To give definition to the terms; 6,To get information from the texts;.	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> 1. To be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. To be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of ellipsis and substitution in discourse, 4. To be be able to apply that knowledge in analyzing different types of ellipsis and substitution in texts, .
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

#### The technological schedule of practical lesson 4

<b>Activities and time management</b>	<b>The plot of the action</b>	
	<b>Teacher</b>	<b>Student</b>

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b></p>	<p>1. Greets the students; 2. Brainstorms the students giving questions: 1. What is ellipsis? 2. What is substitution? 3. Asks the hometask</p>	<p>1. Students get information about the course and answer the question</p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students the theme: Ellipsis and substitution and their importance (handout 1) • Ellipsis is very common in spoken discourse – in particular in informal contexts. • Ellipsis often reflects pragmatic choices made by the speaker. For example, in order to sound polite we avoid too much ellipsis. • Although ellipsis is universal feature of all languages, its realization varies between languages and so it can be difficult for learners of English both in terms of listening and speaking. 2.2 Explains the use of ellipsis and substitution in English texts (handout 2): 1. <i>Ellipsis: leaving out subjects and auxiliaries</i> 2. <i>Ellipsis: leaving out verb phrases or adjectives</i> 3. <i>Substitution: so and not</i> 2.3 Explains the ways of to use ellipsis in English. There are many ways to use ellipsis in English. Here are the ten of the most common types of ellipsis.</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about the importance of ellipsis and substitution.  2.2 Make some notes about the use of ellipsis and substitution in English texts  2.3 Know about the ways of to use ellipsis in English  2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Revise the theme and discuss some points of ellipsis and substitution related to the texts. 3.2 Gives hometask: Analyse any text paying attention to the rules of ellipsis and substitution</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p>

### Handout 1. What is Ellipsis and Substitution?

#### What is ellipsis?

Words or phrases are left out from sentences where they are unnecessary because they have been referred to or mentioned previously, or they are obvious from the context.

#### Some examples:

«When will he back?» «Tuesday.» (ellipsis: *He'll be back*)

«Will he back tomorrow?» «No, he won't?» (ellipsis: *be back tomorrow*)

«Nice weather, isn't it?» (ellipsis: *It's*)

«Got bad news...» (ellipsis: *I've*)

What time do you leave? - About eight (ellipsis: *I'll leave*).

Are you going on vacation soon? - Hope to (ellipsis: *I*).

### Handout 2. The use of ellipsis and substitution in English texts

#### 1. Ellipsis: leaving out subjects and auxiliaries

- After *and but*, **and or** we often leave out a repeated subject or a repeated subject and auxiliary verb, especially when the clauses are short.

He got up **and (he) had** a bath.

She came to class **but (she) didn't say** anything.

We should phone her **or (we should) send** her an email.

We usually have dinner at 7.00, and **then (we) watch** TV.

- After *then* we can also leave out a repeated subject pronoun

You cannot leave out the subject pronoun after *before, after because, when, and while*

They locked the door **before they left** We'll have a look at the photos **after we finish** lunch. She's stressed **because she has** too much work He was horrified **when he saw** the mess they had left I met Pete **while I was working** in France.

## 2. Ellipsis: leaving out verb phrases or adjectives

Susan has never been to Ireland, but her sister has

Bob thinks he's right, but he **isn't**.

I didn't like the film, but Charles did

They said **I would** love the play, but **I don't think I would**

We can use a different auxiliary or modal verb from that used in the first part of the sentence

**I thought I would be able to** come tomorrow, but in fact **I can't** I know you've never **learned** to swim, but **I really think you should have.** **A You must** read his latest book!

**B I already have**

**I haven't been to Paris, but I'd love to.**

The students cheated in the exam, even though the teacher **told them not to.**

## 3. Substitution: *so and not* We often use **so** instead of repeating a whole positive clause after

verbs of thinking (*assume, believe, expect, guess, hope, imagine, presume, suppose, think*) **and also after** *be afraid, appear/seem, and say*. I'll have finished

the project by Friday, or at least **I hope so** **A Will you be working on Sunday? B I suppose**

**so.** unless we get everything done today. Gerard loves animals, and his sister **even more so**

**Substitution: so and not** With negative clauses we use positive verb \* *not* (e.g. *I hope not*)

with *be afraid, assume, guess, hope, presume, and suspect*

**A Do you think it'll snow tonight? B I hope not.**

**A He's not very likely to pass, is he? B No. I'm afraid not**

The kids may be back, but **I don't think so** **I know** she liked the gift, even though she didn't say

**so.** The easiest way to think about substitution is to consider it as a form of ellipsis. Something is

missing, but instead of just leaving it out, we substitute it with another word, usually 'so',

'one(s)', 'do(es)', 'did'. [Some people have a wider definition of substitution and include things

I'd put under the heading of reference]

E.g. Replacing a noun (phrase):

*What kind of cupcake would you like? A chocolate one, please.*

E.g. Replacing a verb phrase: *I didn't like the film, but everyone else did (liked the film)*

Note that we use substitution for verbs in the simple present or simple past. For other tenses or

modals, we use ellipsis. *I don't want to go running but I really should (go running). Have you ever been to Paris? Yes, I have (been to Paris)*

## Handout 3. The ways of to use ellipsis in English.

**There are many ways to use ellipsis in English. Here are the ten of the most common types of ellipsis.**

### 1. 'To' instead of Infinitive

'To' is often used instead of a full infinitive when replying to yes / no questions or contrasting when using the same verb.

#### *In Questions*

Would you like to study at university? - **I hope to.** (instead of: I hope to study at university.)

Are you going to move? - **I plan to.** (instead of: I plan to move.)

### **Contrasting**

I don't play much tennis these days. However, **I used to.** (instead of: I used to play tennis.)

Jennifer didn't visit her parents last week even though **she hoped to.** (instead of: ... she hoped to visit her parents last week)

### **2. Auxiliary Replacing Full Verb Phrase**

When repeating a verb phrase in a sentence the repeated verb phrase is often dropped.

I'll finish the job when **I can.** (instead of: ... when I can finish it.)

Tom told me he would come to the meeting, but **he didn't.** (instead of: ... he didn't come to it.)

### **3. Be After Conjunctions**

Subject pronouns and the verb 'to be' is often dropped after certain conjunctions.

Text me **when there.** (instead of: ... when you are there.)

Repeat **until finished.** (instead of: Repeat until you are finished.)

### **4. Function Words in Lists with Conjunctions**

Function words such as articles and helping verbs are dropped when listing using the conjunctions 'and', 'but', and 'or'.

I'd like to buy a bat **and ball.** (instead of: ... a bat and a ball.) Tom was happy **but poor.** (instead of: ... but he was poor.) You can pay **now or later.** (instead of: ... or you can pay later.)

### **5. When speaking in the first person about something, it's common to drop the personal pronoun 'I' and the helping verb in informal English.**

Finished soon. (instead of: I'll be finished soon.) Working now. (instead of: I'm working now.)

Eaten already. (instead of: I've eaten already.)

### **6. Yes / No Questions**

Function words including pronouns and helping verbs are dropped when asking 'yes / no' questions. Read the paper? (instead of: Have you read the paper?)

Getting a good workout? (instead of: Are you getting a good workout?)

### **7. Object Relative Pronouns**

It's common to drop object relative pronouns when using a relative clause.

That's the man **I mentioned.** (instead of: ... whom I mentioned.)

This is the house we **want to buy.** (instead of: ... which / that we want to buy.)

### **8. Repeated Noun in List after Adjectives**

Sometimes nouns are dropped following adjectives. This is common in replies to questions, or when contrasting information.

What kind of room would you like? - **A single,** please. (instead of: A single room, please.)

I'm afraid I don't have cooked salmon. **Only smoked.** (instead of: Only smoked salmon.)

### **9. Repeated Noun in List after Determiner**

Nouns are sometimes repeated using a determiner to indicate which one(s) of something is meant. In this case, we often drop the noun when it is repeated.

There are so many cars in this parking lot. Oh, **this is mine.** (instead of: Oh, this car is mine.)

He doesn't know the limit of courses **he can take,** but he'll begin with two now. (instead of: ... but he'll take two courses now.)

### **10. Tag Replies**

Perhaps the most commonly left out words are in question tags when replying to 'yes / no' questions. In this case, the auxiliary verb is substituted for the full sentence.

Would you like to come to the meeting? - Yes, **I would**. (instead of: Yes, I would like to come to the meeting.)

Did you finish the work last night? - No, **I didn't**. (instead of: No, I didn't finish the work last night.)

**Activity 1. The underlined text in the script below demonstrates ellipsis. Re-write the full form for each underlined piece of text, adding the missing information. The first one is done for you.**

**Letterman:** Have you seen the movie?

**Depp:** No I've not - *No I've not seen the movie yet.*

**Letterman:** I'm sorry. You've not seen the movie?

**Depp:** Not just yet.

**Letterman:** You're too busy to see it, probably?

**Depp:** Uh, you know, in a way, once my job is done on the film it's really none of my business.

**Letterman:** Really none of your business. So you deliberately don't look at the finished product.

**Depp:** Oh yeah, I stay as far away as I possibly can. If I can try to stay in as profound a state of ignorance as possible.

**Letterman:** Well you've come to the right place – you're exactly where you need to be. That's interesting, and forgive me, is it a little insecurity?

**Depp:** It's just, you know, I don't like watching myself. I prefer the experience. Making the film is great.

The process is all fine but he's up there.

**Letterman:** Right. So that speaks to what I was talking about earlier. You're first and foremost an actor, an artist, so you enjoy that process

Depp: Yeah I do very much

**Activity 2. Gap-fill exercise. Fill in all the gaps with the reference words and those used for substitution in the sentences.**

*ones such that the same these This those to do so*

1) According to Roman law, no one could bear arms except those entitled ..., the only exception being hunting weapons.

2) The appearance of later stages is usually a development from earlier ... using the same components, and not a radical replacement.

3) It must be borne in mind that the majority of ... data have been derived from subjects younger than 65 years (Koch-Weser, 1978).

4) Simple matrices similar to ... employed to good effect in many of the studies described in this book can also be of benefit;

5) Harris and South Uist are so moist that even in summer (April-September) there is a PWS of over 500 mm. ... is related to the fact that rainfall increases with altitude.

6) Animals ... look similar are classified together, and not only that, they are also closely related in an evolutionary sense (or put another way, they share a common ancestor).

7) The results of the tests show that there are still substantial levels of discrimination and that levels of discrimination against Indians, Pakistanis and West Indians are much ... .

8) 17th century male dancers were trained to dance female roles and were often called upon ... in serious works, costumed in such a way as to disguise their gender.

9) Perhaps, then, men find women's conversation difficult to follow, and since they are the powerful group, they can deal with their incomprehension by defining women's behaviour as deviant and wrong - «illogical» is just their word for ... .

10) This, however, seems to him the condemnation of such uses of the words and ... forms of moral judgement.

**Activity 3. Cross out the words / phrases which could be left out.**

1 Everyone else loved the hotel we stayed in, but I didn't like it.

- 2 Nobody expects us to win, but you never know, we might win.
- 3 I didn't take the job in the end, but now I think that I should have taken it.
- 4 I got into the car and I turned the radio on.
- 5 A Would you like to come for dinner tomorrow night?  
B I'd love to come to dinner, but I'm afraid I can't come.
- 6 We don't go to the theatre very often now but we used to go before we had children.
- 7 I won't be able to go to the exhibition, but my wife will be able to go.
- 8 We met in 2009 and then we got married in 2010.
- 9 They look happy, but they aren't really happy.

**Activity 4. Complete the sentences with a modal or an auxiliary verb in the right form.**

E.g. I'd like to help you this week, but I can't.

- 1 I'm not vegetarian, but my wife ....
- 2 I would love to fly a plane, but I know that I never ....
- 3 Nobody believes me when I say that I'm going to resign, but I ....
- 4 We thought that Karen would get the job, but she ...
- 5 In the end they didn't come, even though they had promised that they ....
- 6 If you haven't seen the film yet, you .... It's absolutely fantastic!
- 7 If I could help you, I would, but I'm afraid I ...
- 8 I don't speak French, but my friend ...

**Activity 5. Write the responses using the right form of the verb in brackets and a reduced infinitive or adding so or not.**

A Would you like to come round for dinner tomorrow?

B I'd love to. (love)

- 1 A The weather forecast said it would snow at the weekend. B I I was planning to do some gardening. (hope)
- 2 A Do you smoke? B I , but I gave up last month, (use)
- 3 A If you think she's coming down with flu, you shouldn't send her to school tomorrow. B I----- She might infect the other children. (suppose)
- 4 A Have you spoken to Martin yet? B No, but I after the meeting, (try)
- 5 A Do you think we should leave early to miss the traffic?  
B I ..., though I'm really enjoying myself, (guess)
- 6 A Why are you going to do a parachute jump? B I don't know. I (always / want)

**Activity 6. Change the sentences using substitution**

<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>If he comes to the meeting I'll tell him the news. If he doesn't come to the meeting, I'll email him.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> If he comes to the meeting I'll tell him the news. If not, I'll email him.</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>The green apples are quite tasty but the red apples are horrible.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> The green apples are quite tasty but the red ones are horrible.</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>I didn't go to the party but Sally went to the party.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> I didn't go to the party but Sally did.</p> </div>
<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>I can't speak Japanese and David can't speak Japanese either.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> I can't speak Japanese and neither can David.</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>Their photocopier isn't working and our photocopier isn't working either.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> Their photocopier isn't working and neither is ours.</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>'Is there a test next week?'</p> <p><i>'I don't think there is a test next week. I hope there isn't a test next week.'</i></p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> <i>'I don't think so. I hope not.'</i></p> </div>
<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>'Is Michael coming for a drink on Friday?'</p> <p><i>'I expect Michael is coming for a drink on Friday. He usually comes for a drink on Friday.'</i></p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> <i>'I expect so. He usually does.'</i></p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>I'll try and call you this afternoon. If I can't call this afternoon, I'll call you this evening.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> I'll try and call you this afternoon. If not, this evening.</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>I may be free tomorrow. If I am free tomorrow, I'll let you know.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> I may be free tomorrow. If so, I'll let you know.</p> </div>

<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>They decided to drive to the picnic. Deciding to drive was a mistake as they got stuck in a traffic jam.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> They decided to drive to the picnic. This was a mistake as they got stuck in a traffic jam.</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>We need some eggs. If you see eggs in the market, could you get some?</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> We need some eggs. If you see any in the market, could you get some?</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>The picture quality of this new camera is far better than the picture quality of the old camera.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> The picture quality of this new camera is far better than that of the old one.</p> </div>
<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>'It's on the table.'</p> <p><i>'Which table? The table in the kitchen or the table in the sitting room?'</i></p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> <i>'Which table? The one in the kitchen or the one in the sitting room?'</i></p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>'I'm going to resign' 'I wouldn't resign if I were you.'</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> 'I wouldn't do that if I were you.'</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>We're getting a bonus. The boss said we were getting a bonus at the meeting.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> We're getting a bonus. The boss said so at the meeting.</p> </div>
<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>I'm on my way to the office now. I'll call you when I get to the office.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> I'm on my way to the office now. I'll call you when I get there.</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>I'll know the answer tonight, so I'll let you know tonight.</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> I'll know the answer tonight, so I'll let you know then.</p> </div>	<p><b>Avoid repetition</b></p> <p>'Have we got enough chairs?'</p> <p><i>'Yes. We've got all these chairs and we've got all the chairs that Tom brought from upstairs too.'</i></p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; text-align: right;"> <p><b>Answer</b> <i>'Yes. We've got all these and those that Tom brought from upstairs too.'</i></p> </div>



## Lesson 5

<b>Theme: Cohesion (Using linguistic devices)</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of conjunctions and discourse markers in English discourse.</li> <li>2. To understand the using different modes of discourse markers and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1.To introduce with the theme of the lesson ;</li> <li>2.To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up.</li> <li>3.To work with the vocabulary of topic;</li> <li>4.To give definition to the terms;</li> <li>5.To get information from the texts;</li> </ol>	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> Students will: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of conjunction and discourse markers.</li> <li>2. Be able to apply the knowledge in analyzing different types of conjunctions and discourse markers</li> <li>3. Be able to analyse texts using one more approaches to discourse analysis covered in the course.</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 5

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Greets the students and introduces the theme. Brainstorms the activity of the students, asks questions: How do you use conjunctions in discourse? What do you know about discourse markers? What are the features of discourse markers in English texts?</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students answer the questions.</li> </ol>
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2.1 Introduces students the theme: “Conjunctions and discourse markers” Discourse Markers are used to combine clauses or to connect sentence elements. Each discourse marker indicates a particular meaning relationship between two or more clauses. Here are some connectors and their</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2.1 Students get information about conjunction and discourse markers</li> <li>2.2 Make notes of common discourse markers in English</li> </ol>

<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>corresponding meaning (handout 1):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>Contrast</i></li> <li>2. <i>Addition</i></li> <li>3. <i>Time</i></li> <li>4. <i>Cause and effect</i></li> <li>5. <i>Condition</i></li> <li>6. <i>Example</i></li> <li>7. <i>Conclusion</i></li> <li>8. <i>Emphasis</i></li> </ol> <p>2.2 Explains common discourse markers. There are dozens of discourse markers in the English language, but here are 10 of the most common (handout 2):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. <i>actually</i></li> <li>2. <i>apparently</i></li> <li>3. <i>as for</i></li> <li>4. <i>as I was saying</i></li> <li>5. <i>basically</i></li> <li>6. <i>by the way</i></li> <li>7. <i>let's see</i></li> <li>8. <i>I mean</i></li> <li>9. <i>on the other hand</i></li> <li>10. <i>speaking of</i></li> </ol> <p>These discourse markers are used to make a correction, or to state a fact or reality, to say something seems true or is true, to focus attention on the topic you are going to talk about, to get back to the main topic, to say something simple about (or a summary of) a complex situation, to introduce new information or a related topic, to use when you need a moment to think about something (especially after the other person asks you a question), to <b>clarify</b> your meaning, to state your ideas in different words, to introduce an alternate opinion, or a different side of the situation, to link something previously mentioned in the conversation to a new topic</p> <p>2.3 Introduces spoken discourse markers : <b>oh, well, and like</b></p> <p>English has specific expressions that will help you interpret what the other person is saying. Identified correctly, they will ensure that you perform your half of the conversation well. These expressions have so little meaning that they are not usually thought of as belonging to the language, though there is no logical reason not to treat them as a special kind of word. They include words such as <i>oh, well, like, mm, er, and OK</i></p> <p>2.4 Introduces the following formal discourse markers and they are used when</p>	<p>2.3 Get information about spoken spoke discourse markers</p> <p>2.4 Do the activities.</p>
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	<p>speaking in a formal context or when presenting complicated information in writing.</p> <p>1. <i>with regard to; regarding; as regards; as far as ..... is concerned, as for</i></p> <p>2. <i>on the other hand; while; whereas</i></p> <p>3. <i>however, nonetheless, nevertheless</i></p> <p>4. <i>moreover, furthermore, in addition</i></p> <p>5. <i>therefore, as a result, consequently</i></p> <p>2.4 Will have students do activities</p>	
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	<p>3.1 Discusses some points of discuss analysis using discourse markers and conjunctions.</p> <p>3.2 Gives hometask</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

### Handout 1. Discourse markers and conjunctions

Discourse Markers are used to combine clauses or to connect sentence elements. Each discourse marker indicates a particular meaning relationship between two or more clauses. Here are some connectors and their corresponding meaning:

Contrast	Addition	Cause and Effect	Condition
but, whereas, while, on the other hand, unlike, although, though, despite the fact, however, nevertheless, despite, in spite of, instead of	and, in addition, additionally, furthermore, moreover, not only...but also, as well as, besides	because, since, therefore, as a result, consequently, due to, thus, so that, in order to	if, unless, only if, even if, even though, otherwise (negative condition)
Time	Example	Conclusion	Emphasis
First, Next, eventually, instantly, before long, when, while, meanwhile, as soon as	For example, for instance, To illustrate	In conclusion, to conclude, in summary, to summarize, as we have seen, in short	in fact, as a matter of fact, indeed in other words, that means, actually

Discourse markers and conjunctions are the ways of creating cohesion. Discourse markers are linguistic elements used by the speaker/writer to ease the interpretation of the text, frequently by signalling a relationship between segments of the discourse, which is the specific function of conjunctions. They are not a way of simply joining sentences. Their role in the text is wider than that, because they provide the listener/reader with information for the interpretation of the utterance; that is why some linguists prefer to describe them as discourse markers.

In linguistics, a discourse marker is a word or phrase that is relatively syntax-independent and does not change the meaning of the sentence, and has a somewhat empty meaning. Examples of discourse markers include the particles «*oh*», «*well*», «*now*», «*then*», «*you know*», and «*I mean*», some of the words or phrases that were considered discourse markers were treated as «fillers» or «expletives»: words or phrases that had no function at all. Discourse markers (words like 'however', 'although' and 'Nevertheless') are referred to more commonly as 'linking words' and 'linking phrases', or 'sentence connectors'. They may be described as the 'glue' that binds together a piece of writing, making the different parts of the text 'stick together'. They are used less frequently in speech, unless the speech is very formal.

Conjunction acts as a cohesive tie between clauses or sections of text in such a way as to demonstrate a meaningful pattern between them.

Conjunctions can be classified according to four main categories: *additive*, *adversative*, *causal* and *temporal*.

Additive conjunctions act to structurally coordinate or link by adding to the presupposed item and are signalled through “*and, also, too, furthermore, additionally*”, etc. Additive conjunctions may also act to negate the presupposed item and are signaled by “*nor, and...not, either, neither*”, etc.

I don't like smoking, and *neither* does he.

(Derived from: I don't like smoking. He doesn't like smoking).

Adversative conjunctions act to indicate “contrary to expectation” and are signalled by “*yet, though, only, but, in fact, rather*”, etc.

Peter is an English student, *but* he can't speak English.

Causal conjunction expresses “*result, reason and purpose*” and is signalled by “*so, then, for, because, for this reason, as a result, in this respect, etc.*”.

She studied hard as a result she passed the exam.

The last most common conjunctive category is *temporal* and links by signalling *sequence or time*. Some sample temporal conjunctive signals are “then, next, after that, next day, until then, at the same time, at this point”, etc

#### **Examples: time-sequence**

*After* the battle, there was a snowstorm.

They fought a battle. *Afterwards*, it snowed.

The battle was *followed by* a snowstorm.

## **Handout 2. Common discourse markers. There are dozens of discourse markers in the English language, but here are 10 of the most common, with definitions and examples.**

### **1. actually**

Use **actually** to make a correction, or to state a fact or reality:

“Do you need to learn Spanish for your trip to Brazil?”

“**Actually**, they speak Portuguese in Brazil.”

“Oh, I didn't know that.”

### **2. apparently**

**Apparently** is used to say something **seems true** or **is true**.

“How come Maria left work early?”

“**Apparently** her son is sick. I heard her calling the pharmacy to ask if his medicine is ready.”

### **3. as for**

**As for** is the same as **regarding**. It is used to focus attention on the topic you are going to talk about.

“Before you leave the office, please make 5 copies of the sales report and leave them on my desk for the meeting tomorrow morning.”

“Sure, no problem.”

“**As for** the new advertising campaign, we need to get approval from the finance department – so that’ll have to wait until the end of the month.”

#### 4. as I was saying

We use **as I was saying** to get back to the main topic of conversation.

“I heard you’re going away this weekend – where to?”

“Well, after English class on Thursday night, we’re going to catch a late flight to California.”

“We have English class on Thursday?!”

“Yes, remember the teacher changed it from Friday to Thursday?”

“Oh, right.”

“**As I was saying**, we’re going to spend a few days in San Francisco...”

#### 5. basically

You can say **basically** when you are going to say something simple about (or a summary of) a complex situation.

“Are you still going out with Melissa?”

“No – we broke up a few months ago.”

“Oh, sorry to hear that. What happened?”

“Well, it’s a long story, but **basically**, our personalities were just too different.”

#### 6. by the way

Say **by the way** to introduce new information or a related topic of conversation.

“So how do you like living in New York City?”

“I love it! There are a lot of interesting things to do. It’s a little hard to make friends, though – there are just so many people.”

“Don’t worry, I’m sure you’ll settle in and form friendships with time. **By the way**, my sister and I are going to meet some friends at the free concert in the park tonight – want to go with us?”

#### 1. let’s see

You can say **let’s see** when you need a moment to think about something (especially after the other person asks you a question).

“I’m making the reservation at the restaurant. How many people are joining us for dinner?”

“**Let’s see...** there’s you and me... John, his wife, and their three kids... Barbara and her husband... and Peter with his girlfriend. That makes eleven.”

#### 2. I mean

**I mean** is a very common expression in spoken English. You can use it to **clarify** your meaning, to state your ideas in different words.

“What did you think of the movie?”

“Eh, I thought it was so-so. **I mean**, the story line was interesting, but the acting wasn’t that great.”

#### 3. on the other hand

Say **on the other hand** to introduce an alternate opinion, or a different side of the situation.

“Do you think I should buy a desktop or a laptop?”

“Well, a desktop would be cheaper, and I know you’re on a budget.”

“True.”

“**On the other hand**, a laptop would be more convenient because you could take it to class.”

#### 4. speaking of

We use **speaking of** to link something previously mentioned in the conversation to a new topic.

“Did you do anything special for your birthday?”

“Oh, I just went out for dinner with some friends at a Japanese restaurant – that new one on Main Street.”

“Really? How was the food?”

“It’s the best sushi in town, in my opinion!”

“**Speaking of** Japan, my brother’s planning on studying abroad there next semester.”

“Really? Does he speak Japanese?”

“Not yet, but he’s going to learn...”

### Handout 3. Spoken discourse: discourse markers **oh**, **well**, and **like**

English has specific expressions that will help you interpret what the other person is saying. Identified correctly, they will ensure that you perform your half of the conversation well. These expressions have so little meaning that they are not usually thought of as belonging to the language, though there is no logical reason not to treat them as a special kind of word. They include words such as **oh**, **well**, **like**, **mm**, **er**, and **OK**(pronounced and sometimes written *okay*).

All of these words serve important purposes in conversation and are known technically as **discourse markers**. In general they are used to indicate that you are ready to speak or want to keep speaking, or to show how you respond to what someone has just said. We will discuss here some of the most useful discourse markers of this type.

All the examples are from real conversations so do not be surprised by the use of incomplete sentences and repetitions.

#### 1. **Oh**

The discourse marker **oh** is typically found at the beginning of replies where it is used to show that you have just been told something new. For example:

Doctor: *I think you've probably got what we call dry eyes.*  
Patient: **Oh.**

**Oh** often combines with a word or phrase that confirms that you now understand, such as **oh I see** or **oh right**, or that evaluates the new information, for example **oh good**, **oh heavens**, **oh dear**, or **oh no**. For example:

Travel Agent: *Your flights are all confirmed.*  
Customer: **Oh wonderful.**

If someone reminds you of something you had forgotten, you typically start your reply with **oh**. For example:

Speaker 1: *Remember he wanted to merge the groups. Don't you remember?*  
Speaker 2: **Oh yeah. Oh yes. Of course.**

It is also used to accept someone's answer to your question. For example:

Speaker 1: *Is that too sweet?*  
Speaker 2: *Yes.*  
Speaker 1: **Oh.**

**Oh** says that you accept the truth of the answer or statement that you have just heard. You can however combine it with **really** or with a question to show surprise, for example **oh did you?** This passes the talk back to the other speaker who will usually confirm what they have just said. They will also often add to what they have just said. For example:

Speaker 1: *I went up to Leeds.*  
Speaker 2: ***Oh** did you?*  
Speaker 1: *Yeah...saw Kathryn Clarke.*

In British English, **oh** is used to introduce quoted speech, either your own or someone else's. For example:

*She says **oh** I've hardly been there, I've been at Joe's.*

## 2. Well

**Well** is another expression used to signal the start of reported speech. For example:

*So she said **well** I'll phone you tonight.*

**Well** is also like **oh** in that it is also used at the beginning of a speaking turn, but unlike **oh** it indicates that you think there is something slightly wrong with what has just been said. You start your reply with **well** when answering someone who has just said something factually incorrect or made a false assumption. For example:

Speaker 1: *I mean it might take us another two months before we get out. Three months.*  
Speaker 2: ***Well** I would say six months.*

You can also begin your answer with **well** if someone asked you a question which assumes something that is not in fact true, for example:

Speaker 1: *What, she did the whole lot?*  
Speaker 2: ***Well** yeah, I think, well, she didn't do everything.*

Here the first speaker is expecting the answer 'yes' and the second speaker is answering 'no' in a roundabout way.

Another use for **well** is to round off a topic near the end of a conversation. For example:

***Well** I'll let you get back to work.*

## 3. Like

In American English, **like** is the normal way of introducing speech:

*And my husband was **like**, I hope something's not wrong.*

It is also used to focus the listener's attention on what follows, either because it is new information or because it is important:

*I was so, **like**, stressed out.*

You can also add **like** to a request to indicate that what you are saying might not be welcome to the person you are addressing:

*So if I if I if I phone you tomorrow after six so that we can **like** arrange a time, will that be OK?*

It also indicates that your wording is imprecise or an exaggeration:

*I think they order it **like** loads and loads in advance.*

**Handout 4. Most of the following discourse markers are formal and used when speaking in a formal context or when presenting complicated information in writing.**

**1. with regard to; regarding; as regards; as far as ..... is concerned, as for**

These expressions focus attention on what follows in the sentence. This is done by announcing the subject in advance. As regards and as far as.....is concerned usually indicate a change of subject

*Examples:*

His grades in science subjects are excellent. As regards humanities ...

With regard to the latest market figures we can see that ...

Regarding our efforts to improve the local economy, we have made ...

As far as I am concerned, we should continue to develop our resources.

As for John's thoughts, let's take a look at this report he sent me.

**2. on the other hand; while; whereas**

These expressions give expression to two ideas which contrast but do not contradict each other.

*Examples:*

Football is popular in England, while in Australia they prefer cricket.

We've been steadily improving our customer service center. On the other hand our shipping department needs to be redesigned.

Jack thinks we're ready to begin whereas Tom thinks we still need to wait.

**3. however, nonetheless, nevertheless**

All these words are used to present two contrasting ideas.

*Examples:*

Smoking is proved to be dangerous to the health. Nonetheless, 40% of the population smokes.

Our teacher promised to take us on a field trip. However, he changed his mind last week.

Peter was warned not to invest all of his savings in the stock market. Nevertheless, he invested and lost everything.

**4. moreover, furthermore, in addition**

We use these expressions to add information to what has been said. The usage of these words is much more elegant than just making a list or using the conjunction 'and'.

*Examples:*

His problems with his parents are extremely frustrating. Moreover, there seems to be no easy solution to them.

I assured him that I would come to his presentation. Furthermore, I also invited a number of important representatives from the local chamber of commerce.

Our energy bills have been increasing steadily. In addition to these costs, our telephone costs have doubled over the past six months.

**5. therefore, as a result, consequently**

These expressions show that the second statement follows logically from the first statement.

*Examples:*

He reduced the amount of time studying for his final exams. As a result, his marks were rather low.

We've lost over 3,000 customers over the past six months. Consequently, we have been forced to cut back our advertising budget.

The government has drastically reduced its spending. Therefore, a number of programs have been canceled.



## Discourse markers: adverbs and adverbial expressions

<p>A I really like your shirt. Hasn't Harry got one just like it?  <b>B Talking of</b> Harry, did he get the job he applied for?</p>	To change the direction of a conversation, but making a link with what has just been said.
So let's meet at five o'clock then. <b>By the way / Incidentally</b> , could you possibly lend me some money until the weekend?	To introduce something you have just thought of, or to change the subject completely.
A Did you see the match last night? <b>B No</b> , I didn't. <b>Actually / In fact / As a matter of fact</b> I don't really like football.	To introduce additional surprising or unexpected information.
We didn't go away at the weekend because I had too much work. <b>In any case / Anyway</b> the weather was awful, so we didn't miss anything.	To introduce the idea that what you said before is less important than what you are going to say. To return to the main topic after a digression.
Yes, it was a bad accident. <b>At least</b> nobody was killed, though. Tom's coming to the meeting, or <b>at least</b> he said he was.	To introduce a positive point after some negative information. To make what you have just said less definite.
<b>As I was saying</b> , if Mark gets the job we'll have to reorganize the department.	To return to a previous subject, often after you have been interrupted.
<b>On the whole</b> , I think that women make better journalists than men.	To generalize.
I like both flats, but <b>all in all</b> , I think I prefer the one next to the cathedral.	To say that you are taking everything into consideration.
I think we should buy them. <b>After all</b> , we'll never find them anywhere cheaper than this.	To introduce a strong argument that the other person may not have taken into consideration.
I don't think I'll come to Nick's party. It will finish very late. <b>Besides</b> , I won't know many people there.	To add additional information or arguments.
<b>Basically</b> , my job involves computer skills and people skills.	To introduce the most important or fundamental point.
<b>Obviously</b> you can't get a real idea of life in Japan unless you can speak the language.	To introduce a fact that is very clear to see or understand.
She's very selfish. <b>I mean</b> , she never thinks about other people at all.	To make things clearer or give more details.
A lot of people booed, and some people even left early. <b>In other words</b> , it was a complete disaster.	To say something again in another way.
Please try not to make a mess when you make the cake. <b>Otherwise</b> I'm going to have to clean the kitchen again.	To say what the result would be if something did not happen or if the situation were different.
That's all you need to know about the travel arrangements. <b>As far as accommodation is concerned, As regards / Regarding</b> accommodation, the options are living with a family or living in a hall of residence.	To introduce a new topic or to announce a change of subject.
The government are going to help first-time buyers. <b>That is to say</b> , they are going to make mortgages more easily available.	To introduce an explanation or clarification of a point you have just made.
<b>On (the) one hand</b> , more young people today carry knives. <b>On (the) other hand</b> , the total number of violent crimes has dropped.	To balance contrasting facts or points. <i>On the other hand</i> is also used alone to introduce a contrasting fact or point.

**Activity 1. Choose the correct word for each sentence - each is only used once.**

*moreover*    *on the other hand*    *at least*    *however*    *besides*  
*firstly*    *whereas*    *then*    *actually*    *though*

1. I had a terrible day at work and lost my umbrella too. \_\_\_\_\_ I spoke to that nice guy who works in the coffee shop at last!
2. Television turns people into lazy couch potatoes. \_\_\_\_\_, there are some educational programmes on.
3. \_\_\_\_\_, I would like to welcome you all to the conference today.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ the film was a little boring, we still had a nice evening out.
5. I've always known Caroline as a mean person. \_\_\_\_\_, she lent me \$10 yesterday without me having to ask twice!
6. I got up at 9 o'clock yesterday and had a cold shower. \_\_\_\_\_, I had breakfast and left for work.
7. My brother works in a large office \_\_\_\_\_ I work on my own at home.
8. Why do you think I don't want to go out tonight. \_\_\_\_\_, I would be delighted to get out of the house.
9. You should go to university as it gives you a chance to meet so many new people. \_\_\_\_\_, it gives you the chance to get important qualifications and get a better job.
10. I don't want to go to the football game. Football bores me and I don't want to pay \$40 for a ticket. \_\_\_\_\_, look at the weather! All that rain!

**Activity 2. Rewrite the sentences using the connectors in parenthesis. Make the necessary changes:**

1. Isabel apologized several times. Paul wouldn't speak to her. (but)
2. We decided to walk even though it was raining. (in spite of)
3. Roger works very hard to help his parents. He's also a good student. (In addition)
4. I love Ice cream. In addition, I love chocolate. (as well as)
5. I'd love to come. I really haven't got the time. (However)
6. Rome is a great place to visit, but it has got terrible traffic problems. (despite)
7. Miguel was very busy yesterday. He helped me. (Even though)
8. Sinem exercises vigorously. She can't lose weight. (However)
9. Visitors are not allowed to park here. It is a private parking area. (since)
10. Jack can't lift the box. He is very strong. (But)
11. Joanne booked a babysitter because she wanted to go out for the evening. (in order to)
12. Brenda does a lot of exercise. She is fit. (therefore)
13. Mark heard the news on the radio. He was driving home. (while)
14. Despite its popularity, the group hasn't reached any gold record yet. (In spite of)
15. John bought a couple of exercise-books. He wanted to catch up with the rest of the class. (so as to)
16. My brother doesn't earn a good wage. My sister-in-law doesn't earn a good wage. (neither...nor)
17. The accident was very serious but nobody was badly injured. (Even though)

**ANSWER KEY:**

1. Isabel apologized several times, but Paul wouldn't speak to her.
2. We decided to walk in spite of the rain.
3. Roger works very hard to help his parents. In addition, he's also a good student.
4. I love Ice cream as well as chocolate.
5. I'd love to come. However, I really haven't got the time.
6. Rome is a great place to visit, despite its terrible traffic problems.
7. Even though Miguel was very busy yesterday, he helped me.
8. Sinem exercises vigorously. However, he can't lose weight.

9. Since it is a private parking area, visitors are not allowed to park here.
10. Jack is very strong but he can't lift the box.
11. Joanne booked a babysitter in order to go out for the evening.
12. Brenda does a lot of exercise, therefore she is fit.
13. Mark heard the news on the radio while he was driving home.
14. The group hasn't reached any gold record yet, in spite of its popularity.
15. John bought a couple of exercise-books so as to catch up with the rest of the class.
16. Neither my brother, nor my sister earn a good wage.
17. Nobody was badly injured even though the accident was very serious.

**Activity 3. Vocabulary: Discourse markers. For each of the six questions choose the one correct answer.**

1. So you're a doctor? \_\_\_\_\_, I finish my training next year.  
a) Let me see      b) Right      c) Listen      d) Well
2. A: Do you know her number? B: \_\_\_\_\_, it's here somewhere.  
a) Let me see      b) Mind you      c) Well      d) You see
3. A: It's quite a problem, I don't know if I can do it. B: \_\_\_\_\_, I'll help you, don't worry.  
a) Mind you      b) Let me see      c) Listen      d) Well
4. I'm afraid you can't come in, \_\_\_\_\_ you have to be 18.  
a) you see      b) well      c) listen      d) right
5. I'm tired, \_\_\_\_\_, I only had 3 hours sleep last night!  
a) mind you      b) right      c) listen      d) let me see
6. \_\_\_\_\_, let's start, shall we?  
a) let me see      b) mind you      c) right      d) well

**Answers**

1.  
a) We use 'Let me see' as a hesitation, to gain some time before answering the question.  
b) We use 'Right' to get people's attention – to say 'Let's begin'  
c) We often use 'Listen' to introduce an offer or suggestion, e.g. 'Listen, why don't we...?'  
d) We use 'well' to show someone you are not giving the 'yes' answer expected. e.g. Do you speak French? Well, a little. **CORRECT**
2.  
a) We use 'Let me see' as a hesitation, to gain some time before answering the question. **CORRECT**  
b) We use 'mind you' to introduce an afterthought, e.g. He looks old, mind you, he is 60!  
c) We use 'well' to show someone you are not giving the 'yes' answer expected, e.g. Do you speak French? Well, a little.  
d) We use 'you see' to introduce an explanation about something, e.g. I can't afford to go out, you see I lost my job last week.
3.  
a) We use 'mind you' to introduce an afterthought, e.g. He looks old, mind you, he is 60!  
b) We use 'Let me see' as a hesitation, to gain some time before answering the question.  
**c) We often use 'Listen' to introduce an offer or suggestion, e.g. 'Listen, why don't we...?' CORRECT**  
d) We use 'well' to show someone you are not giving the 'yes' answer expected, e.g. Do you speak French? Well, a little.
4.  
**a) We use 'you see' to introduce an explanation about something, e.g. I can't afford to go out, you see I lost my job last week. CORRECT**  
b) We use 'well' to show someone you are not giving the 'yes' answer expected, e.g. Do

you speak French? Well, a little.

c) We often use 'Listen' to introduce an offer or suggestion, e.g. 'Listen, why don't we...?'

d) We use 'Right' to get people's attention – to say 'Let's begin'

5.

a) We use 'mind you' to introduce an afterthought, e.g. He looks old, mind you, he is 60! **CORRECT**

b) We use 'Right' to get people's attention – to say 'Let's begin'.

c) We often use 'Listen' to introduce an offer or suggestion, e.g. 'Listen, why don't we...?'

d) We use 'Let me see' as a hesitation, to gain some time before answering the question.

6.

a) We use 'Let me see' as a hesitation, to gain some time before answering the question.

b) We use 'mind you' to introduce an afterthought, e.g. He looks old, mind you, he is 60!

c) We use 'Right' to get people's attention – to say 'Let's begin'. **CORRECT**

d) We use 'well' to show someone you are not giving the 'yes' answer expected, e.g. Do you speak French? Well, a little.

#### Activity 4. Connect the sentences using connectives or conjunctions.

1. The president failed to explain the cause of the crisis. He did not offer any solutions.  
(The president failed to explain the cause of the crisis, nor did he offer any solutions.)

2. Akira's wife was due to give birth to their first child in the next several days. He still worked overtime.  
(Akira's wife was due to give birth to their first child in the next several days, but (or yet) he still worked overtime.)

3. Rekha had an intense headache all morning. She smiled and remained alert throughout the entire meeting.  
(Rekha had an intense headache all morning, yet (or but) she smiled and remained alert throughout the entire meeting.)

4. The last storm to come through the area ripped some of the siding off George's garage. He visited the hardware store and invested in storm-proofing materials.  
(The last storm to come through the area ripped some of the siding off George's garage, so he visited the hardware store and invested in storm-proofing materials.)

5. Enrollment in the university has been dropping in recent years. Its facilities have been lacking proper maintenance.  
(Enrollment in the university has been dropping in recent years, and its facilities have been lacking proper maintenance.)

### Lesson 6

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Cohesion (Using linkers)</i>	
<b>Time:</b> 2 hours	<b>The number of students:</b> 15-16
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of theme and rheme in discourse analysis. 2. To have students understand the different modes of theme and rheme and how they relate to the aims.

<p><b>Pedagogical tasks:</b>          To introduce with the theme of the lesson ;          To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up.          To work with the vocabulary of topic;          To give definition to the terms;          To get information from the text</p>	<p><i>The results of teaching activity</i>          Students will:          1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;          2. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of theme and rheme.          3. be able to analyse theme and rheme using one more approaches to discourse analysis covered in the course.</p>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 6

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students and brainstorms giving questions 2. Asks the questions What is the word order in English? How do we define theme and rheme? 3. Asks the hometask	1. Students answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students the theme: Theme and rheme. (handout 1): The textual function of the clause is that of constructing a message and theme and rheme structure is the basic form of the organization of the clause message. Theme is the element which serves as “the starting-point for the message, it is what the clause is going to be about”. It contains familiar or given information. Its function is to signal the relationship between the thought in the speaker mind and its expression in discourse. Rheme is the part of the clause in which the theme is developed. It contains unfamiliar or “new” information Everything that is not the theme is the rheme <b>The rheme</b> is what the writer/speaker says or writes about the theme.	2.1 Students get information about theme and rheme 2.2 Know theme and rheme in linguistics 2.3 Get information on how to identify theme and rheme 2.4 Know about the function of theme and rheme 2.5 Do the activities.

	<p><b>The rheme</b> is the part of the utterance that pushes the communication forward.</p> <p>2.2 Explains theme and rheme in linguistics (handout 2)</p> <p>Due to SVO (subject-verb-object) structure of a typical English sentence, theme is often the subject of the sentence; however, passive voice violates this rule. It is worth mentioning that in some other languages (e.g. Japanese), the common place for theme is the end of a sentence. In languages with free word order (e.g. Ukrainian, Russian), theme can be found in the middle of a sentence.</p> <p>2.3 Explains how we identify theme and rheme (handout 3)</p> <p>2.4 Tells about the function of theme and rheme (handout 4)</p> <p>2.5 Gives information about the order of theme and rheme (handout 5):</p> <p><i>Theme in declarative sentences</i></p> <p><i>Theme in interrogative sentences</i></p> <p><i>Theme in imperative sentences</i></p> <p><i>Theme in clause complexes</i></p> <p>2.6 Tells about first element of structure of theme-rheme according to Hallidayan theory.</p> <p>2.7 Explains how to analyse of some sentences of theme and rheme from articles.</p> <p>2.8 Will have the students do activities</p>	
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses the differences in layout and language between informal and informal letters. (indentation, the use of contracted verb forms, the use of phrasal verbs and idiomatic language, etc.)</p> <p>3.2 Will have students write an informal letter choosing one of the suggested topics.</p> <p>3.3. Let the students to create their own checklist or rubric for evaluating their letters. (Handout 3)</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

### Linking words

Linking words help you to connect ideas and sentences, so that people can follow your ideas.

Giving examples

For example / For instance / Namely

The most common way of giving examples is by using for example or for instance.

Namely refers to something by name.

«There are two problems: namely, the expense and the time.»

Adding information

*And / In addition / As well as / Also / Too / Furthermore / Moreover / Apart from / In addition to*

*Besides*

Ideas are often linked by and. In a list, you put a comma between each item, but not before and.

«We discussed training, education and the budget.»

Also is used to add an extra idea or emphasis. «We also spoke about marketing.»

You can use also with not only to give emphasis.

«We are concerned not only by the costs, but also by the competition.»

We don't usually start a sentence with also. If you want to start a sentence with a phrase that means also, you can use *In addition*, or *In addition to this...*

*As well as* can be used at the beginning or the middle of a sentence.

«As well as the costs, we are concerned by the competition.»

«We are interested in costs as well as the competition.»

*Too* goes either at the end of the sentence, or after the subject and means as well.

«They were concerned too.» «I, too, was concerned.»

*Apart from* and *besides* are often used to mean as well as, or in addition to.

«Apart from Rover, we are the largest sports car manufacturer.»

«Besides Rover, we are the largest sports car manufacturer.»

*Moreover* and *furthermore* add extra information to the point you are making.

«Marketing plans give us an idea of the potential market. Moreover, they tell us about the competition.»

**Summarising**

*In short / In brief / In summary / To summarise / In a nutshell / To conclude / In conclusion*

We normally use these words at the beginning of the sentence to give a summary of what we have said or written.

**Sequencing ideas**

*The former, ... the latter / Firstly, secondly, finally / The first point is / Lastly / The following*

The former and the latter are useful when you want to refer to one of two points.

«Marketing and finance are both covered in the course. The former is studied in the first term and the latter is studied in the final term.»

Firstly, ... secondly, ... finally (or lastly) are useful ways to list ideas.

It's rare to use «fourthly», or «fifthly». Instead, try the first point, the second point, the third point and so on.

The following is a good way of starting a list.

«The following people have been chosen to go on the training course: N Peters, C Jones and A Owen.»

**Giving a reason**

*Due to / due to the fact that / Owing to / owing to the fact that / Because / Because of / Since*  
*As*

*Due to* and *owing to* must be followed by a noun.

«Due to the rise in oil prices, the inflation rate rose by 1.25%.»

«Owing to the demand, we are unable to supply all items within 2 weeks.»

If you want to follow these words with a clause (a subject, verb and object), you must follow the words with the fact that.

«Due to the fact that oil prices have risen, the inflation rate has gone up by 1%25.»

«Owing to the fact that the workers have gone on strike, the company has been unable to fulfil all its orders.»

Because / because of

Because of is followed by a noun.

«Because of bad weather, the football match was postponed.»

Because can be used at the beginning or in the middle of a sentence. For example, «Because it was raining, the match was postponed.»

«We believe in incentive schemes, because we want our employees to be more productive.»

Since / as / Since and as mean because.

«Since the company is expanding, we need to hire more staff.»

«As the company is expanding, we need to hire more staff.»

Giving a result

Therefore / So / Consequently / This means that / As a result

Therefore, so, consequently and as a result are all used in a similar way.

«The company are expanding. Therefore / So / Consequently / As a result, they are taking on extra staff.»

So is more informal. Contrasting ideas

But / However / Although / even though / Despite / despite the fact that / In spite of / in spite of the fact that / Nevertheless / Nonetheless / While / Whereas / Unlike / In theory... in practice...

But is more informal than however. It is not normally used at the beginning of a sentence.

«He works hard, but he doesn't earn much.» / «He works hard. However, he doesn't earn much.»

Although, despite and in spite of introduce an idea of contrast. With these words, you must have two halves of a sentence.

«Although it was cold, she went out in shorts.» / «In spite of the cold, she went out in shorts.»

Despite and in spite of are used in the same way as due to and owing to. They must be followed by a noun. If you want to follow them with a noun and a verb, you must use the fact that.

«Despite the fact that the company was doing badly, they took on extra employees.»

Nevertheless and nonetheless mean in spite of that or anyway.

«The sea was cold, but he went swimming nevertheless.» (In spite of the fact that it was cold.)

«The company is doing well. Nonetheless, they aren't going to expand this year.»

While, whereas and unlike are used to show how two things are different from each other.

«While my sister has blue eyes, mine are brown.»

«Taxes have gone up, whereas social security contributions have gone down.»

«Unlike in the UK, the USA has cheap petrol.»

In theory... in practice... show an unexpected result.

«In theory, teachers should prepare for lessons, but in practice, they often don't have enough time.»

### **Discourse markers**

Some words and phrases help to develop ideas and relate them to one another. These kinds of words and phrases are often called discourse markers. Note that most of these discourse



markers are formal and used when speaking in a formal context or when presenting complicated information in writing.

*with regard to; regarding; as regards; as far as ..... is concerned, as for*

These expressions focus attention on what follows in the sentence. This is done by announcing the subject in advance. As regards and as far as.....is concerned usually indicate a change of subject

Examples:

His grades in science subjects are excellent. As regards humanities ...

With regard to the latest market figures we can see that ...

Regarding our efforts to improve the local economy, we have made ...

As far as I am concerned, we should continue to develop our resources.

As for John's thoughts, let's take a look at this report he sent me.

*on the other hand; while; whereas*

These expressions give expression to two ideas which contrast but do not contradict each other.

Examples:

Football is popular in England, while in Australia they prefer cricket.

We've been steadily improving our customer service center. On the other hand our shipping department needs to be redesigned.

Jack thinks we're ready to begin whereas Tom thinks we still need to wait.

*however, nonetheless, nevertheless*

All these words are used to present two contrasting ideas.

Examples:

Smoking is proved to be dangerous to the health. Nonetheless, 40% of the population smokes.

Our teacher promised to take us on a field trip. However, he changed his mind last week.

Peter was warned not to invest all of his savings in the stock market. Nevertheless, he invested and lost everything.

*moreover, furthermore, in addition*

We use these expressions to add information to what has been said. The usage of these words is much more elegant than just making a list or using the conjunction 'and'.

Examples:

His problems with his parents are extremely frustrating. Moreover, there seems to be no easy solution to them.

I assured him that I would come to his presentation. Furthermore, I also invited a number of important representatives from the local chamber of commerce.

Our energy bills have been increasing steadily. In addition to these costs, our telephone costs have doubled over the past six months.

*therefore, as a result, consequently*

These expressions show that the second statement follows logically from the first statement. Examples:

*He reduced the amount of time studying for his final exams. As a result, his marks were rather low.*

*We've lost over 3,000 customers over the past six months. Consequently, we have been forced to cut back our advertising budget.*

*The government has dramatically reduced its spending. Therefore, a number of programs have been canceled.*

### **Handout 1. “Theme” and “rheme” in linguistics.**

**Theme** (in some sources, also “topic,” “background,” or “presupposition”) is the semantic point of departure of a clause (or more broadly, discourse) about which some information is provided:

1) Tom likes travelling.

2) Our friends have invited us.

In these examples, theme (Tom/our friends) is in the initial position. This is the most common position for theme in English. Due to SVO (subject-verb-object) structure of a typical English sentence, theme is often the subject of the sentence; however, passive voice violates this rule. It is worth mentioning that in some other languages (e.g. Japanese), the common place for theme is the end of a sentence. In languages with free word order (e.g. Ukrainian, Russian), theme can be found in the middle of a sentence.

**Rheme** (in some sources, also “comment,” “focus,” or “pre dictation”) is the destination where the presentation moves after the departure point:

3) Tom likes travelling.

4) Smoking is harmful for our health.

In examples 3 and 4, rheme is represented by “like travelling” and “is harmful for our health”.

- **The rheme** is what the writer/speaker says or writes about the theme.
- **The rheme** is the part of the utterance that pushes the communication forward.
- **Whilst the theme** contains information which in some way is retrievable to the reader and usually contextually dependent ...
- **The rheme** contains information which is **irretrievable** and **new**.

Examples of rhemes:

- i) And the tree broke at once into blossom, and the birds came and sang on it, and the little boy stretched out his two arms and (he) flung them round the Giant's neck, and (he) kissed him.
- ii) In the farthest corner of the garden was a tree quite covered with lovely white blossoms. Its branches were all golden, and underneath it stood the little boy that he had loved.

### **Handout 3. WHAT IS THE FUNCTION OF RHEME?**

We have been focussing mainly on Theme so far and Rheme has probably appeared to you as sth of an unimportant appendix. That is by no means so. Rheme performs a very important function in the text. By presenting New Information, Rheme *brings the text forward, i.e. it makes for progress/development* in text. If you look at our numbat text, you will see that the Themes tend to repeat themselves and are less varied (the numbat, it, it, it; different parts of the numbat's body),

whereas Rhemes are more varied, and thus are mostly responsible for progression in the text. *If one wants to know what aspects the text addresses, then one looks at the Theme; if one wants to know what point the text is making, then one has to look mainly in the Rheme.*

### **Handout 4. Theme-rheme order**

- The theme normally precedes the rheme.
- *English tends to order ‘given’ information before ‘new’ information in an utterance.*
- This organisation seems to respect our normal experiential and learning experiences in life.
- We use what we know as a base from which to learn about what we do not know,

Theme and rheme help us understand how information is conveyed in clauses. Writers put the Theme first and this orients the reader to what is about to be communicated. The rest of the clause tells the reader something about the Theme and this 'rest of the clause' is called the rheme. New information, which is the focus of the message, usually comes at the end of the clause or sentence. Writers usually begin sentences by referring to information known by the reader ('given information', which is not always exactly the same as the Theme) and then add the new information. Writers use Theme and rheme to highlight information. The rheme in one sentence frequently becomes the Theme in the following sentence.

**Theme in declarative sentences** Unmarked (Theme = Subject):

- a. **The two Indians** stood waiting.
- b. **Nick and his father** went into the stern of the boat.
- c. **The Indian who was rowing them** was working very hard.
- d. **But I** will have some photographs taken.
- e. **Oh, you're** a great man.
- f. **No, I** think it's pretty easy.
- g. **There** was no need of that.
- h. **Of course it's** an accident.

Marked (Theme  $\neq$  Subject):

- a. **Across the bay** they found the other boat.
- b. **In February 1979** he was awarded the George Cross posthumously.
- c. **And when you get down there** you find he hasn't actually got any.
- d. **Inside him** was rising an urge to do something, take some action.
- e. **That** I don't know.
- f. **What she had felt** he never knew.
- g. **Most troubling of all to some social scientists** is the message men get that being a good father means learning how to mother.

**Theme in interrogative sentences**

1. Polarity (*yes/no*) questions: unmarked Theme = finite + Subject
  - a. **Are you** interested in syntax?
  - b. **Would you** like a cup of tea?
  - c. **Oh, so is that** your plan?
  - d. **But don't any of the artist-folk** fancy children?
  - e. **By the way, were you** serious about moving to Milton Keynes?
1. *Wh*-questions: unmarked Theme = *Wh*-word
  - a. **What** are you doing here?
  - b. **Where** are we going?
  - c. **Then, in the name of goodness, why** does she bother?
  - d. **If it's true that contented cows give more milk, why** shouldn't happy ball players produce more base hits?

**Theme in imperative sentences**

- a. **Wake** me up before the coffee break.
- b. **Don't disturb** me while I'm taking a nap.
- c. **Let's have** a look at this recipe.
- d. **Oh please stop** it.

## Theme in clause complexes

When	Philippa	reached	number 41	she	stopped
Theme				Rheme	
structural	topical	Rheme		Theme	Rheme
Theme					

1. As soon as she had pressed the doorbell – it let out a musical jingle – Philippa sensed that the house was empty.
2. Resisting the temptation to peer through the letter-box, she decided to try next door.
3. At least they would know whether Ducton still lived at 41 or where he had gone.

Week 7 (14+16. March): «More on thematic analysis»: Multiple Theme; Predicated Theme; Theme and given/new; Theme in texts (article by P. Fries)

## Handout 5. Hallidayan theme: first element of structure.

### Hallidayan Theme: first element of structure (except conjunctions)

Theme	Rheme
In 1470	the Columbus Family moved to Savona, where Domenico took over a tavern.
In the same year,	Columbus was on a Genoese ship hired in the service of René I of Anjou to support his attempt to conquer the Kingdom of Naples.
In 1473	Columbus began his apprenticeship as business agent for the important Centurione, Di Negro and Spinola families of Genoa.
Later	He allegedly made a trip to Chios, a Genoese colony in the Aegean Sea.
In May 1476,	He took part in an armed convoy sent by Genoa to carry a valuable cargo to northern Europe.
He	docked in Bristol, Galway, in Ireland and was possibly in Iceland in 1477.
In 1479	Columbus reached his brother Bartolomeo in Lisbon, keeping on trading for the Centurione family.
He	married Filipa Moniz Perestrello, daughter of the Porto Santo governor, the Portuguese nobleman of Genoese origin Bartolomeu Perestrello.
In 1479 or 1480,	his son Diego was born.

## Handout 6. Theme–Rheme analysis of some sentences:

- 1) Newspaper article (from *The Daily Telegraph*, Feb 10, 1999)

Theme	Rheme
Parts of Northern Britain	were brought to a standstill by heavy snow and ice yesterday with roads closed and dangerous driving conditions.

Scotland	was worst hit.
Two hundred schools	were closed in Aberdeenshire, <u>where</u> roads were impassable,
and more than seven inches of snow	was recorded at Aberdeen airport.
An injured climber	survived 18 hours in sub-zero temperatures clinging to an ice-covered ledge after falling 400ft in Glencoe.
Lawrence Reeve, 40, a computer operator from Chessington, Surrey,	was recovering in hospital yesterday after suffering severe facial injuries, a punctured lung and frostbite.
The lone walker	was making his way along a ridge <u>when</u> he fell into Glen Cam, striking a boulder <u>which</u> saved him from a further drop of 300ft.

2) From A.A. Milne: Winnie-the-Pooh:

Theme	Rheme
Once upon a time, a very long time ago now, about last Friday	Winnie-the-Pooh lived in a forest all by himself under the name of Sanders.
One day <u>when</u> he was out walking	he came to an open place in the middle of the forest
and in the middle of this place	was a very large oak tree
and from the top of the tree	there came a large buzzing noise.
Winnie-the-Pooh	sat down at the foot of the tree,
	put his head between his paws
And	began to think.
First of all	he said to himself
«That buzzing noise	means something.
You	don't get a buzzing noise like that, just buzzing and buzzing, <u>without its</u> meaning something.
<u>If there's</u> a buzzing noise,	<u>somebody's</u> making a buzzing noise
and the only reason for making a buzzing noise <u>that</u> I know of	is because <u>you're</u> a bee.»
Then	he thought for another long time
And	Said
«And the only reason for being a bee that I know of	is making honey.»

And then	he got up,
And	Said
«And the only reason for making honey	is so as I can eat it.»
So he	began to climb the tree.

### Activity 1. Testing Definition Of Theme And Rheme In Text

*The Themes are in bold in the text below and the Rhemes are everything that is not the Theme. Let's consider the Themes and Rhemes in the text and decide if the definition of them applies:*

(1) **The numbat** is a slender marsupial mammal with a pointed muzzle and short erect ears. || (2) Its coat is grey-brown to reddish brown, with about eight transverse white stripes on the rump. || (3) **The eye** has a black stripe through it || (4) and the long bushy tail is yellowish. || (5) **The teeth** are small. || (6) **The tongue** is extensible, as in all mammalian ant- or termite eaters, || (7) and the forefeet are strong-clawed for digging. || (8) Most marsupials are active during the night. || (9) The numbat is active during the day...

**Answer:** Testing Definition Of Theme And Rheme In Text – Comments

The Themes “the teeth”, “the tongue”, “and the forefeet”, “most marsupials” and “the numbat”, for example, represent the point of departure of their respective clauses, link them to the context (as they all relate to the same field = numbat) and to preceding clauses (as they are all related to the numbat or different parts of its body), and represent given information (presented before, as in the case of “the numbat”, or shared because field is shared, as in the case of all the Themes that relate to parts of the numbat’s body). They are prominent in the clause given their initial position and given information nature. It’s interesting to see how in producing and, consequently, in processing text we move from the known (Given/Shared Information) to what’s new (New Information) as this obviously facilitates processing.

**Activity 2. In the following paragraphs, the first and last sentences are correct. Rewrite the middle sentences of to put the *theme* at the beginning and the *rheme* at the end of the sentences.**

#### Paragraph 1

Atoms of all elements consist of a central nucleus surrounded by a «cloud» containing one or more electrons. We can think of these electrons as occupying a series of well-defined shells. The number of electrons in its outermost shells determines the behaviour of a particular element. Other factors, such as the total number of electron shells, also play a part in determining behaviour but it is the dominance of the outer electron configuration that underlies the periodic law and justifies the grouping of the elements into groups or families.

#### Paragraph 2

Every substance contains a certain amount of heat, even a relatively cold substance such as ice. The substance's molecules are in continual motion and, by this motion, possess kinetic energy which produces heat. The average kinetic energy of the molecules are measured by temperature. Cooling to the point at which molecular movement ceases completely should thus be possible. Scientists are very interested in this point, absolute zero, but it is in practice unattainable. At temperatures close to absolute zero some materials exhibit remarkable properties, such as superconductivity and superfluidity.

#### Paragraph 3

Nauru is so small that the plane lands in what is best described as the capital's main street. To stop cars when planes are landing the seaward side of the runway has traffic lights at each

end. Well-fed and brightly clothed Naurans crowd the tiny air terminal with their smart cars. The only hotel, the luxurious Menen, is a 10-minute drive half way round the island and is where new arrivals are driven off in Japanese minibuses. The well-paved road passes rows of neat, modern houses, set among the trees.

(David Lascelles, *The Financial Times*)

#### **Paragraph 4**

The most striking example of value rigidity I can think of is the old south Indian Monkey Trap, which depends on value rigidity for its effectiveness. A hollowed-out coconut chained to a stake makes the trap. A monkey can put its hand through a small hole in the coconut and grab some rice inside. The monkey can put its hand into the hole but cannot take its fist out with rice in it. The monkey's value rigidity traps it when it reaches in. The rice cannot be revalued. He cannot see that freedom without rice is more valuable than capture with it.

#### **Answers to exercise**

These are the original paragraphs

#### **Paragraph 1**

Atoms of all elements consist of a central nucleus surrounded by a «cloud» containing one or more electrons. The electrons can be thought of as occupying a series of well-defined shells. The behaviour of a particular element depends largely on the number of electrons in its outermost shells. Other factors, such as the total number of electron shells, also play a part in determining behaviour but it is the dominance of the outer electron configuration that underlies the periodic law and justifies the grouping of the elements into groups or families.

#### **Paragraph 2**

Every substance contains a certain amount of heat, even a relatively cold substance such as ice. The heat is the result of the continual motion of the substance's molecules which, by that motion, possess kinetic energy. Temperature is a measurement of the average kinetic energy of the molecules. The cooler a substance becomes the less its molecules move. Thus it should be possible to continue cooling to the point at which molecular movement ceases completely. This point, absolute zero, is of great interest to scientists but in practice is unattainable. At temperatures close to absolute zero some materials exhibit remarkable properties, such as superconductivity and superfluidity.

#### **Paragraph 3**

Nauru is so small that the plane lands in what is best described as the capital's main street. The seaward side of the runway has traffic lights at each end to stop cars when planes are landing. The tiny air terminal is crowded with well-fed and brightly clothed Naurans with their smart cars. New arrivals are driven off in Japanese minibuses for the 10-minute drive half way round the island to the only hotel, the luxurious Menen. The well-paved road passes rows of neat, modern houses, set among the trees.

(David Lascelles, *The Financial Times*)

#### **Paragraph 4**

The most striking example of value rigidity I can think of is the old south Indian Monkey Trap, which depends on value rigidity for its effectiveness. The trap consists of a hollowed-out coconut chained to a stake. The coconut has some rice inside which can be grabbed through a small hole. The hole is big enough so that the monkey's hand can go in, but too small for his fist

with rice in it to come out. The monkey reaches in and is suddenly trapped - by nothing more than his own value rigidity. He can't revalue the rice. He cannot see that freedom without rice is more valuable than capture with it.

(Robert Pirsig, *Zen and the art of motorcycle maintenance*)

### Lesson 7

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Cohesion (Using lexis and etc.)</i>	
<b>Time:</b> 2 hours	<b>The number of students:</b> 15-16
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of lexical cohesion in discourse text</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze naturally occurring spoken data using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand the different modes of lexical cohesion and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic;</li> <li>4. To give definition to the terms;</li> <li>5. To get information from the texts;</li> </ol>	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of lexical approach in discourse texts</li> <li>4. To apply that knowledge in analyzing different types of lexical cohesion</li> <li>5. To transcribe and analyse a lexical cohesion using one more approaches to discourse analysis covered in the course.</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)



### The technological schedule of practical lesson 7

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions: What is lexis? What is cohesion? 3. Asks the hometask	1. Students asks the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students the theme: Lexical cohesion in discourse texts (handout 1). Cohesion in its broadest sense is “a semantic relation between an element in [a] text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it” . It is basically the glue that holds a <u>text</u> together and makes the difference between an unrelated set of sentences and a set of sentences forming a unified whole. Lexical cohesion differs from the other cohesive elements in text in that it is non-grammatical. Lexical cohesion refers to the “cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary” 2.2 Give information about the kinds of lexical cohesion (handout 2): Reiteration: repetition synonym superordinate general word Collocation: synonym & superordinate opposites same order series part-whole 2.3 Tells about cohesion and coherence analysis in applied linguistics (handout 3)	2.1 Students get information about lexical cohesion in discourse texts.  2.2 Know about the kinds of lexical cohesion  2.3 Give information about cohesion and coherence analysis in applied linguistics  2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Discusses the differences in lexical cohesion and its types.  3.2 Gives hometask	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.  3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.  3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

## Handout 1. Lexical cohesion

Cohesion in its broadest sense is “a semantic relation between an element in [a] text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it” (HALLIDAY & HASAN 1994:8). It is basically the glue that holds a text together and makes the difference between an unrelated set of sentences and a set of sentences forming a unified whole.

Lexical cohesion differs from the other cohesive elements in text in that it is non-grammatical. Lexical cohesion refers to the “cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary” We could say that it covers any instance in which the use of a lexical item recalls the sense of an earlier one.

The two basic categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation.

Reiteration is the repetition of an earlier item, a synonym, a near synonym, a superordinate or a general word, but it is not the same as personal reference, because it does not necessarily involve the same identity.

After the sequence:

I saw a boy in the garden. The boy (repetition) was climbing a tree. I was worried about the child (superordinate). The poor lad (synonym) was obviously not up to it. The idiot (general word) was going to fall if he (pronoun) didn't take care.

We could conclude by saying: “Boys can be so silly”. This would be an instance of reiteration, even though the two items would not be referring to the same individual(s)

As we have already seen, collocation pertains to lexical items that are likely to be found together within the same text. It occurs when a pair of words are not necessarily dependent upon the same semantic relationship but rather they tend to occur within the same lexical environment.

Examples

Opposites (man/woman, love/hate, tall/short).

Pairs of words from the same ordered series (days of the week, months, etc.)

Pairs of words from unordered lexical sets, such as meronyms:

part-whole (body/arm, car/wheel)  
part-part (hand/finger, mouth/chin)  
or  
co-hyponyms (black/white, chair/table).

Associations based on a history of co-occurrence (rain, pouring, torrential).

*John drove up in his old estate wagon. The car had obviously seen a lot of action. One hubcap was missing, and the exhaust pipe was nearly eaten up with rust.*

Lexical cohesion is not only a relation between pairs of words. It usually operates by means of lexical chains that run through a text and are linked to each other in various ways.

The notion of lexical cohesion provides the basis for what Halliday and Hasan call *instantial meaning*.

The importance of this concept for translators is obvious. Lexical chains do not only provide cohesion, they also determine the sense of each word in a given context. For example, if it co-occurs with terms such as “universe, stars, galaxy, sun”, the word “earth” must be interpreted as “planet” and not as “ground”.

## Handout 2. Kinds of Lexical cohesion

(i) **Reiteration:** repetition of a lexical item in various forms

- **repetition:** same word(s)

(25) There was a large **mushroom** growing near her, about the same height as herself; and, when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look and see what was on the top of it... She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of *the mushroom*... { }

- **synonym:**

(26) Accordingly... I took leave, and turned to the **ascent** of the peak. The **climb** is perfectly easy...

- **superordinate:** as summation of hyponyms

(27) There was a fine old *rocking-chair* that his father used to sit in, a *desk* where he wrote letters, a nest of small *tables* and a dark, imposing *bookcase*. Now all this **furniture** was to be sold, and with it his own past.

- **general word:**

(28) Can you tell me where to stay in *Vancouver*? I've never been to the **place** before.

Other examples: Human: *people, person, man, woman, child, boy, girl*

Non-human animate: *creature*

Inanimate concrete count: *thing, object*

Inanimate concrete mass: *stuff*

Inanimate abstract: *business, affair, matter*

Action: *move*

Place: *place*

Fact: *question, idea*

(29) There's a **boy** climbing that elm.

- a. The **boy**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- b. The **lad**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- c. The **child**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- d. The **idiot**'s going to fall if he doesn't take care.

- e. That **elm** isn't very safe.
- f. That **tree** isn't very safe.
- g. That old **thing** isn't very safe.

(ii) **Collocation:** association of lexical items that regularly co-occur due to some recognizable lexico-semantic relation, such as

- **synonym & superordinate** e.g. co-hyponyms: *red: green*
- **opposites**
  - complementarities: *boy: girl; stand up: sit down*
  - antonyms: *like: hate; large: small*
  - converses: *order: obey; buy: sell*
- **same order series** e.g. *Monday, Tue., Wed.; north, south*
- **part-whole**
  - part-to-whole: *brake: car; lid: box*
  - part-to-part: *mouth: chin; verse: chorus*

**General principle:** Lexical cohesion is created if items which tend to appear in the same lexical environment (i.e. sharing similar patterns of collocation) occur in adjacent sentences.

### Handout 3. Cohesion and coherence analysis in applied linguistics

«... I had stroke... blood pressure... low pressure... period... Ah... pass out... Uh... Rosa and I, and... friends... of mine... uh... uh... shore... uh drink, talk, pass out...»

«...Hahnemann Hospital... uh, uh I... uh uh wife, Rosa... uh... take... uh... love... ladies... uh Ocean uh Hospital and transfer Hahnemann Hospital ambulance... uh... half'n hour... uh... uh it's... uh... motion, motion... uh... bad... patient... I uh... flat on the back... um... it's... uh... shaved, shaved... nurse, shaved me... uh... shaved me, nurse... [sigh]... wheel chair... uh... Hahnemann Hospital... a week, a week... uh... then uh... strength... uh... mood... uh... up... uh... legs and arms, left side uh... weak... and... Moss Hospital... two week... no, two months...»

### Conclusion:

- Lexical cohesion is more basic than grammatical cohesion;
- However, without grammatical cohesion, even coherent discourse becomes laborious, clumsy, and faltered;
- Possible project: analyze cohesion & coherence of child language, second language, aphasics, or pidgin

## Lesson 8

<b>Theme:</b> Coherence ( <i>Modality in discourse text</i> )	
<b>Time:</b> 2 hours	<b>The number of students:</b> 15-16
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of modality in discourse text.</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze naturally modality in discourse text using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand the different modes of modality in discourse text and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>

<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;.	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> 1. To explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. To apply this ability to the analysis of modality in discourse text; 3. To demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of modality in discourse text,
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 8

<b>Activities and time management</b>	<b>The plot of the action</b>	
	<b>Teacher</b>	<b>student</b>
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks questions 3. What is modality? 4. Asks the hometask	1. Students answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students the theme: modality in discourse text. (handout 1) Modality may be defined as the manner in which the meaning of a clause is qualified so as to reflect the speaker's judgment of the likelihood of the proposition it expresses being true. Mood refers to a grammatical category of the verb which has a modal function and is expressed inflectionally (distinct sets of verbal paradigms). Modality is a semantic category belonging to elements of meaning that language expresses. 2.2 Gives information about types of modality: Huddleston sees two central branches in modal logic and these are possibility and necessity. Both of these notions have two kinds - epistemic and deontic.(handout 2) 2.3 Tells about ways of expressing epistemic modality. (handout 3) Epistemic modality can be expressed by a variety of linguistic forms, such as epistemic phrases, adverbs, adjectives, nouns, lexical	2.1 Students get information about modality in discourse text 2.2 Get information about types of modality 2.3 Know about ways of expressing epistemic modality 2.4 Know about marginal modals, modal idioms 2.5 Get information about epistemic vs. deontic meaning of modal verbs 2.6 Do the activities

	<p>verbs and participial forms.</p> <p>2.4 tells about marginal modals. (handout 4) There are four marginal modals, namely 'dare', 'need', 'used to', 'ought to'.</p> <p>2.5 Gives information about modal idioms. (Handout 5) This group of usually four members 'had better', 'would rather/sooner', 'be to', 'have got to' is listed in Quirk et al. (1985). Only 'have got to' and 'be to' (in special cases) are able to express epistemic modality.</p> <p>2.6 Tells about epistemic vs. deontic meaning of modal verbs (handout 6)</p> <p>2.7 Will have the students do the activities</p>	
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses the differences in epistemic and deontic modality</p> <p>3.2 Gives the hometask</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

### Handout 1. What is modality

Modality may be defined as the manner in which the meaning of a clause is qualified so as to reflect the speaker's judgment of the likelihood of the proposition it expresses being true. Mood refers to a grammatical category of the verb which has a modal function and is expressed inflectionally (distinct sets of verbal paradigms). Modality is a semantic category belonging to elements of meaning that language expresses.

### Handout 2. Types of Modality

One can find many different opinions dealing with how to divide modality into subcategories. Most authors whose books contain wider view on English grammar present rather simple distinction, but this thesis focuses also on authors dealing exclusively with modality and considers more or less minor opinions from journal articles. The following paragraphs investigate throughout reference sources and offer several solutions.

Huddleston (1984) sees two central branches in modal logic and these are possibility and necessity. Both of these notions have two kinds - epistemic and deontic. The difference is visible from the following Table 1 (Examples of epistemic and deontic modality according to Huddleston (1984, p. 166):

	Epistemic	Deontic
<b>Possibility</b>	A: You <u>may</u> be under a misapprehension.	B: You <u>may</u> take as many as you like.
<b>Necessity</b>	C: You <u>must</u> be out of your mind.	D: You <u>must</u> work harder.

Epistemic modality in A and C applies to the proposition that you are under a misapprehension (A) or that you are out of your mind (C) and the issue is whether or not the proposition is true (p. 167). By contrast, deontic modality in B and D has the character of an action and the issue is whether something is going to be done (p. 168).

When talking about modals, terms extrinsic and intrinsic modality are used in Quirk et al. (1985). These terms do, in fact, mark epistemic and deontic modality respectively. The authors' distinction is based on semantic meaning of the modal verbs which may be divided into two types:

(a) «Those such as permission, obligation, and volition which involve some kind of intrinsic human control over events, and

(b) Those such as possibility, necessity, and prediction, which do not primarily involve human control of events, but do typically involve human judgement of what is or is not likely to happen» (p. 219).

Quirk et al. (1985) are aware of varying terminology between individual authors. «In place of intrinsic and extrinsic modality, other terminologies, such as modulation and modality, or root and epistemic modality, are widespread. (...) Another term widely used for the modality of obligation and permission is deontic.

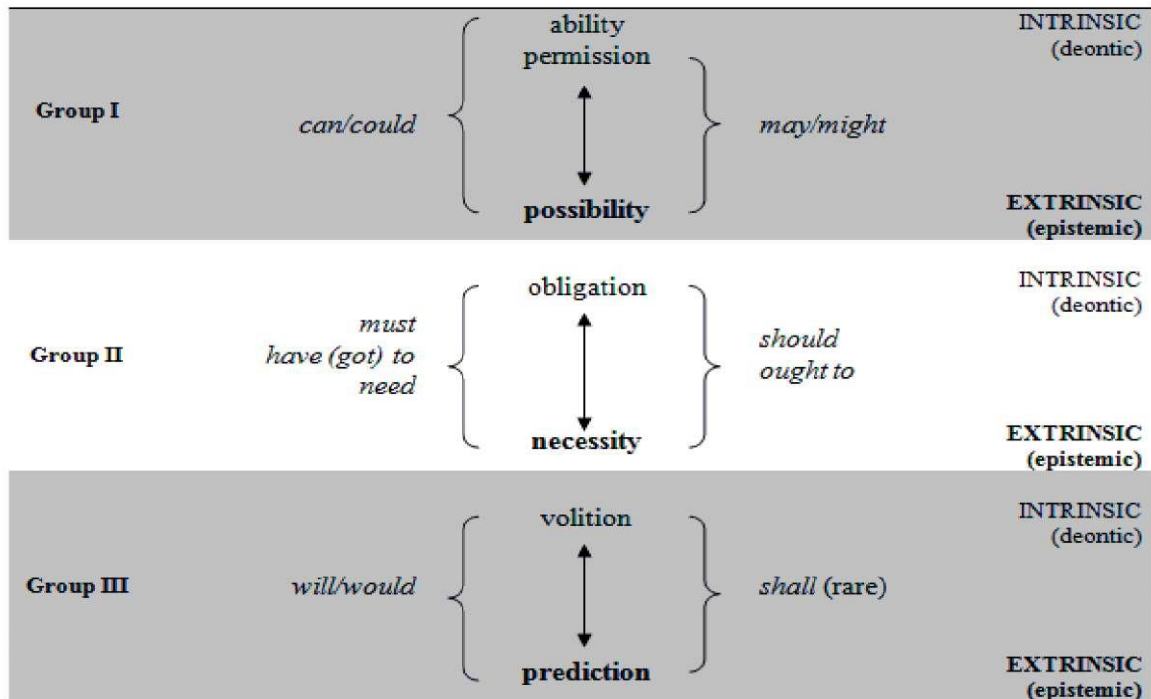
Epistemic modality (together with deontic) is «central from the point of view of natural language and is also grammaticized in the system of English.

Epistemic modality can be divided into several types. For example Quirk et al. (1985) distinguishes possibility (usually expressed by modal 'may'), necessity (expressed by modal 'must') and prediction (expressed by modal 'will'). Karkkainen (2003) summarizes that «the types of epistemic modalities most commonly distinguished by many of the above scholars are possibility, probability and (inferred) certainty, whether they make reference to truth in their initial definition of epistemic modality or not»

See Table 2 for the clear depiction of modals and their types of epistemic modality (in bold) taken and edited according to Quirk et al. (1985).

Table 2: Meanings of the modals - edited according to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 221).

### Meanings of the modals



### Handout 3. Ways of expressing epistemic modality.

Epistemic modality can be expressed by a variety of linguistic forms, such as epistemic phrases, adverbs, adjectives, nouns, lexical verbs and participial forms.

The most discussed grammatical expressions of epistemic modality between linguists are modal auxiliaries, commonly known as modal verbs or just modals. Duskova et al. (1988) list 'can', 'could', 'may', 'might', 'will', 'would', 'must', 'should' and 'ought to' as modals expressing epistemic modality.

The category of modal verbs will be separated into four subchapters: central modals, marginal modals, modal idioms and semi-auxiliaries according to Quirk et al.

Central modals have several specific features that set them aside from lexical verbs. According to Duskova et al. (1988) the negation of modals is formed by simply adding the negative particle 'not' or reduced *-n't*. For instance: 'must not', 'mustn't'. Secondly, the interrogatives are formed by inversion without the auxiliary 'do'. For example: Can you sing? Modal verbs also stand for the whole predication similarly to auxiliary verbs: Your room should be cleaned. - No, it shouldn't.

Central modals are followed by bare infinitive without 'to': He can be late. modals have only definite forms and usually two - present and preterite (can/could, may/might...) which function as conditionals. Infinitive and other forms are expressed by suppletive (periphrastic) forms (can - be able to, may - be allowed to, must - have to, be obliged to etc.). Modals also do not create passive forms.

Can / could.

The epistemic 'can' expresses possibility or to be more specific, it expresses the possibility of the idea - theoretical. It is illustrated on the example: The railways can be improved. It says that «in theory the railways are improvable, i.e. that they are not perfect», in this sense 'can' is generally paraphrasable by 'it is possible' followed by an infinitive clause. In its negative form 'cannot' or less formal 'can't' utter impossibility and negative certainty. Example: He can't be at home! (= It is impossible that he is at home.). «Epistemic 'cannot' is the opposite of epistemic 'must'» 'Can' is commonly used in questions: Can he be at home? (= Is it possible that he is at home?). The past tense is expressed by adding past infinitive of the lexical verb to



the present form of 'can/cannot'. It is usually used as an opposite of positive 'must': He must have been at home. R He can't have been at home.

May / might.

The best way to demonstrate the epistemic meaning of 'may' is to compare it with the epistemic 'can' above. 'May' also expresses possibility but in this case the possibility of the fact – factual. Thus the exemplar sentence will be: The railways may be improved. There could be already some plans for improvement of the railways. This kind of possibility is stronger than the theoretical one, The exemplar sentence becomes: It is possible that the railways will be improved. The negation is formed normally with 'may not' and in this case the modal verb keeps its meaning of epistemic possibility: He may not be at home. (= It is possible that he is not at home.). «Epistemic 'may' is used only in declarative clauses, questions are formed with 'can' (could, might): Can it be true?» Past tense usually expresses present possibility of something that happened in the past: Peter may have lied. (= It is possible that Peter lied.)

Must.

'Must' in its epistemic sense «implies that the speaker judges the proposition expressed by the clause to be necessarily true, or to have a high likelihood of being true» The meaning of 'must' is logical necessity or certainty. For example: Peter must be ill. The speaker observed that Peter has been coughing and sneezing all day long, blowing his nose and drinking some tea. As already quoted above, «epistemic 'cannot' is the opposite of epistemic 'must'. To use the same example: Peter can't be ill, he went swimming in the afternoon. Nevertheless, epistemic 'must' appears in questions. For instance: What must he think? . When speaking about past tense, epistemic 'must' together with past infinitive express certainty about the past. In sentences like: John must have missed the train. (= It is almost certain that John missed the train.)

Should.

This modal verb «can be regarded as weaker equivalent of 'must'» . The meaning of 'should' expresses probability. Illustrative example: Michael should be at his apartment by now. It can be paraphrased in several ways, for instance: Michael is probably at his apartment, but I'm not certain. It is very likely that Michael is at his apartment. When referring to the future it is only possible to use 'should': They should know the answer tomorrow. The second difference results from the cause/consequence inversion. This is permitted only in case of 'must': She is an experienced teacher, she must/should know how to deal with a naughty child. R She knows how to deal with a naughty child, she must be an experienced teacher. Negation is naturally expressed by 'shouldn't': There shouldn't be any problems. Questions with 'should' are rather rare: Should there be any problems in getting to the station by car?

Will / would.

Epistemic 'will' stands for the idea of probability which has the present predictive sense. That will be the postman. [on hearing the doorbell ring] As illustrated in the given example, the speaker judges according to the time and situation, that the person standing behind the door is the postman. The usage of 'will' is similar in meaning to 'must' in its logical necessity» . John must be in the garage. (= the lights are on) R John will be in the garage. (= From previous knowledge why the lights were on, we infer that John is in the garage.) Apart from 'must', 'will' can make predictions about the future: John will have arrived by tomorrow.

«'Would' as means of epistemic modality marks probable events (deduction of the speaker). In compare to epistemic 'will' is the degree of likelihood lower» (Duskova et al., 1988). Compare: Who is the man standing over there? - That will be Mark. (= no doubt) R That would be Mark. (= I expect). The past tense is also possible: It would have been around 5 pm when I arrived home.

Shall.

The general meaning of epistemic 'shall' is that someone/something is disposed towards something. Epistemic use of 'shall' with 1<sup>st</sup> person subject - prediction. 'Shall' here functions as the future use of 'will' in formal style. Example: According to the opinion polls, I shall win quite easily.

#### **Handout 4. Marginal modals.**

There are four marginal modals, namely 'dare', 'need', 'used to', 'ought to'. From the list only 'ought to' has the ability to express epistemic modality. There are several mutual features with central modals. Firstly, the same auxiliary negation by adding 'not' to the verb (needn't, oughtn't to...). Secondly, interrogative inversion without 'do' in yes/no questions.

Ought to.

Marginal auxiliary 'ought to' is less frequent than its synonym 'should'. It also expresses potential probability and its meaning is related to that of epistemic 'must'. For example: We oughtn't to have any problems. or Michael ought to be in the garage right now. Same as 'should', 'ought to' appears in clauses referring to the future: The job ought to be finished by Monday.

#### **Handout 5. Modal idioms.**

This group of usually four members 'had better', 'would rather/sooner', 'be to', 'have got to' is listed in Quirk et al. (1985). Only 'have got to' and 'be to' (in special cases) are able to express epistemic modality.

Have got to.

«Its epistemic meaning of logical necessity (cf. 'must') is rather more emphatic than 'must', and is found chiefly in American English» (Quirk et al., 1985). For instance: There has got to be some reasonable solution.

Be to.

Duskova et al. (1988) thinks that 'be to' can express epistemic possibility in connection with passive infinitive. The type of modality results from verbal semantics and context. Example: This novel is to be bought in paperback edition. (= can be bought).

Have to.

Quirk et al. (1985) compare its meaning to the meaning of 'must' (logical necessity) and see its occurrence especially in past constructions where 'must' cannot occur. For example: There must be some solution to the problem. R There had to be some solution to the problem. 'Have to' together with 'have got to' express sometimes stronger meaning of logical necessity than 'must': There has (got) to be some solution!

Lexical ways of expressing epistemic modality (stance adverbials).

Adverb phrase.

The main difference, when comparing stance adverbs to the other lexical ways of expressing epistemic modality, is the absence of any explicit subjective element (I/me) indicating that it is the personal stance of the speaker (Karkkainen, 2003). Both Karkkainen (2003) and Biber et al. (1999) state according to their research, that adverbs are the most frequent markers of epistemic stance in spoken English. They agreed on six most frequent adverbs: 'maybe', 'probably', 'of course', 'perhaps', 'certainly', 'definitely'. The success is based on their great syntactic mobility. The speaker can insert them whenever during the proposition (Karkkainen, 2003:46). Here is a list of the epistemic stance adverbs listed in Quirk et al. (1985), Duskova et al. (1988) Leech and Svartvik (1975) and Biber et al. (1999).

(1) Certainty: admittedly, assuredly, avowedly, certainly, clearly, decidedly, definitely, evidently, incontestably, incontrovertibly, indeed, indisputably, indubitably, inevitably, manifestly, necessarily, obviously, of course, patently, plainly, really, surely, unarguably, unavoidably, undeniably, undoubtedly, unquestionably

Doubt or uncertainty: allegedly, arguably, apparently, conceivably, doubtless, likely, maybe, most likely, perhaps, possibly, presumably, purportedly, quite likely, reportedly, reputedly, seemingly, supposedly, very likely

Actuality and reality: actually, basically, essentially, factually, formally, fundamentally, hypothetically, ideally, nominally, officially, ostensibly, outwardly, really, superficially, technically, theoretically

Finite clause.

«These finite clauses usually have a 1<sup>st</sup> person pronoun subject and no subordinator, and are used explicitly to mark a proposition as the speaker's opinion, or to convey some level of personal doubt or certainty. When these expressions are integrated into the clause structure, they usually occur as a main clause taking a that-complement clause (e.g. I think that I will buy a new one.). When they are not integrated into the clause structure, they are finite clause stance adverbials (e.g. I will buy a new one I think.)» (Biber et al., 1999). Quirk et al. (1985) speak of comment clauses that have the ability to 'hedge' (i.e. to express the speaker's tentativeness over the truth value of the matrix clause). The lexical verb has usually the meaning of mental, perception, cognition or it is an utterance verb (she said, he told me...). They are relatively fixed epistemic formulas but may occur anywhere within the sentence (Karkkainen, 2003). Quirk et al. (1985) offer a list of both 'hedging' expression and expressions of speaker's certainty (p. 1114):

'Hedging' expressions: I believe, I guess, I think, I expect, I feel, I hear, I hope, I presume, I assume, I understand, I suppose, I consider, I suspect, I'm told, I have read, I have heard, I have heard tell, I can see, I may assume, I dare say, I venture to say, one hears, they tell me, they allege, they say, it is said, it is reported, it is claimed, it is rumoured, it has been claimed, it seems, it appears

Expressions of certainty: I know, I claim, I see, I remember, I agree, I admit, I'm sure, I'm convinced, I have no doubt, it's true, it transpires, there's no doubt, it is clear, it is certain, I must say, I must admit, I must tell you, I have to say, it is probable, it is likely, it is apparent

### **Handout 6. Epistemic vs. Deontic meaning of modal verbs**

- 1) You should learn French.  
a) advice b) obligation c) permission
- 2) He can read this book.  
a) certainty b) permission c) ability
- 3) She must be the new English teacher.  
a) obligation b) certainty c) advice

#### *Epistemic vs. Deontic meaning*

1.1) The mother comes into Robert's room and sees that he is playing computer instead of doing his homework for the following day.

*"You should learn French."*

obligation

1.2) John is talking with his friend Michael about his imminent stay in France. Michael says:

*"You should learn French before leaving Germany."*

advice

#### *Epistemic vs. Deontic vs. Dynamic meaning*

2.1) He has lived in France for several years, he studied the French language and so *he can read this book.*

certainty

2.2) It is right. He already asked me yesterday. *He can read this book.*

permission

2.3) He is 7 years old and learned reading at school. *He can read this book.*

ability

#### *Epistemic vs. Deontic meaning*

3.1) I saw the principal introducing her to the other teachers and she has Englishbooks in her hand. *She must be the new English teacher.*

certainty

3.2) We lack of personal and we have too much pupils here. There is no other solution, *she must be the new English teacher.*

obligation

#### *Epistemic vs. Deontic meaning*

- Many modals have different meanings depending on the context.
- The same modal can have an epistemic (expresses the speaker's opinion about the truth about a proposition), deontic (concerned with obligation, permission, offering, requesting, granting, commanding) or dynamic (expresses ability or willingness) meaning.

creates ambiguity

- e.g.: **CAN**

*Epistemic vs. Deontic vs. Dynamic*

- *I can do it.*

= POSSIBILITY (external circumstances allow me to do it)

- *I can do it.*

= ABILITY (inherent properties allow me to do it)

- *I can do it.*

= PERMISSION (human authority/rules allow me to do it)

*Epistemic vs. Deontic vs. Dynamic*

- every modal has mood and modality three modalities:

- epistemic,
- deontic,
- dynamic

three moods (verbs in general):

- indicative (stating),
- imperative (commanding, encouraging),
- subjunctive (wishing)

Extensions

- Deontic modality can be subdivided into:

1. directives (possibility): *you may leave* (necessity): *you must leave*

2. commissives (promises, undertakings): *you shall be rewarded*

3. imperatives: *Come in!*

4. others: volitives, evaluatives: *he won't go*

Extensions

Within these subdivisions of deontic modality there are different moods.

kinds of *directive modality*:

- deliberative mood ☐ *Shall I water the grass?*
- imperative ☐ *Stop!*
- jussive (signals a speaker's command, permission or agreement)
- obligative ☐ *You must do as I say.*
- permissive ☐ *You may have another cookie.*
- precative ☐ *May I use your telephone?*
- prohibitive (negated imperative)

Problem cases

### **MUST & HAVE TO:**

- Epistemically: little difference between *must* and *have to* (*He has to be home; there is his car/ He must be home; ...*)
- Deontically: *must* obliges the subject of the sentence to do sth. (*You must be home before 9 o'clock.*) *have to* does not have a strong deontic role
- Dynamically: distinction between *must* and *have to* creates confusion

### **OBLIGATION –MODALS**

A modal may express what the speaker feels is right morally or proper under the circumstances (actualization). The choice of modal may range from a weak suggestion to strong advice. Also called deontic modality.

You must not to be a unkind. (forbidden)

You could try to be a little nicer. (an idea, an option)  
You ought to try to be a little nicer. (mildly recommended)  
You should try to be a little nicer. (recommendation)  
You had better try to be a little nicer. (strongly recommended)  
You **must try** to be a little nicer. (obligation)  
**Be** a little nicer. (imperative)

Possibility

Weak to Strong

Possibility / Degree of Certainty — weak to strong

**POSSIBILITY / DEGREE OF CERTAINTY – MODAL**

A modal may also express a person's attitude toward *factuality* of a situation, the likelihood that a situation is true or false. One infers factuality from known details.

It **probably isn't** rain that I hear. (improbable)

It **might not be** rain that I hear.

It **could be** rain that I hear. (possible)

It **might be** rain that I hear.

It **may be** rain that I hear. (possible)

It **should be** rain that I hear. (probable, likely)

It **must be** rain that I hear. (probable, almost certain)

It **is** rain that I hear. (certain, fact)

**Activity 2. Choose the right one!**

- 1) They (*can/might*) be away for the weekend but I'm not sure.
- 2) You (*may/might*) leave now if you wish.
- 3) (*Could/May*) you open the window a bit, please?
- 4) He (*can/could*) be French, judging by his accent.
- 5) (*May/Can*) you play the piano?
- 6) Listen, please. You (*may not/ might not*) speak during this exam.
- 7) They (*can't/may not*) still be out!
- 8) You (*couldn't/might not*) smoke on the bus.
- 9) With luck, tomorrow(*can/could*) be a sunny day.
- 10) You (*can/might*) be right but I'm going back to check anyway.
- 11) The exam (*can/might*) be easy. You never know.
- 12) I(*can/might*)go to the party but I'm not sure yet.
- 13) Students (*may/might*) study in the library from five to nine in the evening.
- 14) (*May/Could*) you lend me 40 Euros til Monday?

Answers:

- 1) might 2) may 3) could 4) could 5) can 6) may not 7) can't 8) couldn't 9) could 10) might  
11) might 12) might 13) may 14) could

**Activity 3. Please paraphrase these sentences using modals.**

1. Suzanne has the ability to speak Spanish. Suzanne \_\_\_\_\_ speak Spanish.
2. I am reasonably certain that Francesca is home. Francesca \_\_\_\_\_ be home.
3. I am not very sure if he comes tomorrow. He \_\_\_\_\_ come tomorrow.
4. She isn't at home. I am sure she is in her office. She \_\_\_\_\_ be in her office.

## Lesson 9

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Spoken production: Language-in-action (talk accompanying doing, fixing, cooking, demonstrating, assembling)</i>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of register and signaling vocabulary</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze register and signaling vocabulary using the analytical methods introduced.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts; .	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The students will : <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of register and signaling vocabulary,</li> <li>2. To apply that knowledge in analyzing register and signaling vocabular.</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 9

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Greets the students</li> <li>2. Asks the hometask</li> <li>3. asks the questions about art</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students answer the questions</li> </ol>

<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students the theme: register and signaling vocabulary. Gives information about register and language (handout 1)  Language <b>register</b> is the level and style of your writing. It should be appropriate for the situation you are in.  The language register determines the vocabulary, structure, and some grammar in your writing.  The three most common language registers in writing are:  Formal  Informal  Neutral  Informal Language Register</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about register and signaling vocabulary.</p> <p>2.2 Get information about formal and informal language register</p> <p>2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<p>2.2 Gives informations about formal Language Register (handout 2)  Formal writing is probably the most difficult type of writing. It is impersonal, meaning it is not written for a specific person and is written without emotion.  Some kinds of writing are always written in formal English.  Formal writing includes:  Business Letters / Letters of complaint / Some essays / Reports / Official speeches  Announcements / Professional emails</p> <p>2.3 Tells about informal writing register: (handout 3) Informal writing is written in the way we talk to our friends and family. We use informal writing when we are writing to someone we know very well.  Some kinds of writing can be written in an informal style.  Informal writing includes: Personal e-mails / Phone texts / Short notes / Friendly letters  Most blogs / Diaries and journals</p> <p>There are no major rules to informal writing.  With informal writing, you can include things such as: Slang and clichés / Figurative language  Symbols and abbreviations / Acronyms / Incomplete sentences  Short sentences  First person, second person, and third person  Paragraphs or no paragraphs  Jokes  Personal opinions  Extra punctuation (Hi Bob!!!!!!)  Passive and active voice</p> <p>2.4 Will have the students do the activities</p>		
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses the differences in formal and informal language register</p> <p>3.2 Gives hometask</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

## Handout 1. Register

### Language Register

#### Formal, Informal, and Neutral

Language **register** is the level and style of your writing. It should be appropriate for the situation you are in.

The language register determines the vocabulary, structure, and some grammar in your writing. The three most common language registers in writing are:

Formal

Informal

Neutral

We use different language registers for different types of writing, just as we speak differently to different people. **You would not speak to the President of the United States the same way you would talk to your brothers.**

**To your brother:** What's up? It's awesome that you came to visit!

**To the President:** Good morning, Mr. President. We appreciate your visit.

The **formal register** is more appropriate for professional writing and letters to a boss or a stranger.

The **informal register** (also called casual or intimate) is conversational and appropriate when writing to friends and people you know very well.

The **neutral register** is non-emotional and sticks to facts. It is most appropriate for technical writings.

In articles such as these, we tend to mix the formal and informal registers to present the information in an easy to understand and personal tone.

Let's look closely at the three most common language registers used in the English language.

## Handout 2. Formal Language Register

- Formal writing is probably the most difficult type of writing. It is impersonal, meaning it is not written for a specific person and is written without emotion.

Some kinds of writing are always written in formal English.

### Formal writing includes:

Business Letters

- Letters of complaint
- Some essays
- Reports
- Official speeches
- Announcements
- Professional emails

There are many rules for writing in formal writing. We will discuss some of the most common rules here. When in doubt, check the rules in an APA style guide.

## Handout 3. Informal Language Register

- 

Informal writing is written in the way we talk to our friends and family. We use informal writing when we are writing to someone we know very well.



Some kinds of writing can be written in an informal style.

Informal writing includes: Personal e-mails / Phone texts / Short notes / Friendly letters / Most blogs / Diaries and journals

There are no major rules to informal writing.

With informal writing, you can include things such as: Slang and clichés / Figurative language / Symbols and abbreviations / Acronyms / Incomplete sentences / Short sentences / First person, / second person, and third person / Paragraphs or no paragraphs / Jokes / Personal opinions / Extra punctuation (Hi Bob!!!!!!) / Passive and active voice

#### **Handout 4. Rules of the informal language register:**

##### **1. Do not use contractions**

Contractions are not usually used in formal writing, even though they are very common in spoken English.

In formal writing, you should spell out contractions.

##### **Examples:**

In formal writing, you should use:

cannot instead of can't / have not instead of haven't / will not instead of won't / could not instead of couldn't / is not instead of isn't

These are just a few examples of contractions. See more contractions by following the contraction link above.

Contractions CAN be used if you are quoting someone's exact words in your writing. Example:

"Two-thirds of my eighth grade students can't read at grade level," the professor stated. Keep in mind that an apostrophe does not always make a contraction. Apostrophes are also added to nouns to show ownership. These are used in all language registers, including formal.

Examples:

- children's classroom / professor's report / elephant's trunk / Spell out numbers less than one hundred

##### **Examples:**

- nineteen / twenty-two / seventy-eight / six

##### **3. Write in third person point of view**

In formal writing, we usually do not use first person or second person unless it is a quote.

##### **Avoid using:**

- I / You / We / Us

##### **Examples:**

- **You** can purchase a car for under \$10,000. / **One** can purchase a car for under \$10,000.  
OR  
A car can be purchased for under \$10,000.

**You** will probably see an elephant on an African safari. **One** may see elephants on an African safari. OR Elephants are a common sight on African safaris. **We** decided to invest in the

company.

**The group** decided to invest in the company.

#### **4. Avoid using too much passive voice**

In formal writing it is better to use an **active voice**.

##### **Passive sentences:**

The bone was eaten by the dog.

The research was completed by the students in 2009.

##### **Active sentences:**

The dog ate the bone.

The students completed the research in 2009.

In 2009, the students completed the research.

For example, in a rule above I wrote, "Apostrophes are also added to nouns to show ownership."

I wrote this sentence in a passive voice.

To make it active, I could write:

"Additionally, add an apostrophe to a noun to show ownership."

OR

"Use apostrophes with nouns to show ownership."

#### **5. Avoid using slang, idioms, exaggeration (hyperboles) and clichés**

Slang is common in informal writing and spoken English. Slang is particular to a certain region or area.

##### **Examples of slang:**

- awesome/cool / okay/ok / check it out / in a nutshell

A cliché is a phrase that is overused (said too often).

##### **Common clichés:**

- too much of a good thing / moment of truth / Time is money.
- Don't push your luck. / Beauty is only skin deep.

#### **6. Avoid abbreviations and acronyms**

If you use an acronym or abbreviation, write it out the first time

When using acronyms, write the entire name out the first time it appears, followed by the acronym. From then on, you can use the acronym by itself.

##### **Examples:**

National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)

Kansas Department of Transportation (KDOT)

For abbreviations, write the complete word the first time, then use the abbreviation.

##### **Examples:**

- influenza => flu                      United States of America => U.S.A or USA
- tablespoon => tbsp.                Kansas => KS

Do not use slang abbreviations or symbols that you would use in friendly emails and texts.

Examples:

- LOL (laugh out loud) / ttyl (talk to you later) / b/c (because) / w/o (without) / w/ (with)

#### **7. Do not start sentences with words like *and, so, but, also***

Here are some good transition words and phrases to use in formal writing:

- Nevertheless / Additionally / However / In addition / As a result of / Although

#### **8. Always write in complete sentences.**

**9. Write longer, more complex sentences.****Correct matching**

How's it going?	I was wandering what you would like to do this evening?
Good flight?	It was very nice, but I couldn't eat any more.
Haven't seen you for ages!	Are you comfortable using chopsticks? I'm sure he'll bring a knife and fork if you'd like.
What have you been up to?	I'll have a scotch with ice, thanks.
What do you fancy doing tonight?	It was really nice meeting you.
Don't know about you, but I'm absolutely dying for a drink / something to eat.	And how is Mrs Jenkins keeping?
Where do you want to go to eat?	Is there any particular restaurant you have in mind?
Let's go to the Pyramids Cafe, in Soho.	There's rather a good cafe in Soho called, the Pyramids. Perhaps we might give that a try.
Let's jump in a cab.	Would you like a dessert?
I'll get this one – you can get the next one.	Have you been keeping well?
Sally OK?	I don't know what your plans are for the weekend,...but if you've got nothing on, we're going for a walk on Sunday, if you'd like to come.
What are you having?	Allow me to get this.
Mine's a scotch with ice, thanks.	How are you?
Let's order a couple of dishes each and kind of mix and match...	I wondered if you'd seen anything of Paul at all lately.
You OK with chopsticks?	Would you like cheese and biscuits?
Put your money away. My treat!	Perhaps the best thing is if we order a selection of dishes and share them.
How's yours?	How's the steak?
Nice watch. Where did you get it?	If I may say, that's a really nice looking watch. Could I ask you where you bought it?
Cheese and bikkies?	You can leave your coat in the cloakroom, if you'd like.
Pud?	It's quite some time since we last met.
Fancy going for a walk at the weekend?	Let me find a taxi.
Seen anything of Paul?	I trust you had a good flight.
Stick your coat over there in the cloakroom.	What would you like to drink?
I'm stuffed. Couldn't eat another mouthful.	I wouldn't mind getting something to eat / drink, if that's OK with you.
Great seeing you.	Let me get this. I insist.

<b>Answer: Informal</b>	<b>More formal</b>
How's it going?	How are you?
Good flight?	I trust you had a good flight.
Haven't seen you for ages!	It's quite some time since we last met.
What have you been up to?	Have you been keeping well?
What do you fancy doing tonight?	I was wondering what you would like to do this evening?
Don't know about you, but I'm absolutely dying for a drink / something to eat.	I wouldn't mind getting something to eat / drink, if that's OK with you.
Where do you want to go to eat?	Is there any particular restaurant you have in mind?
Let's go to the Pyramids Cafe, in Soho.	There's rather a good cafe in Soho called, the Pyramids. Perhaps we might give that a try.
Let's jump in a cab.	Let me find a taxi.
I'll get this one – you can get the next one.	Allow me to get this.
Sally OK?	And how is Mrs Jenkins keeping?
What are you having?	What would you like to drink?
Mine's a scotch with ice, thanks.	I'll have a scotch with ice, thanks.
Let's order a couple of dishes each and kind of mix and match...	Perhaps the best thing is if we order a selection of dishes and share them.
You OK with chopsticks?	Are you comfortable using chopsticks? I'm sure he'll bring a knife and fork if you'd like.
Put your money away. My treat!	Let me get this. I insist.
How's yours?	How's the steak?
Nice watch. Where did you get it?	If I may say, that's a really nice looking watch. Could I ask you where you bought it?
Cheese and bikkies?	Would you like cheese and biscuits?
Pud?	Would you like a dessert?
Fancy going for a walk at the weekend?	I don't know what your plans are for the weekend,...but if you've got nothing on, we're going for a walk on Sunday, if you'd like to come.
Seen anything of Paul?	I wondered if you'd seen anything of Paul at all lately.
Stick your coat over there in the cloakroom.	You can leave your coat in the cloakroom, if you'd like.
I'm stuffed. Couldn't eat another mouthful.	It was very nice, but I couldn't eat any more.
Great seeing you.	It was really nice meeting you.

**Activity1. Students look at the e-mailed response from the journal's editor. Working in a small groups find *field*, *tenor* and *mode* of the given text**

*The field* in which the text is situated is very generally academic publishing and accounts for the presence of words such as *spring issue*, *disk copy*, *production purposes*, *word processing program*.

The *tenor* is very formal, even frozen, influenced by the fact that neither of the participants have met, nor know much about each other's status. By addressing me as Professor, the writer avoids causing any offence. The use of highly indirect and modalized language (ie language using modal verbs such as *would*, *could*) is another way of creating a safe distance.

The *mode* is e-mail communication, usually a rather informal medium, but the writer uses the conventions of a formal letter, again, just to be on the safe side.

**Activity 2. Students identify the *field*, *tenor* and *mode* of each of these texts and, on that basis' the possible context in which the text was situated.**

Answers; In case students feel difficulties, making some prompts will be necessary. For text 1 the field is something like 'public notices of prohibition relating specifically to doors'; the tenor is distant, impersonal, official. The use of the passive voice in the first sentence is a convenient way of deleting any mention of writer or reader from the message. This is also characteristic of the mode, which is written. Notice, too, that expressions like 'this door is alarmed' would be very unlikely to occur in spoken language. The text in fact was a notice on a door in a hotel. Notice how words like *this* in texts (as in *this door*) often work as linguistic 'guy ropes', tying the text to its context of situation.

As brief as it is, the field of text 2 combines greetings and travel; the tenor is informal, (*hi, see you later*), suggesting a degree of intimacy; and the mode is written, or rather, electronic, since this is of course a text message. The conventions of text messaging, such as the use of abbreviations and ellipsis (leaving words out), are not simply a question of tenor (although most text messages are sent between friends), but are due to the constraints of the medium. Because text messaging is a kind of interaction that *almost* happens synchronously - that is in real time - it has to be done quickly. Like on-line chat, it is really more like speech than conventional writing. At the same time texting is relatively awkward, compared to, say, typing on a computer keyboard, and the length of text is severely curtailed. These mode effects mean that certain time-saving conventions quickly became established, which, combined with the informal tenor, have resulted in a distinctive unique configuration of register variables.

Text 3 which is, of course, the wedding vow, is a highly ritualized promise. **The field is** matrimony; the tenor - - **is** very formal, as befits the solemn and very public occasion. **The mode is** spoken, or, better, recitation, since it involves the speaking of a written text. Hence the text has the characteristics of written language, rather than spoken, and includes archaic and very literary language like 'till death us do part'. Both this text and the text message (text 3) demonstrate that some forms of written language are actually more like spoken language and vice versa. This in turn demonstrates the powerful influence of context on language in use

**Activity 3. Discussion. From the definitions of the REGISTER in Discourse students try to answer why we need to know *register*, how important for language learners to be familiar with the term *register*.**

Teacher may provide with examples in Uzbek and Russian e.g People in Tashkent use "*poylab turing*" instead of "wait", however the semantic meaning of this word - notice or observe, but in Andijan we say "*kutub turing*" which is word by word interpreted as "wait" or How are you? (Eng) Qanaqasiz? (Uz) *Qandaysiz?* (Andijan Uz). Using Greetings Uz *Assalomu Alaykum!* (formal, when there is great differences in age or position, show the sign of politeness and respect) *Salom* (informal, among friends)

The English word “face”- in Uzbek - chehra, yuz, bashara, but used in different context has different register) In formal Uzbek has some of synonyms,  
English: *boy*-neutral (for informal and formal situations)

*Chap, guy, mate*- informal, among friend

*Fellow* – formal use

*Russian Здравствуйте*-neutral

*Привет!*-informal, among friends

*Как дела?*-informal

*Добрый день* (утро, вечер) – formal

Even without any special preparation students can be able to talk about REGISTER in their native and English language.

#### **Activity 4: Formal and informal language: making announcements**

##### **Situation:**

*You have called a short meeting of colleagues to make a number of short announcements.*

*Look at your notes below and decide what you are going to say.*

##### (1) Introduce the meeting

Changes to remote log in system for the company computer network. From Monday staff use security number on plastic card (they were given this last week). Remind them to keep it with them. If they don't have the number they can't log on.

Parking problems over past week. Do not park cars in front of green gate to left of car park – it must be kept clear for deliveries.

Christmas arrangements: time of Christmas party changed from Tue 18<sup>th</sup> Dec – Thur 20<sup>th</sup> Dec. Starts at 8. Husbands, wives etc. encouraged to come.

*Now look at these two possible ways of making the announcements.*

*Which do you think is best? Why?*

*Note down the differences in vocabulary, phrases and grammar.*

##### **Example 1**

Good afternoon, ladies and gentlemen. We are gathered here today to discuss some minor matters relating to the company's operation.

The first point on the agenda relates to the remote log-in system for our company's computer network. Please be informed that from the coming Monday, you must use the new security number on the card with which you have recently been issued. Failure to use the card correctly will result in an inability to log in. So please be reminded to carry your card with you at all times.

The second point concerns car parking. It is my duty to inform you that you may not under any circumstances park your motor car in front of the green gate. This will impede the progress of delivery vehicles, which as you know are essential to the efficient operations of our company. So kindly be reminded to park your car elsewhere.

At last, it is my pleasure to inform you that our company's Christmas party will be held on Thursday 20<sup>th</sup> December. Please note that this time has been changed from Tuesday 18<sup>th</sup> December. You are cordially invited to bring your spouses and other partners. If there are no matters arising, that concludes our meeting.

##### **Example 2**

Hi everybody, and thanks for giving up your time to come. I know you're all very busy. There are just a few things we need to discuss so I'll try not to take up too much of your time.

First of all, I'd like to tell you about the changes we've made to the remote log in system for the computer network. If you're logging in at home or away from the office, from Monday you'll need to key in your new security number – that's the one on the plastic card you should have been given this week. So do make sure you keep that card with you, otherwise you won't be able to log in.

Um, what else...?

Oh yes, there have been a few problems with parking over the last week so I'd like to ask you not to park your cars in front of the green gate on the left of the car park as this needs to be kept free for deliveries. I know it's sometimes difficult to find a place to park, but this gate really must be kept clear, so it would be appreciated if you could make sure you don't park there.

Finally, Christmas is almost upon us once again and so as usual there'll be a few celebrations here in the week coming up to Christmas. Most important, can I remind you that the Christmas party will now be on Thursday 20<sup>th</sup> December and not Tuesday the 18<sup>th</sup> as originally planned. We'll be starting at 8 o'clock and I hardly need say husbands, wives, girlfriends, boyfriends are of course, very welcome...necessary in fact!

I think that's it from me. Is there anything anyone would like to say? No? Right, thanks very much.

#### **Activity 5. Choose the best version.**

##### **1 Stockbroker to client**

- a. I'll tell you what to do - bung a couple of grand on HSBC. You can't go wrong. They're a dead cert investment, believe me.
- b. I would suggest you invest a couple of thousand dollars in HSBC. They're a very safe investment, I can assure you.

##### **2 Colleagues**

- a. Fancy a beer afterwards?
- b. I would like to invite you to come for a drink after work this evening.

##### **3 Workplace meeting**

- a. OK we need to sort out the arrangements for the China trip.
- b. We are gathered here today to discuss the arrangements for the trip to China.

##### **4 Party**

- a. How do you do, Ms Simpkins. I'm very pleased to meet you.
- b. Nice to meet you.

##### **5 To a visitor**

- a. I strongly suggest that you visit the Peak while you are in Hong Kong – the views are most satisfactory.
- b. You must go to the Peak – the views are amazing.

##### **6 Friends or colleagues**

- a. Why don't you take an aspirin?
- b. I would advise you to take an aspirin.

##### **7 Meeting a business visitor**

- a. How's it going then? Nice journey?
- b. I trust you had a comfortable journey?
- c. Did you have a good journey?

#### **Answers**

- 1 b Answer a would be unusually informal unless the client and the stockbroker had a very close relationship.
- 2 a Answer b sounds stilted and unnatural.

- 3 a Answer b sounds like a priest addressing a funeral congregation.
- 4 b In most party situations Ms Simpkins would probably run a mile from the awkward and excessively formal speaker of answer a.
- 5 b Answer a is in written language more appropriate for a very formal letter.
- 6 a Answer b sounds over formal and slightly pompous.
- 7 c Answer a is far too informal if we assume the speakers are strangers. Answer b is slightly old-fashioned – the sort of ornately polite language used by villains in James Bond films for comic effect.

### Lesson 10

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Spoken production: Classroom language</i> (Classes, seminars, lectures, tutorials)	
<b>Time:</b> 2 hours	<b>The number of students:</b> 15-16
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of differences and similarities between written and spoken discourse</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze differences and similarities between written and spoken discourse using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand the differences and similarities between written and spoken discourse and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts.	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The students will: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of differences and similarities between written and spoken discourse.</li> <li>3. be able to analyse differences and similarities between written and spoken discourse using one more approaches to discourse analysis covered in the course.</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)



### The technological schedule of practical lesson 10

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the hometask 2. Asks the questions What is written discourse? What is spoken discourse?	1. Students get information about the course syllabus of writing and assessment specifications and make notes about the course.
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students the theme: differences and similarities between written and spoken discourse. In English, there are a lot of differences between the two ways of expression, speaking and writing. Discourse can be both spoken and written. The study of spoken and sometimes written discourse is called discourse analysis. Spoken language is a vast subject, and little is known in hard statistical terms of the distribution of different types of speech in people's everyday lives. There are not only differences of characteristics but also differences of required skills. Of course, this does not always apply, and there are many instances where spoken and written English are the same, where the one takes over from the other and where functions and purposes are swapped. (handout 1) 2.2 Gives information about features, advantages and disadvantages of spoken language. (handout 2) 2.3 Gives information about features, advantages and disadvantages of written language. (handout 3) 2.4 Introduces differences between spoken language and written language (handout 4) 2.5 Will have the students do the activities	2.1 Students get information about differences between spoken language and written language 2.2 Get information about features, advantages and disadvantages of spoken language 2.3 Get information about features, advantages and disadvantages of written language 2.4 Know about differences between spoken language and written language 2.4 Do the activities.

<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses differences between spoken language and written language</p> <p>3.2 Gives the hometask</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>
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### **Handout 1.**

Task 1. Classroom language for starting lessons

**Read the list of instructions given in “Classroom language for starting lessons” written By Alex Case for UsingEnglish.com** Classroom Language: Classroom language for starting lessons

**Summary:** Useful classroom language for ESL teachers for starting lessons

#### The teacher coming into a room full of students

"Can someone take this CD player and plug it in? Thanks." [hold it up as if you are offering it to someone, and look towards the socket or hold the plug and mime plugging it into something]

"Can someone hold the door open for me?" [stop with the door supported on your back, then maybe make straining noises like you are trying to squeeze through]

"Hi everyone. Just let me put my things down here and we'll get started."

"Morning. Not many people here yet? / Where is everyone?" [gesture looking at empty seats and then as if searching for those people in the corners of the room]

"Is this the right room? Mrs Andersen's class?/ Top set English?/ English club?"

"Hello again. Mr Smithers is still sick"/ "Yes, (it's) me again!"

#### The students coming in

"Okay everyone, file in quietly and take a seat please" [use two arms to show the slowness and straight lines of the route into the room]

"Upper Intermediate 1? Yes, this is the right class. Come (on) in."

"Hi. Come in. Take a seat/ Sit anywhere you like/ Can you sit somewhere different from last week?/ "Can you sit near the front?"

"Please put your homework into the tray as you come in"/ "Homework in the tray, everyone"

"Please put your bags on your pegs/ in your desks/ on the back of your chairs/ on the stage/ in a pile by the door/ in your lockers" [mime putting or hanging the bag, then point at position]

"We're going to do pairwork, so you need to sit closer to each other" [gesture two hands pressing something together]

"Sit in your usual teams/ the same teams as last lesson"

"Boys on the right and girls on the left" [point at some boys, and then where they should be, etc]

"Sit on the floor/ on the mats/ on the rug/ in the story corner"

"Take a flashcard as you come in, they are for the first game"

"Line up in order of age/ height/ the date of your birthday/ in alphabetical order"

"Can the last person in close the door?"

"As you come in, ask the next person their name and say 'Come in please' and 'Thank you'"  
[gesture hand coming from your mouth towards the other person, and then back from them to you]

"Knock on the door and say 'Can I come in?'" [mime knocking with knuckles]

"Entrance drill! Today's question is 'What colour is your bag?'"

"Line up against the wall and then you can come in" [show the line where you want them to stand, and then mime squeezing up into that space]

### Greetings

"Okay everyone, stand up please. Jimmy, that means you too. Right. Good morning everyone/ Good morning class/ Good morning boys and girls/ Good morning children... Okay, just 'good morning' is right too, but I want you to say 'Good morning class. Good morning teacher.' like we practiced last week. Can you do that? Okay, one, two, three. Much better, but remember that the 'or' in 'morning' is a long sound, oooooooooor" [gesture something very long coming out of your mouth with your right hand] "Oooooor... Good. Mooooorning... Okay, (that was) maybe a little too long, ha ha! Morning... Great. So, let's do the whole thing one more time from the start. Good morning class... Much much better. Okay, sit down please"

### Introductions

"My name is Mr/Mrs/Ms Kim. I'm your new English teacher/ I'm your English teacher this year/ this term/ today. (Can you ask me some questions, e.g. where I'm from and my free time?)"

"I'll just introduce myself first"

"I've got five lessons with you each week."

"I'm covering for your usual teacher (today/ this week). He/ she has a cold"

"I'm new to this school, so please be nice to me, ha ha!"

"Your last teacher told me you are the best class, so I hope that is true!"

"Can you all introduce yourselves to me?"

"Can you tell me and the rest of the class two or three things about the person sitting next to you?"

"Let's introduce ourselves, shall we?"

"This is my name at the top of the board, it's pronounced..."

### **Taking the register (= roll call)**

"Who is absent today? / Who isn't here today?" [looking around class at/ for empty chairs whilst holding class list in hand or miming doing so]

"Oh, John's away. Does anyone know why? Is he ill?" / "What's the matter with Stefano today? / What's wrong with Jim today?" / "Where's Tony? He didn't look very well yesterday, so maybe he's sick./ In this weather, maybe he's gone to the beach." / "Does anyone know where Hyo Young is? / Any idea why Hyo Young is absent?"

"So everyone is here except..."

"So, only two people away."

"Let's take the register." / "Let's check to see who is here."

"Remember to answer 'I'm here'"

"Is everybody here?" / "Is anyone away?" / "No one absent today?"

"So, Su Young isn't back yet. Does anyone know when she'll be back/ what has happened to her/ if she's dropped out of the class?"

"There are a few empty chairs. Who is missing?"

"Not many people here today. Is there a bug going round?"

"Oh yes, Juanes said he was going to miss this lesson, didn't he? Can any remember where he said he was going?"

"Let's see if everyone is here"

"Listen while I call your names"

"Shout out 'present' / 'here' if you are here"

"No? Is he/ she absent today?"

"Let's all count to see if everyone is here - girls first, then boys." [mime counting on fingers]

"Who's the class monitor this week? Rocky? Rocky, can you count how many people are here please?"

### **Initial chitchat**

"How are we all today?"/ "How are you (today)?" / "How are things?" / "How's life?"

"Did you have any trouble getting here? I heard there were problems on the Central Line"

"You all look freezing. Is it still snowing outside?/ How's the weather outside now?"

"(Did you have a) busy day at work?"

"I see we have a few new faces. Can you briefly introduce yourselves to the class?"

"Long time no see, Julietta. How was your holiday?/ Does anyone have any questions for Julietta about her holiday?"

"(Did you have a) good weekend? Did anyone do anything different/ interesting/ exciting?/ John, you said you were going to.... How was it?"

"Did you enjoy your holiday?"

"Did anyone notice my haircut/ tan/ sunburn/ broken arm/ new suit? Any questions (about my evening/ weekend)?" [point at noticeable thing]

"Vlad, you wanted to ask me a question. Can you ask it now?/ Can you ask that question to everyone in the class?"

"You (all) look tired/ hot/ cold"

"Is it hot/ cold/ humid/ snowing/ raining outside (at the moment)?" [mime rain or snow falling from sky, fanning yourself, or shivering]

"Are you (all) feeling better today?"

"(Have you )had a haircut?" [mime scissors with index and middle finger cutting hair]

"(We are all) dressed up smart today, aren't we? (Is there) any special reason?"

"I was sorry to hear about..." "Did you hear about...?"

"Are you looking forward to...?" "I can hear quite a lot of sniffing/ sniffing. Is there a cold going round/ does everyone have a cold?"

### **Waiting to start**

"I'm waiting for you to be quiet/ to settle down/ We won't start until everyone is quiet." [cross arms and look impatient, maybe tapping foot]

"Please stop talking and be quiet" / "(Can everyone please) settle down so we can start." [arms out with palms down, moving slowly up and down]

"(Everyone be) quiet please!" [index finger in front of lips, or zip across lips with thumb and index finger]

"Okay, I'm glad you're excited, but let's calm down a little, shall we?"

"Yes, okay, we'll play the Stations game, but you have to sit down quiet and then doing the normal greetings first."

"I'm still hearing some noise at the back"/ "What's going on back there?" [stretch your neck and/or stand on toes and look in that direction]

"We have the same thing every week. What am I waiting for?... For you to be quiet, that's right."

"They'll be plenty of time for speaking/ games once the class has started."

"... or would you prefer to start by checking your homework instead?"

### **Getting started/ getting down to business**

"So, let's get started, shall we?" [maybe clapping hands together once]

"I could talk about that all day, but I think we should study some English, shouldn't we?"

"Are you ready (to start/ to learn English)?"

"English time! (No more Korean!)" [point at poster or those words written on the board if you have them]

"Is everybody ready to start?"

"I hope you are all ready for your English lesson."

"I think we can start now."

"Let's begin!"/ "Let's start!"/ "Let's rock and roll!"

"Now that everybody is here..."

"I was going to start the class by..., but it's too hot/ you all look too tired/ there aren't enough people/ the equipment isn't working. So, let's move straight onto..."

"I don't think we need a warm up game today, do we?"

"Can anyone remember what we did last week/ in the last lesson/ this morning?"

"I told you to prepare something for the beginning of this lesson, didn't I? It looks like some people have completely forgotten about it. Oh well, your loss. The people who did do it will find the next part really easy"

"Whose turn is it to choose the starting game/ song/ the language point for the ball game?"

### **Unusual starting tactics**

"Catch!" [really throwing something or miming it]

"Is no one going to ask me what I'm doing?"

"The first person to the front of the room gets a sweet/ doesn't have to do any homework tonight"

"What's this?"

"One point to Sebastian for being quiet"

"Who wants a sweet?"

### **Stating your aims**

"Now I'd like you to continue asking and answering questions about your weekend/ your hobbies, but using the structure on the board/ but as a game"

"I'd like to start the lesson by revising what we did last lesson/ seeing how much you remember from last week"

"I'd like to start the lesson with a pop quiz/ a warmer/ some revision/ some pairwork speaking"

"The aims of today's lesson are.../ are at the top of the board"

"Today, we are going to..."

"As I explained last week, today is the day for the final test/ presentations/ course feedback questionnaires"

"Today, we're going to do something a bit different/ unusual/ strange. This is to.../ Why we are doing it will become clear later on." / "This may seem a little unusual, but it's all part of the plan!"

"Today/ In this lesson/ This week we'll learn how to ... / we will study.../ we will practice ... (from last week)"

"The aim of this class is (to) ..."

"I know we don't usually start by checking the homework/ by doing a song, but we are going to move onto..."

### **Lateness**

"Where have you been?" [gesture tapping watch or look at clock]

"We started ten minutes ago. What have you been doing?"

"What time does the class start?... And what time is it now?"

"Sorry, we are in the middle of a listening exercise. Can you wait outside for two minutes until we finish?"

"Did you miss your bus?"/ "Are there still problems with the underground?"/ "Did you get stuck in traffic?"/ "Did you have problems getting a taxi (in the rain)?"

"Did you oversleep?"/ "(Is your) alarm clock broken (again)?"

"Don't let it happen again."

"It's okay, but come in quickly/ quietly so we can get on with class"

"Don't worry, but try to be on time next time"

"You missed the progress test, so you'll need to do that another time"

"You can do the part you missed for homework"

"Can someone explain what we are doing to Jose Maria?"

"Where were we?"/ "Right, let's get back to/ get on with..."

### Tests

"Today is the test, remember. So, I want you to come in without speaking and take out just one pencil and one eraser. No books and no pieces of paper. Got it? How many books are you allowed?... No, Sabrina, not a hundred. Yes, okay, a thousand, very funny. Seriously. How many books?... Yup, zero, none, nowt. When you've got your pencil and eraser out of your bag, put your bags at the back of the classroom. Ready? Quietly, come in one at a time."

"Any questions before the test starts?"

"Today's the test, but we'll do something else for 10 or 15 minutes to give other people a chance to get here"

### Things to think about/ Discussion questions for teachers

- What stages above wouldn't you bother doing in your classes, e.g. initial chitchat in a large class, low level class or very young class?
- What order do you usually do the stages that you do? Could you do them in a different order?
- Which of the phrases in each of the stages you do use above is the right language level for your students? Is each one also suitable for their age, polite enough etc? If not, how could you change it?
- Pick at least 5 sentences above that are totally unsuitable for your classes. Why are they unsuitable? What kinds of classes and situations might they be suitable for? What could you say instead in your classes?
- How could you make each of those phrases easier to understand, e.g. what gestures could you use and what language could you add to your syllabus?
- Once your students get used to that phrase, how can you make it more complicated in order to boost their level but still making sure they understand?
- Is there any way of getting students to use the same phrases with each other?
- Do you do any of the stages above in L1 rather than English? What do you think students' reactions to you switching to English would be? How could you make that transition easier?
- Many of the sentences above have natural conversational grammar rather than traditional written grammar, e.g. "Alarm clock broken?", which a native speaker is probably more likely to say rather than "Is your alarm clock broken?" What do you think about using these kinds of sentences?



- There are also some examples of more difficult and idiomatic words and phrases like "nowt" and "How are things?" that students would probably still understand from the context. How do you feel about using these in your classes?
- If you use natural sentences at natural speed students will hopefully learn to guess the meaning from context, to accept not understanding every word, and to remember language in longer stretches rather than word by word. They might, however, never understand what the individual words are and might never be able to tie it in with the language on the syllabus. Which of these are more important for your students, do you think?
- Some people like to start English class in exactly the same way as the other classes so that students take it seriously, and other teachers like to start it in a more relaxed and friendly way to set the atmosphere that they need for an interactive, communicative classroom. Which thing is more important to you? Is there any way of combining the two things?

## **Handout 2.**

Discourse can be both spoken and written. The study of spoken and sometimes written discourse is called discourse analysis.

Spoken language is a vast subject, and little is known in hard statistical terms of the distribution of different types of speech in people's everyday lives. If we list at random a number of different types of speech and consider how much of each day or week we spend engaged in each one, we can only roughly guess at some sort of frequency ranking other than to say that casual conversation is almost certainly the most frequent for most people. The rest will depend on our daily occupation and what sorts of contacts we have with others. Some different types of speech might be:

- Telephone calls (business or private)
- Service counters (shops, tickets, offices)
- Interviews (jobs, journalistic in official setting etc.)

## **Handout 2. Features of Spoken Language:**

Let us consider the features of the spoken English as presented below-

1. The syntax of spoken English is much less structural:  
Spoken language contains many incomplete sentences, often simple sequences of phrases, for example, okay, that'll do .....  
Spoken language possesses rather little subordination.  
Spoken language contains a lot of active declarative sentences. A very few examples of passives, it-clefts or wh-clefts are found in a recorded conversation of over 50 hours, for example, it's quite nice the grass market since+ it's always had the antique shops but they're looking + they've sort of +em+become a bit nicer+.....
2. In spoken language the chunks of utterances are connected by and, but, then and more rarely, if.
3. It is rare in spoken language to find more than two pre-modifying adjectives, and there is a strong tendency to structure the short chunks of speech so that only one predicate is attached to a given referent at a time as in it's a biggish cat= tabby + with torn ears.
4. The use of passive is not found in speech. Instead active constructions with indeterminate group agents are noticeable in spoken language, as in-oh everything they do in Edinburgh + they do it for so slowly.
5. In spoken language it is quite common to find topic – comment+ structure as in-the cats +did you be +them out.

6. In chat about the immediate environment, the speaker may rely on, for example, gaze direction to supply a referent. (looking at the rain) frightful isn't it?
7. The speaker may replace or refine expressions as he/she goes along for example, this man +this chap she was going out with.
8. In spoken language, the speaker typically uses a lot of rather generalized vocabulary, for example, -a lot of, thing, got, nice, do, stuff, place, etc.
9. In spoken language, the speaker frequently repeats the same syntactic form several times over that is repetitions and hesitations being involved in spoken.
10. The speaker may produce a large number of prefabricated fillers, such as, well, em, I think, you know, of course and soon.
11. The speaker tries to establish and maintain role relationship with the listener.
12. In spoken language, there is a kind of approximate between the speaker and the listener.
13. Spoken language is less dense for the purpose of enabling the listener to understand the information/message easily.
14. Spoken language takes no visual form.
15. Spoken language occurs in some context of situation and faces direct reaction of the listener.

#### **Advantage of Spoken Language:**

1. Spoken language takes in some context of situation and hence is supported by extra-linguistic elements including all in the surrounding.
2. In a face to face interaction, the interlocutor can reformulate his/her language according to the situation or taking into consideration the reaction shown by the other interlocutor.
3. While speaking, the speaker has available to him/her the full range of 'voice quality' efforts as well as paralinguistic expressions.
4. In a conversation, non-linguistic events naturally contribute to spoken language and make it lively.
5. Spoken language is only interactional.
6. Finally, spoken language contains interactive markers and planning 'fillers' and thus makes communication effective.

#### **Disadvantage of Spoken Language:**

1. It does not maintain strict grammatical rules. So, grammatical mistakes are occurred often.
2. It is devoid of the transactional function of the language.
3. Spoken language cannot express emotions, sentiments and feelings.
4. Spoken language cannot be checked, changed or reformulated if it is once uttered.
5. It is the primary form of language. So, it is non-visible and it has no written document to prove.
6. Spoken language is less planned rather than written language. So it would be affected on listeners if it is badly uttered.

#### **Spoken Language Works in some Levels:**

1. **Adjacency pairs:** A pair of utterances in talk is often mutually dependent. A most obvious example is that a question predicts an answer and that an answer presupposes a question.
2. **Turn taking:** People take turns when they are selected or nominated by the current speaker, or if no one is selected, they may speak of their own accord (self-selection). If neither of these conditions applies, the person who is currently speaking may continue.
3. **Transactions and topics:** In transactions, we are concerned with how speakers manage longer stretches of talk. They are most marked in settings. Such as classrooms, doctor's surgeries and formal interviews, they are also present in openings and closings. We also considered the question of realizations of markers in different languages. On the other hand, topics could be defined on the formal level, as stretches of talk bounded by certain topic and/or transactional

markers, such as lexical ones (by the way, to change the subject) or phonological ones (change in pitch)

- 4. Interactional and transactional talk:** Transactional talk is for getting business done in the world i.e. in order to produce some change in the situation that pertains. On the other hand, interactional talk has as its primary functions the lubrication of the social wheels, establishing roles and relationships with another person prior to transactional talk, confirming and consolidating relationships expressing solidarity and so on.
- 5. Stories, anecdotes, jokes:** Almost any piece of conversational data between friends will yield occasions where people engage in the telling of stories, anecdotes, jokes and other kinds of narratives. The ability to tell a good story or joke is a highly regarded, talent probably in all cultures.
- 6. Speech and grammar:** Brief mention must be made here of the role of grammatical accuracy in unprepared speech.

### **Handout 3. Written Language**

Written language is the secondary form of a language. It is visible, written or printed and hence more permanent.

#### **Features of Written Language:**

1. Written language is more structured.
2. In written language, heavily pre-modified noun phrases are quite common, for example-a man who turned into a human torch ten days ago after snoozing in his locked car while smoking has pipe has died in hospital.
3. Written language sentences are generally structured in subject.
4. The use of passive is found in written language.
5. In written language, vocabulary for example-a lot of; thing, nice, do, stuff etc. is not taken generally.
6. In written language, the some syntactic form is not repeated.

#### **Advantage of Written Language:**

1. Written language is the secondary form of language.
2. As written language is strictly governed by grammatical rules, non-native users are usually more aware of the rules of written language.
3. We can express our feelings, ideas, emotions, sentiments, and so forth more freely in spoken language because the reader cannot show direct and immediate reaction.
4. It may be checked, changed or reformulated if necessary grammatically and pragmatically.
5. It performs both transactional and interactional functions of language.

#### **Disadvantage of Written Language:**

1. It fails to establish and maintain direct role of relationships with the reader.
2. In written language there is no proximity between the writer and reader.
3. Written language does not take place in some context of situations. So it is not supported by extra linguistic elements including all is the surrounded.
4. Written language does not contain interactive markers and planning filler and thus makes the communication less effective.
5. It misses the para-linguistic expression and immediate reaction of the situation. So its effect is slow.

#### **Written language works in some levels:**

1. **Speech and writing:** Both spoken and written discourses are dependent on their immediate contexts to a greater or lesser degree. The idea that writing is in some way ‘free standing’ whereas speech is more closely tied to its context, has come under attack as an oversimplification of discourse analysts.
2. **Units in written discourse:** The sentence is more obvious as a grammatical unit in writing although certainly not in all kinds of writing: signs and notices, small ads, notes, forms, tickets, cheques, all contain frequent examples of ‘non-sentences.’
3. **Clause relations:** The units of written discourse rather than always being co-existence with sentences (though they sometimes are) were best seen as functional segments (of anything from phrasal to paragraph length) which could be related to one another by a finite set of cognitive relations, such as cause-consequence instrument, achievement, and matching relations such as contrasting and equivalence.
4. **Culture and rhetoric:** The area of cross-cultural rhetoric studies has spawned a vast literature of its own and a somewhat confusing one. On the other hand, linguists claim to have evidence of textual patterns in other languages not found in English writing. On the other hand, there is disagreement over whether these patterns are transferred and cause interference when the learner writes in English.
5. **Discourse and the reader:** Discourse and reading in fact follows consistently from what we have learnt. We cannot explain discourse patterning at the macro-level without paying due attention to the role of grammar and lexis. By the same token, we cannot foster good reading without considering global and local reading skills.

#### Handout 4. Differences between spoken language and written language

<b>Spoken language</b>	<b>Written language</b>
1. Spoken language is the primary form of linguistic communication.	1. Written language is the secondary medium of communication.
2. Spoken language is audible and temporary. a. Utterance b. Conventional analysis	2. Written language is visible, written or printed and hence more permanent than spoken language.
3. Spoken language takes place in context of situation and so it is supported by extra-linguistic elements including all in the surrounding.	3. Written words can be examined outside their original context.
4. Spoken language is primarily interactional.	4. Written language is primarily transactional.
5. Spoken language is not usually packed with information.	5. Written language is usually packed with facts.
6. A speaker’s voice, rhythm, intonation etc. are necessary features for the understanding of the speech.	6. Punctuation, word and sentence order are important for understanding of a written text.
7. Spoken language has a loose syntactic structure.	7. Written language is usually richly organized.
8. In spoken language, the use of more than two premodifying adjective is rare.	8. Written language has heavily premodified noun phrases.

9. The spoken language incorporates a lot of vocabulary, such as- 'a lot of', things, nice, sort of....	9. This device is not taken in written language, partly to avoid monotony, and to make language formal, stable.
10. The speaker may suffer the disadvantage of exposing his/her own feelings, emotions.	10. The writer can easily manipulate words and expression in a way.

### Activity 1. Matching exercise

Match the items with the ones below.

1. I've (= I have), that's (= that is), etc
2. the net = the Internet, a phone call = a telephone call, etc
3. put up with sth (= tolerate sth), get on with it (= proceed with sth), etc
4. e.g. nip it in the bud (= stop it in its early stages to prevent it developing further)
5. pick up an idea of Smith's (= refer to, quote, etc), give an assignment in (= submit an assignment)
6. one thing is, most people say, etc
7. OK? Do you know what I mean? Do you follow me? etc
8. e.g. what you shou, what we should do; the point I want to make is, oh on second thoughts we'll come back to that later.
9. e.g. he was, I mean they was discussing ...
10. I think, em, that's right. It's, eh, quite difficult to say. etc

1. Contractions / 2. Confirmation questions / 3. Idioms / 4. False starts / 5. Grammatical slips
6. Verbs of physical action / 7. Phrasal verbs / 8. Abbreviations / 9. Hesitation / 10. Vogue language

Answer:

**Contractions:** I've (= I have), that's (= that is), etc

**Abbreviations:** the net = the internet, a phone call = a telephone call, etc

**Phrasal verbs:** put up with sth (= tolerate sth), get on with it (= proceed with sth), etc

**Idioms:** eg nip it in the bud (= stop it in its early stages to prevent it developing further)

**Verbs of physical action:** pick up an idea of Smith's (= refer to, quote, etc), give an assignment in (= submit an assignment)

**Vague language:** one thing is, most people say, etc

**Confirmation questions:** OK? D'you know what I mean? D'you follow me? etc

**False starts / changes of direction:** eg what you shou, er, what we should do; the point I want to make is, oh on second thoughts we'll come back to that later.

**Grammatical slips:** eg he was, I mean they was discussing ...

**Hesitations:** em, er, etc

**Hometask:** Read the following extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?

A: Well, try this spray, what I got, this is the biggest they come.

B: Oh . . .

A: . . . little make-up capsule.

B: Oh, right, it's like these inhalers, isn't it?

A: And I, I've found that not so bad since I've been using it, and it doesn't make you so grumpy.

B: This is up your nose?

A: Mm.

B: Oh, wow! It looks a bit sort of violent, doesn't it? It works well, does it?

(Birmingham Collection of English Text)

## Lesson 11

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Characteristics of different types of speech and function</i>	
<b>Time:</b> 2 hours	<b>The number of students:</b> 15-16
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of written interaction</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze written interaction using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand the different modes of written interaction and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The students will: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of written interaction</li> <li>3. be able to analyse written interaction using one more approaches to discourse analysis covered in the course.</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 11

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the hometask 3. Asks questions: What is speech? What types of speech do you know? What is written interaction	1. Students get information about the course 2. Answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	<p>2.1 Introduces students the theme: Characteristics of different types of speech. Gives information about speech and writing: In a normal speech communication situation, a speaker tries to exert an influence on a listener (or a group of listeners) by making him (or them) perceive, understand, feel or do something particular. The speaker guides the listener into doing this by exposing a linguistically structured speech behaviour, which operates together with non-verbal signals, various kinds of background knowledge that the speaker and the listener have, the listener's responses and other characteristics of the physical and social context in which the communicative activities are embedded. The various behavioral and information-processing operations involved in both the production and comprehension of speech are transient events which, in addition, partially overlap and occur at very high rates. There is often a frequent exchange of turns (i.e. speaking vs listening turns) between the communicating parties (Handout1)</p> <p>2.2 Gives information about communication by written texts. Unlike speech, written texts are typically <i>not</i> perceived and interpreted at the same times and places as they are produced. The analysis of written language - both by linguists and normal users (readers) - necessarily focuses on the <i>products</i> of the writer's activities, i.e. on the written texts.</p> <p>2.3 Tells about differences between writing and speech. (handout 3)</p>	2.1 Students get information about characteristics of different types of speech 2.2 Get information about communication by written texts. 2.3 Know about differences between writing and speech 2.4 Do the activities.

<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses written and spoken interaction</p> <p>3.2 Gives homework</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>
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## Handout 1. SPEECH AND WRITING

### *Spoken language and speech communication*

In a normal speech communication situation, a speaker tries to exert an influence on a listener (or a group of listeners) by making him (or them) perceive, understand, feel or do something particular. The speaker guides the listener into doing this by exposing a linguistically structured speech behaviour, which operates together with non-verbal signals, various kinds of background knowledge that the speaker and the listener have, the listener's responses and other characteristics of the physical and social context in which the communicative activities are embedded. The various behavioral and information-processing operations involved in both the production and comprehension of speech are transient events which, in addition, partially overlap and occur at very high rates. There is often a frequent exchange of turns (i.e. speaking vs listening turns) between the communicating parties. All in all, this brings about a very intricate and rapidly evolving social interaction between the parties.

We can briefly state some of the most important features of speech communication in the following points:

1. Speech is a *dynamic*, ephemeral behavior distributed in time; it proceeds continuously and its inherent dynamics, the changes at various levels, must be subject to on-line monitoring and analysis by both communicating parties; as one goes on, one can no longer observe that which was produced earlier. The products of the speaker's activities (behavioral movements and sound waves) fade rapidly over a period of time, and the same applies to the listener's activities. (I disregard here the fact that some types of «products» remain in short-term memory for certain limited periods of time.) This naturally leads to focusing on the dynamic behavior as such rather than on some persistent products (such as those in writing).

2. Speech behavior has many features of *continuous* movements (rather than a chain of successive states).

3. The whole interaction between speaker and listener is *dependent on the situation* (context) in many extremely important ways.

First of all, the speaker's speech behavior is continuously accompanied and supplemented (occasionally contradicted) by various non-verbal signals, which means that the verbal message as such is often much *less explicit* than in writing; referents may be pointed to, interpretations may be made more precise and complex through gestures, facial expressions, tones of voice etc. After all, the use of an utterance in a normal situation involving face-to-face interaction is not an isolated speech act; it is part of a *comprehensive communicative act* which comprises the use of both verbal means (speech) and nonverbal means (gesticulation etc). The message is conveyed, or shown, in several ways simultaneously, and the role played by spoken language cannot be properly understood without taking into consideration the whole communicative act.



Secondly, both speaker and listener are normally physically present at the same place, and they normally have a considerable amount of *background knowledge* about each other, the things talked about etc. Parts of this knowledge may be shared by both interlocutors.

Thirdly, the listener responds all the time (verbally and, perhaps most importantly, by non-verbal means), and this *feedback* continuously influences the speaker's behavior. The speaker must produce his utterances quickly and readily, and the listener must respond just as rapidly, under the pressure of the emotive and social atmosphere of the face-to-face interaction.

In short, these various features imply that dialogues, which are the typical application of speech, must be regarded as a complex *social interplay* between agents.

4. Communication through speech is a resource available for all normally equipped human beings across different social groups and cultures. It is acquired under rather different conditions than writing. Its ontogenesis is part of the normal individual's *primary socialization*, which starts and largely develops in early childhood as an integrated element of habitual activities in everyday culture. To a large extent it then remains a feature of the private sphere of people's lives. Knowledge of one's spoken language is an inalienable element of one's knowledge of everyday culture (cf. Berger & Luckmann 1967).

## **Handout 2. Communication by written texts**

Unlike speech, written texts are typically *not* perceived and interpreted at the same times and places as they are produced. The analysis of written language - both by linguists and normal users (readers) - necessarily focuses on the *products* of the writer's activities, i.e. on the written texts, whereas the production process itself is non-accessible and unimportant for the normal reader. However, while the processes involved in the production of written texts are usually not directly communicatively significant, the fact that the products persist over time makes various types of intermediary communicative acts available. The written texts can be used in different ways, re-employed, duplicated, distributed to particular persons or groups in new situations, and *these* activities can be regarded as proper communicative acts in their own right (or as parts of such acts). Note, however, that these acts are normally instigated and performed by other people than the writer (the original sender) himself. While a speaker may exert a considerable social-psychological pressure on the listener and may direct the latter's thoughts and feelings through his own verbal (and non-verbal) signals, a writer has not at all the same immediate power over the reader(s). If we proceed further in comparing communication by written texts to communication in spoken discourse, we will also note the following characteristics (cf. II.1).

## **Handout 3. Differences between writing and speech**

Written and spoken language differ in many ways. However some forms of writing are closer to speech than others, and vice versa. Below are some of the ways in which these two forms of language differ:

- Writing is usually permanent and written texts cannot usually be changed once they have been printed/written out.

Speech is usually transient, unless recorded, and speakers can correct themselves and change their utterances as they go along.

- A written text can communicate across time and space for as long as the particular language and writing system is still understood.

Speech is usually used for immediate interactions.

- Written language tends to be more complex and intricate than speech with longer sentences and many subordinate clauses. The punctuation and layout of written texts also have no spoken equivalent. However some forms of written language, such as instant messages and email, are closer to spoken language.

Spoken language tends to be full of repetitions, incomplete sentences, corrections and interruptions, with the exception of formal speeches and other scripted forms of speech, such as news reports and scripts for plays and films.

- Writers receive no immediate feedback from their readers, except in computer-based communication. Therefore they cannot rely on context to clarify things so there is more need to explain things clearly and unambiguously than in speech, except in written correspondence between people who know one another well.

Speech is usually a dynamic interaction between two or more people. Context and shared knowledge play a major role, so it is possible to leave much unsaid or indirectly implied.

- Writers can make use of punctuation, headings, layout, colours and other graphical effects in their written texts. Such things are not available in speech

Speech can use timing, tone, volume, and timbre to add emotional context.

- Written material can be read repeatedly and closely analysed, and notes can be made on the writing surface. Only recorded speech can be used in this way.
- Some grammatical constructions are only used in writing, as are some kinds of vocabulary, such as some complex chemical and legal terms.

Some types of vocabulary are used only or mainly in speech. These include slang expressions, and tags like *y'know*, *like*, etc.

## Lesson 12

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Phonological features of spoken discourse: stress, intonation, tone, and pause.</i> <i>Spoken interaction: service encounters (shops, ticket office)</i>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of phonological features of spoken discourse</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze phonological features of spoken discourse using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand phonological features of spoken discourse and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>

<p><b>Pedagogical tasks:</b>  To introduce with the theme of the lesson ;  To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up.  To work with the vocabulary of topic;  To give definition to the terms;  To get information from the texts;</p>	<p><i>The results of teaching activity</i>  1. To explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;  2. To apply this ability to the analysis of phonological features of spoken discourse;  3. To demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of phonological features of spoken discourse.</p>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 12

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the hometask 3. asks the questions: What is phonology? What is stress? What is intonation? What is pause? What is tone?	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions.
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students to the theme: phonological features of spoken discourse Stress and intonation are extremely important at the phrase, clause, and sentence level. Shifting the stress on particular words in a sentence could actually change the meanings and intentions of the speaker. (handout 1) 2.2 Tells about pronunciation, it is the way words of a language are pronounced. Explains how we develop clear speech and fluency. Gives information about why English pronunciation can be difficult. (handout 2) 2.3 Gives information about intonation: <b>Intonation</b> is the word for the 'melody' of spoken language: the way themusical pitch of the voice rises and falls (handout 3) 2.4 Tells about intonation and discourse (handout 4)	2.1 Students get information about phonological features of spoken discourse  2.2 Make notes about pronunciation in language  2.3 Get information about stress in English  2.4 Do the activities.

<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Discusses phonology of English and Uzbek 3.2 Estimates the activity 3.3 Gives the hometask	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.
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### Handout 1. What is pronunciation?

Pronunciation is the way words of a language are pronounced.

#### HOW DO WE DEVELOP CLEAR SPEECH AND FLUENCY?

- Knowledge on phonetic transcriptions
- Understanding of syllable and stress
- Knowledge of link-up in connected speech
- Knowledge of elision of sound
- Understanding of contraction of words

#### WHY ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION CAN BE DIFFICULT

English sounds is different from the spelling of the words. For example, the letter ‘u’ in English can have several sounds:

busy = / 'bɪzɪ /; butter = / 'bʌtə /; bury = / 'berɪ /;

burst = / bɜ:st /; bush = / bʊʃ /; abuse = / ə'bjʊ:z /

The same sound can have different letters representing it. For example, the sound / i: / is represented by different letters as in:

pea, bee, scenic, believe, perceive, subpoena

The same letter can have different sounds. For example, the letter ‘s’ is pronounced as:

/ ʒ / as in measure; / z / as in resume; / s / as in social.

Some letters appear in spellings where they are not actually pronounced:

Letter	Silent in	Letter	Silent in
<b>b</b>	<i>sub<b>tle</b>, doub<b>t</b></i>	<b>c</b>	<i>sc<b>issors</b>, mus<b>cle</b></i>
<b>g</b>	<i>gn<b>aw</b>, ou<b>ght</b></i>	<b>k</b>	<i>kn<b>ow</b>, kn<b>ee</b></i>
<b>n</b>	<i>autu<b>mn</b>, colu<b>mn</b></i>	<b>p</b>	<i>ps<b>ychology</b>, rece<b>ipt</b></i>
<b>s</b>	<i>is<b>land</b>, ais<b>le</b></i>	<b>t</b>	<i>lis<b>ten</b>, whis<b>tle</b></i>

Some words have different meanings and are spelled differently but they sound identical.

–These are HOMOPHONES. Examples are:

*dual* and *duel*  
*steel* and *steal*  
*root* and *route*

Different spelling and  
different meaning  
but identical sound

## Handout 2. Stress in English

Stress is shown by /ˈ/ which is placed before the syllable that is stressed. When a syllable is stressed, the syllable is said in a longer and louder manner and sometimes with a high pitch as well. A syllable may be unstressed, strongly stressed and lightly stressed

### SYLLABLES AND STRESS

Words with two syllables usually have primary stress syllables (ˈ) and words with three or more syllables may have a primary stress syllable and a secondary stress syllable (ˌ).

Examples

ˈproduct - / ˈprɒdʌkt / (Noun)

prɒˈduce - / prəˈdju:s / Verb)

prɒˈduction - / prəˈdʌkʃn /

reprɒˈduction - / ri:prəˈdʌkʃn /

prɒdʌkˈtivity - / prɒdʌkˈtɪvətɪ /

ɪg zæmɪˈneɪʃn - / ɪg zæmɪˈneɪʃn /

### RULES FOR PLACING THE STRESSES IN ENGLISH

Two-syllable words: The first syllable is stressed.

Example: value - / ˈvælju: /

Three-syllable words: Usually the first syllable is stressed.

Example: manager - / ˈmænɪdʒə /

Four or more-syllable words: Usually the third syllable from the end is stressed.

Example: economical - / ɛkəˈnɒmɪkəl /

**Stress and intonation** are extremely important at the phrase, clause, and sentence level.

Shifting the stress on particular words in a sentence could actually change the meanings and intentions of the speaker. For example:

1. **We** don't want to go the movies tonight. [not somebody else]
2. We **don't** want to go the movies tonight. [emphatically not]
3. We don't want to go the **movies** tonight. [maybe somewhere else]
4. We don't want to go the movies **tonight**. [maybe tomorrow night]

The main or **primary stress** in a sentence tends to fall on the important information and often near the end of a sentence in English. The precise location of the stress depends on the context and whether the information is new information (or something that the listener already knows).

Stress **adds emphasis** where we want or need to add emphasis. Stress also may indicate **contrast**. In each clause or phrase or any multiple word utterance, you can always hear at least one word that is stressed over other words.

### Word Stress

Every word has one most important syllable that is “stressed” more than the others.

imPORtant communiCAtion YESTerday toMORrow PHOTograph phoTOGraphy


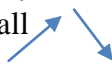



Sentences are divided into groups of words that “go together.” We pause (stop for a short time) between groups. The pitch stays up between thought groups (to show that more is coming), and usually goes down to show the end of a sentence (except Yes/No questions).

English words are difficult / because the pronunciation/ is sometimes different from the spelling.

### Handout 3. What is intonation?

**Intonation** is the word for the 'melody' of spoken language: the way the musical pitch of the voice rises and falls. Intonation systems in languages are very complicated and difficult to analyse, and linguists do not all agree about how English intonation works.

There are following types of intonation

- Fall 
- Rise-fall 
- Fall – rise 
- Rise 
- Level 

- Intonation (when the pitch of the voice goes up and down) is complex in English but it is very important as it expresses the feeling or emotion of the speaker.
- Intonation (The “music” of English)
- A “pitch” change, and a long, clear vowel tell us which is the most important (“focus”) word in a Thought Group. These signals happen in the stressed syllable of the focus word.
- **English words are DIFFICULT/ because the PRONUNCIATION/ is sometimes different from the SPELLING.**
- Rhythm
- English has an alternating rhythm, and stressed syllables are the “beats.”
- **If we understand each other, that’s communiCATION. What DIFFERence does it make?**
- Reduction
- We make the important syllables and words more important by reducing the others, and making them less important.
- In the less important syllables the vowel sound is usually a “schwa” /ə/ as in “uh-oh!” /ə-oh/
- **pizza /piz-zə/ another /ən-ə-ther/ tomato /tə-ma-to/ above /ə-bove/**
- Contractions are another example of reduction. Two syllables are reduced to one syllable:
- **I am → I’m I have → I’ve I would → I’d you are → you’re she is → she’s we are → we’re**
- Connected Speech
- In English we do not say each word separately like they are written, we “link” words together so they are smoother and easier to pronounce in a phrase or sentence.
- **This is Anna. → ThissizzAnna.**
- **The books are on the table. → The bookssare on the table.**
- **Have a good time. → Havvuh goodtime.**
- **What’s his address? → Whatsiz address.**
- **much of a chance → muchuva chance**
- **once in a while → one-sinnuh while**

### 1 Intonation In Conversation

One use of intonation is to show how a piece of information fits in with what comes before and after. For instance, a speaker may raise his or her voice when taking over the conversation from somebody else, or to indicate a change of subject. A rise or fall on a particular word may show that this is the 'centre' of the message - the place where the new information is being given; or it may signal a contrast or a special emphasis. A rising tone at the end of a sentence may suggest that there is more to be said and perhaps invite another speaker to take over.

## 2. Attitude

Intonation (together with speed, voice quality and loudness) can also say things about the speaker's attitude. For instance, when people are excited or angry they often raise and lower their voices more.

## 3. PATTERNS

There are three particularly common intonation patterns in English speech

### A. falling intonation

A falling intonation can suggest that we are saying something definite, complete. The voice falls on the last stressed syllable of a group of words.

-----..

I'm tired.

A falling intonation is also common in wh-questions.

What time's the last bus?

-----..

Where's the secretary?

### B. RISING INTONATION

A rising intonation is common in yes/no questions. The voice rises at the end of a group of words, beginning on the last stressed syllable.

## Intonation and grammar

Where patterns associating intonation and grammar are predictable, I highlight these to my students. I see these as starting-points, rather than rules.

Some examples are: Wh-word questions: falling intonation / Yes/No questions: rising / Statements: falling Question-Tags: 'chat' - falling; 'check' - rising / Lists: rising, rising, rising, falling

Question-Tags: Students in groups are assigned jobs to mime to each other. Students make notes about what they think each person's job is. They then have to check they've understood the jobs: Students use rising/falling intonation question-tags depending how sure they are: 'You're a pilot, aren't you?'. At the end, students confirm their jobs.

## Intonation and attitude

It's important that students are aware of the strong link between intonation and attitude, even if it's difficult to provide rules here.

The first thing is for learners to recognise the effect of intonation changes. I say the word 'bananas' - firstly with an '*interested*' intonation (varied tone); then '*uninterested*' (flat). Students identify the two and describe the difference. We then brainstorm attitudes, such as 'enthusiastic', 'bored', 'surprised', 'relieved'. I say 'bananas' for these. Students then do the same in pairs, guessing each other's attitude.

This can be developed by asking students to 'greet' everybody with a particular attitude. At the end, the class identify each person's attitude. For younger learners, I use 'Mr Men'

characters (Miss Happy, Mr Grumpy, Miss Frightened, etc.) Each student is allocated a character and, as above, they greet the class with that character's voice.

#### **Handout 4. Intonation and discourse**

Learners' also need awareness of intonation in longer stretches of language. Here, we can give our learners clearer guidelines: 'new' information = fall tone; 'shared' knowledge = 'fall-rise'.

A simple shopping dialogue demonstrates this:

SK: Can I help you?

C: I'd like a chocolate (fall) ice-cream.

SK: One chocolate (fall-rise) ice-cream. Anything else?

C: One strawberry (fall) ice-cream.

SK: One chocolate (fall), one strawberry (fall). Anything else?

C: Yes. One chocolate (fall), one strawberry (fall), and one vanilla (fall-rise).

Higher level students can identify the '*new*' / '*shared*' information, and then practise reading accordingly.

With lower level students, we memorise the dialogue together. Although I don't refer to intonation directly, I use my hands to indicate it (fall = hand pointing down; fall-rise = down then up). Students then prepare their own dialogues. I've found my learners pick up these patterns very quickly.

When working on intonation in the classroom I:

Remember that intonation is relevant to any speaking activity, and makes interesting remedial/revision work.

Remember that students don't always have to 'know' we're focusing on intonation: every time I drill phrases they're hearing intonation models.

Provide realistic and clear contexts.

Avoid going into theory.

Help students find patterns / rules-of-thumb, wherever possible..

Mark the /thought groups/ and then the focus word in each thought group.

Mark the intonation (where the pitch goes up) by putting an arrow pointing up on the stressed syllable in each focus word.

I'll wait in his office until he gets back from lunch.

She rang the bell twice, but no one answered the door.

It is the job of a good speaker to tell his listener what is important.

I can't open the door because I lost my key this morning.



### Lesson 13

<b>Theme:</b> <i>Spoken interaction: Interviews (jobs, journalistic, in official settings)</i> <i>Characteristics of different types of speech and function. Spoken production</i>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of different types of speech and function</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze different types of speech and function using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand the different types of speech and function and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. To apply this ability to the analysis of spoken texts;</li> <li>3. To demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of different types of speech and function</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 13

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Greets the students</li> <li>2. Answer the questions: What is speech? What are the characteristics of written and spoken speech?</li> <li>3. Asks the questions</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions .</li> </ol>

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students the theme: Characteristics of different types of speech and functions. There are basically two types of speaking: <b>spoken production</b> (simply producing words) and <b>spoken interaction</b> (speaking/conversing with other people).</p> <p>2.2 Introduce the speech objectives:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The Audience and Context for the Speech</li> <li>2. Speech Content and Structure</li> <li>3. Delivery Skills and Techniques</li> <li>4. Your opinion</li> </ol> <p>2.3 Will have the students do the activity</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about Characteristics of different types of speech and functions</p> <p>2.2 Introduce the speech objectives</p> <p>2.3 Do the activities.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses the spoken interaction using speech objectives</p> <p>3.2 Gives hometask</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

### **Handout 1. Characteristics of different types of speech and functions**

There are basically two types of speaking: **spoken production** (simply producing words) and **spoken interaction** (speaking/conversing with other people).

Spoken production is all about producing language. It's about speaking clearly and correctly. It's your ability to pronounce words, use the correct stress and intonation and select words that are appropriate for your purpose. Spoken production activities include reading a written text aloud, speaking from notes, acting in a play, talking about your life, singing a song and telling a story. It may also include giving presentations, expressing arguments in a debate, giving a speech or making a sports commentary.

First, let's put speaking into perspective. Speaking in any language is difficult... even in your own language. In fact, if you listen to recordings of native English speakers, you'll be surprised at how “badly” many people speak spontaneously: there are examples of hesitation, false starts, mumbling, unclear language and even errors. Very few people can speak really well, and those who can, usually spend hours preparing and practising their speeches. The thing is that speaking «well» depends on a lot of factors: your motivation, your physical and mental state at the time of speaking, who you're speaking to, how well you know the topic, where you are, the time of day, and a hundred other things.

The way to improve your speaking is to practise. You could do some “shadowing”. This involves copying native speakers who are speaking on audio or video recordings. Just get access to an audio file, put on your headphones, press play and start speaking at the same time as the native English speakers. This is a great way to improve your pronunciation. You could also do the same with songs, by singing along to your favourite songs. Another good technique is to read

aloud. This will help you practise saying the words and expressions. Just get a copy of a text or book that you find interesting, and read parts of it out loud.

Repetition is also important. Repeat key sentences and expressions over and over again until they become automatic. Do some language fluency drills with your teacher to build up fluency. Memorise chunks of language or entire paragraphs. This will really help. A lot of the language we use when speaking consists of set expressions and chunks of language that are repeated. Also, practise telling your favourite stories or anecdotes. Write them out first. Then, make notes and practise saying them to yourself... and then in public. The more you practise them, the better you'll get at telling them, and soon you'll be a story-telling expert.

Speaking well requires practice, and a lot of time and effort. Are you ready?

**Activity 1. Handout 2 Read the text and answer the questions below it.**

*Full Text of Severn Suzuki's speech at the U.N. Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992:*

Hello, I'm Severn Suzuki speaking for E.C.O. - The Environmental Children's Organization.

We are a group of twelve and thirteen-year-olds from Canada trying to make a difference: Vanessa Suttie, Morgan Geisler, Michelle Quigg and me. We raised all the money ourselves to come six thousand miles to tell you adults you must change your ways. Coming here today, I have no hidden agenda. I am fighting for my future.

Losing my future is not like losing an election or a few points on the stock market. I am here to speak for all generations to come.

I am here to speak on behalf of the starving children around the world whose cries go unheard.

I am here to speak for the countless animals dying across this planet because they have nowhere left to go. We cannot afford to be not heard.

I am afraid to go out in the sun now because of the holes in the ozone. I am afraid to breathe the air because I don't know what chemicals are in it.

I used to go fishing in Vancouver with my dad, until just a few years ago, we found the fish full of cancers. And now we hear about animals and plants going extinct every day - vanishing forever.

In my life, I have dreamt of seeing the great herds of wild animals, jungles and rain forests full of birds and butterflies, but now I wonder if they will even exist for my children to see.

Did you have to worry about these little things when you were my age?

All this is happening before our eyes and yet we act as if we have all the time we want and all the solutions. I'm only a child and I don't have all the solutions, but I want you to realise, neither do you!

5. You don't know how to fix the holes in our ozone layer.
6. You don't know how to bring salmon back up a dead stream.
7. You don't know how to bring back an animal now extinct.
8. And you can't bring back forests that once grew where there is now desert.

If you don't know how to fix it, please stop breaking it!

Here, you may be delegates of your governments, business people, organisers, reporters or politicians - but really you are mothers and fathers, brothers and sister, aunts and uncles - and all of you are somebody's child.

I'm only a child yet I know we are all part of a family, five billion strong, in fact, 30 million species strong and we all share the same air, water and soil - borders and governments will never change that.

I'm only a child yet I know we are all in this together and should act as one single world towards one single goal.

In my anger, I am not blind, and in my fear, I am not afraid to tell the world how I feel.

In my country, we make so much waste, we buy and throw away, buy and throw away, and yet northern countries will not share with the needy. Even when we have more than enough, we are afraid to lose some of our wealth, afraid to share.

In Canada, we live the privileged life, with plenty of food, water and shelter - we have watches, bicycles, computers and television sets.

Two days ago here in Brazil, we were shocked when we spent some time with some children living on the streets. And this is what one child told us: «I wish I was rich and if I were, I would give all the street children food, clothes, medicine, shelter and love and affection.»

If a child on the street who has nothing, is willing to share, why are we who have everything still so greedy?

I can't stop thinking that these children are my age, that it makes a tremendous difference where you are born, that I could be one of those children living in the favelas of Rio; I could be a child starving in Somalia; a victim of war in the Middle East or a beggar in India.

I'm only a child yet I know if all the money spent on war was spent on ending poverty and finding environmental answers, what a wonderful place this earth would be!

At school, even in kindergarten, you teach us to behave in the world. You teach us:

1. not to fight with others,
2. to work things out,
3. to respect others,
4. to clean up our mess,
5. not to hurt other creatures
6. to share - not be greedy.

Then why do you go out and do the things you tell us not to do?

Do not forget why you're attending these conferences, who you're doing this for - we are your own children. You are deciding what kind of world we will grow up in. Parents should be able to comfort their children by saying «everything's going to be alright», «we're doing the best we can» and «it's not the end of the world».

But I don't think you can say that to us anymore. Are we even on your list of priorities? My father always says «You are what you do, not what you say.»

Well, what you do makes me cry at night. You grown ups say you love us. I challenge you, please make your actions reflect your words. Thank you for listening.

### **Questions for the text:**

#### **1. The Speech Objectives .**

What is the speaker's goal? Is it to educate, to motivate, to persuade, or to entertain? Why is this person delivering this speech? Are they the right person? Was the objective achieved?

## **2. The Audience and Context for the Speech**

Where and when is the speech being delivered?

What are the key demographic features of the audience? Technical? Students? Elderly? Athletes? Business leaders? How large is the audience?

In addition to the live audience, is there an external target audience? (e.g. on the Internet or mass media)

## **3. Speech Content and Structure**

The Speech Opening

Was a hook used effectively to draw the audience into the speech? Or did the speaker open with a dry «*It's great to be here today.*»

Did the speech open with a story? A joke? A startling statistic? A controversial statement? A powerful visual? Did the speech opening clearly establish the intent of the presentation?

The Speech Body

Was the presentation focused? i.e. Did all arguments, stories, anecdotes relate back to the primary objective?

Was the speech organized logically? Was it easy to follow? Did the speaker bridge smoothly from one part of the presentation to the next?

The Speech Conclusion

Was the conclusion concise?

Was the conclusion memorable?

## **5. Delivery Skills and Techniques**

Enthusiasm and Connection to the Audience

Was the speaker enthusiastic? How can you tell?

Was there audience interaction? Was it effective? Was the message you- and we-focused, or was it I- and me-focused?

Humour

Was humour used? Was it safe and appropriate given the audience?

Were appropriate pauses used before and after the lines, phrases, or words? Was it relevant to the speech?

Physical - Gestures and Eye Contact

Were gestures natural, timely, and complementary?

Does the speaker have any distracting mannerisms?

Was eye contact effective in connecting the speaker to the whole audience?

Vocal Variety

Was the speaker easy to hear? Were loud and soft variations used appropriately?

Was the pace varied? Was it slow enough overall to be understandable?

Language (Grammatical and lexical choices that a speaker makes)

Was the language appropriate for the audience? Did the speaker articulate clearly?

Were sentences short and easy to understand? Was technical jargon or unnecessarily complex language used?

What rhetorical devices were used? E.g. repetition, alliteration, the rule of three, etc.

### 5. Your opinion

How did the speech make you feel? Were you convinced? Would you want to listen to this speaker again? Were there any original ideas or techniques?

## Lesson 14

<b>Theme: Spoken interaction: casual conversation (strangers, friends, intimates)</b> <i>Conversational features of spoken discourse.</i>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of conversational features of spoken discourse.</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze conversational features of spoken discourse using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand the conversational features of spoken discourse and how they relate to the aims.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. To apply this ability to the analysis of conversational features of spoken discourse.</li> <li>3. To demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of conversational features of spoken discourse.</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 14

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Greets the students</li> <li>2. Asks the questions: What is conversation? What are the characteristics of spoken</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions</li> </ol>

<b>lesson (15- min)</b>	language What are types of conversation do you know? 3. Asks the homework	
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students the theme: Conversational features of spoken discourse: Conversation is an activity where two or more people take turns at speaking (handout 1) 2.2 Give information about politeness in conversational English	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

### Handout 1. What is conversation?

Conversation is an activity where two or more people take turns at speaking  
Strategies of conversational interaction.

- Normal expectations
- Completion points are marked by the end of a sentence and a pause.
- 1. One way to keep the turn is to avoid having those two indicators occur together.
- 2. Make your sentences run on by using connectors such as and, and then, so, but
- 3. Place your pauses at points where the message is clearly incomplete.
- 4. Preferably fill the pauses with hesitation markers such as ‘err’ ‘en; ‘un’ um’

Examples:

A: that’s their favorite restaurant because they.... In France they couldn’t believe it that....you know that they had....that they had had better meals back home.

Note: Pauses are placed before or after verbs rather than at the end of the sentences.

X: I mean his other....em his later films were much more....er really more in the romantic style and tht was more what what he was....you know...em best at doing.

### Handout 2. Politeness in Conversational English – a Discourse Perspective

**Politeness** is the practical application of good manners or etiquette. It is a culturally defined phenomenon, and therefore what is considered polite in one culture can sometimes be quite rude or simply eccentric in another cultural context.

While the goal of politeness is to make all of the parties relaxed and comfortable with one another, these culturally defined standards at times may be manipulated to inflict shame on a designated party.

Anthropologists Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson identified two kinds of politeness, deriving from Erving Goffman's concept of face:

- **Negative politeness:** Making a request less infringing, such as «If you don't mind...» or «If it isn't too much trouble...»; respects a person's right to act freely. In other words, *deference*. There is a greater use of indirect speech acts.
- **Positive politeness:** Seeks to establish a positive relationship between parties; respects a person's need to be liked and understood. Direct speech acts, swearing and flouting Grice's maxims can be considered aspects of positive politeness because:
  - they show an awareness that the relationship is strong enough to cope with what would normally be considered impolite (in the popular understanding of the term);
  - they articulate an awareness of the other person's values, which fulfills the person's desire to be accepted.

#### **Politeness Guidelines**

You can apply the following (where appropriate) to most interactions with others – friends, colleagues, family, customers, everybody! Always use common sense and try to behave as appropriately as possible, taking into account any cultural differences

#### **Politeness Principles Across Cultures**

Being polite may differ from culture to culture – there are linguistic and paralinguistic means of conveying politeness, distance and respect which do not hold true in every language.

Take the classic French *tu-vous* distinction – the same exists in Greek – *εσύ-εσείς* – and using this plural of respect and distance makes politeness easier to spot. For learners coming from such languages, the absence of this in English is rather unsettling and difficult to replace with other linguistic tools

Another example is the highly frequent use of *please* in English and many other languages. In Greek, this is not used very often but informal requests tend to incorporate this ‘please’ function via the use of the noun diminutive *-ακι* as well as a more pleading and intimate intonation while making, say, a request. A Greek learner translating this into English will generally use the imperative, oblivious to the need to replace his/her own politeness indicators with their English equivalent.

#### **Handout 3. Politeness and saying good-bye**

##### **Indirect speech acts**

- Which one does more to save the addressee's **negative** face?
  - 1) Could you pass the salt?
  - 2) Pass the salt.
- Is there a difference in **positive** politeness?

##### **Imperatives and politeness**



Imagine that your classmate wants to come to a party that you are hosting. Which is more polite?

- 1) Can you come to the party?    2) Come to the party!

### **Indirect speech acts**

- Which is more polite, B or B'?

A: How about going to the movies tonight?

B: No.

B': I can't, I have to study.

### **Conversation endings**

A speaker typically does not just say, [Okay,] “Bye,” and walk away; rather, most speakers go through a fairly regular routine of first signaling to the other that the conversation is ending and only then adding a concluding salutation.

### **Closing section**

- (Topic boundary)
- Proper Initiation
- Optional other stuff, e.g.,
  - Making arrangements
  - Reinvocation of things discussed earlier
  - Explaining the reason for the conversation
  - Saying “thank you”
- Terminal Exchange

Pre-closings

B: Right.

A: So, uh.

B: Okay.

A: Well, that's probably all we need to do today.

B: Okay.

A: Alright.

B: So long.

A: Thanks a lot.

B: Bye-bye.

### **Pre-closings**

- Not all sequences “Okay” / “Okay” are pre-closings.
- They're pre-closings only if they occur after a topic boundary.

### **Positive face-saving strategies**

- The Positive Comment
- The Excuse
- The Imperative to End
- Plan
- General Wish
- External positive comment
- Dispreference markers
- Use of names

### **The Excuse**

- I'd better get back to my dorm before...
- I actually have to get going now...
- I'd better go get some work done... I'm so behind in IHUM reading!
- My roommate told me to be back before six, so I actually better get going...

### **The Arrangement/Plan**

- [And] we'll talk another time perhaps.
- [and] maybe we'll get on line again
- [and] maybe we'll meet up again some time
- (Ron,) (we'll) see you (later)
- Talk to you on the next go around

### *Tough case:*

- We'll see how our predictions come true.

### **The General Wish**

- Good luck with that problem set!
- Don't let that chem final worry you. I'm sure you'll do fine.
- Good luck finding his office!

### **Combined positive/negative politeness strategies**

- The Blame
- The Promise
- The Summary
- Goal completion
- The Loss for Words
- Thanks for the Conversation

### **The Blame**

- I better let you get going.
- Well, I shouldn't keep you any longer... I know you're so busy.
- I should probably let you get dinner.

### **The Promise**

- I'll call you soon.
- Let's get lunch sometime.
- I'll talk to you soon.

### The Summary

- Okay, I guess that's most of my, um, financial plans right now. [... Mine too.]
- Well, it sounds like we're doing our part and at least starting, [to recycle]
- But, uh, [ as, + as ] far as that goes, [ I, + we ] at least agree on what we enjoy

### Goal Completion

- [Well] I think we've done it.
- [Well] I think we're about done.
- I guess our five minutes are up according to my watch.
- Surely we've made it.

### The Loss for Words

- I can't think of anything else.
- That's about as much as we can do with current events.
- I guess [this, + the ] weather isn't as lively a topic [ as, + uh, as ] some of the others we might have gotten.
- [Well] that's about all I ...

### Thank you for the Conversation

- [Well] thank you.
- [and] thank you for calling
- Thanks for your time.
- [Well] thanks a lot
- Thanks, Sherry.
- [and] thanks for participating

## Lesson 15

<b>Theme: Spoken interaction: organizing and directing people (at work, at home, in the street) Turn taking</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. To prompt students to take shorter turns than they are accustomed to doing 2. To increase students' awareness of fixed expressions for interrupting 3. To practice recognizing prominence and tonal movement in expressions and high key, rising intonation and falling intonation for, respectively, trying to hold or gain the floor, trying to hold the floor, and ceding the floor 4. To become more aware of turn-taking mechanisms by monitoring their peers' attempts at using them (stage 3)
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up.	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how turn taking use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of spoken texts;

To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of turn taking
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 15

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students  2. Asks the questions What is turn taking? Why is it important turn taking in spoken discourse (in conversation)?  3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students the theme: turn taking. Characteristics of turn taking (handout 1): Smooth, polite and appropriate turn taking is achieved with: - Specific phrases - Gestures and other body language - Noises, e.g. uming and ahing while thinking so as to not lose the turn - Speaking a certain way, e.g. using intonation to show that you have or haven't finished and very quickly saying (just) the beginning of your sentence to interrupt. 2.2 Introduces how to present turn taking (handout 2): One good way of presenting turn taking is showing students there is a potential problem. This can be done with recordings of bad turn taking, e.g. one person dominating the conversation, people talking over each other, or impolite interrupting. They can then brainstorm suitable tactics and phrases to not make the same mistakes and/or listen to good examples for things they can use.	2.1 Students get information about characteristics of turn taking  2.2 Get information about how to present turn taking  2.3 Know about turn taking instructions  2.4 Do the activities.

	<p>2.3 Speaks about turn taking instructions The big list of turn taking language</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Taking the turn</li> <li>2. Keeping your turn</li> <li>3. Getting other people speaking</li> </ol> <p>2.4 Will have the students do the activities</p>	
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 discusses about the characteristics of turn taking and its advantages and disadvantages</p> <p>3.2 Gives homework</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

### **Handout 1. Characteristics of turn taking**

**Smooth, polite and appropriate turn taking is achieved with:**

- Specific phrases
- Gestures and other body language
- Noises, e.g. uming and ahhing while thinking so as to not lose the turn
- Speaking a certain way, e.g. using intonation to show that you have or haven't finished and very quickly saying (just) the beginning of your sentence to interrupt

**The specific turn taking phrases can be divided into ones for:**

- Taking the turn (interrupting, accepting the turn when offered it, speaking first, etc)
- Keeping your turn (stopping other people interrupting, signalling that you are going to continue, taking the turn back and continuing what you were going to say, etc)
- Getting other people speaking (getting the other person to speak first, asking for more details, keeping other people speaking with conversational reactions (a part of "active listening"), changing your mind about interrupting, offering other people the chance to speak, turning down the chance to speak, ending your interruption, and signalling the end of your turn).

### **Handout 2. How to present turn taking**

One good way of presenting turn taking is showing students there is a potential problem. This can be done with recordings of bad turn taking, e.g. one person dominating the conversation, people talking over each other, or impolite interrupting. They can then brainstorm suitable tactics and phrases to not make the same mistakes and/ or listen to good examples for things they can use.

A similar way of approaching the topic is to ask them to do a communicative activity and then ask them to evaluate how well they took turns during the activity, but this is difficult to do properly. If you give them the evaluation questions beforehand, the communication probably won't be natural. However, if you give the evaluation questions after, they probably won't remember what they did. Probably the best solution is to get students to do it in threes, with one person not taking part but just monitoring for what the people speaking do and the language they use. They can then try again with a different person monitoring (obviously this time knowing what they are being monitored for), before brainstorming other ways to do the same thing. This also works well when you have just finished presenting another discussion skill such as giving opinions, as they will probably assume that they are being monitored for just that previous language focus.

Another possibility is to get students deliberately doing something extreme like trying to stop their partner speaking at all. This works best if the student who they are working with doesn't know what they are doing. That person can then perhaps guess what their partner had been asked to do (e.g. what was written on that person's roleplay card). They can then brainstorm ways of making sure those things don't happen in real communication such as useful phrases.

### **Handout 3. Turn taking instructions**

#### **The big list of turn taking language**

##### **1. Taking the turn**

###### **Interrupting**

(I'm afraid) I can't let you go on without (saying)...

Before I forget,... Before you continue, (can I just say)... Before you go on,...

Before you move on,...

Can I/ Could I (just) say something (here)?

Can I/ Could I come in (here/ there)?

Can I/ Could I interrupt you (for a minute/ moment/ second)?

Can I/ Could I just?

Can I/ Could I stop you there?

Excuse me/ Sorry for interrupting, but...

Excuse the interruption, but...

I don't like to interrupt, but...

I don't mean to interrupt, but...

I hate to interrupt (you) (in full flow), but...

I have something to say (on this point).

I know it's rude to interrupt, but...

I wouldn't usually interrupt, but...

I'd like to make a point here (if I can/ could/ may/ might).

I'll interrupt you there.

I'll let you finish in a minute, but...

I'll stop you there.

I'm afraid I have to stop you there.

If I can/ could/ may/ might (just) interrupt you (for just a minute/ moment/ second), I'd like to...

If I may/ might...

If it's okay to interrupt,...

If you don't mind me interrupting,...

If you think that sounds boring/ exciting/ frightening,...

If you will allow me (to say something/ to speak for a second),...

Is this a good time to...?

Just wait until you hear...

May I interrupt?

May I(...)?

Me too! In fact,...

Perhaps I could...

Sorry for butting in, but...

Sorry for not letting you finish, but...

Sorry to butt in, but...

Sorry to interrupt, but...

Sorry to stop you in full flow, but...

Sorry, can I just...?  
Sorry...  
That reminds me of...  
That's nothing!...  
The same (kind of) thing happened to me the other day.  
This may/ might be a good point to...  
This may/ might be the right time to say/ ask...  
Would this be a good time to...?

### **Accepting the turn when offered it**

Thanks. (I won't take long).  
What I wanted to say was...  
What was I going to say? Oh yes,...

### **Speaking first**

Although you probably know more about this than me, ...  
Can I go ahead?  
Can I speak first?  
I can see you want to say something about this, but...  
Before you get started, ...  
I'd like to start the discussion by...  
May I?  
Shall I get us started? Shall I start the discussion?

## **2. Keeping your turn**

### **Stopping other people interrupting/ Refusing interruption**

(I have) just one more point (to make).  
(I'm/ I've) nearly finished.  
(Just) one more thing (before you interrupt).  
Before you have your say, ...  
Before you interrupt, ...  
Before you reply, ...  
Can I/ Could I just finish (my sentence/ this point/ what I was saying)?  
I can see that you want to interrupt, but...  
I can see that you want to say something (about this), but...  
I haven't (quite) finished (my point) (yet).  
I haven't (quite) finished what I was saying.  
I haven't got to my main point (yet), which is...  
I just want to make one more point/ say one more thing before you have your say.  
I know what you're going to say.  
I know you're dying to jump in, but...  
I won't take long.  
If I can/ could just finish (what I was saying/ what I wanted to say/ this one point), ...  
If you'd allow me to finish...  
Please (just) let me finish.  
Please allow me to finish.  
That is the next point I want to get to, once I've finished...  
You probably want to say..., but...

### **Signalling that you are going to continue**

And that was just the beginning of the story. / And that's not all. / And then it got even worse.  
And what's more, ... / But you haven't heard the half of it. / Furthermore, ... / In addition, ...

Not only that, but.../ You might think that is all there is to say on the matter, but...

### **Taking the turn back/ Continuing what you were going to say/ Getting back on track**

(Mmm. Good point.) Anyhow/ Anyway/ Anyhoo,...

As I was saying (before I was interrupted),...

Can I/ Could I get back to you later on that?

Can we get back to the point on the agenda?

Carrying on from where I/ we left off,...

Getting back on track,...

Getting back to the point at hand,...

I'll come/ I'll be coming on to that (point/ question) later.

If I can return to the original topic,...

Perhaps we can talk about that later (but...)

Shall I carry on?

To get back on topic,...

To get back to the point at hand/ to what I was saying,...

We seem to be getting off the point.

What was I saying?/ Where was I?/ Where were we? Oh yes,...

### **3. Getting other people speaking**

#### **Getting the other person to speak first**

(No, please). After you. / Age before beauty / I'd like to hear your opinion before I comment.

I'm not sure what I want to say yet, so... / I'll let you go first. / Ladies first. / Please go ahead.

You know more about this than me, so... / You must have an opinion on this, so...

#### **Offering other people the chance to speak**

(Now) I'd be (very) interested to hear your views (on...)/ what you think (about...)

..., but I'd be interested in hearing your take on it.

..., but I'm sure you have another point of view.

..., right?

Am I right? Any (initial) thoughts on...? But that's enough from me. Can you give me your thoughts on...? Do you agree? Do you have an opinion on...? Do you have any (particular) thoughts/ views on...? Do you have any opinions on/ about...? Do you think...? Do you/ Did you want to add anything? Does anyone want to say anything before we move on? Don't you think (so)? And you? How about you? (Now) I'd like to hear what you think (about...)/ your views (on...). From your point of view,...? How do you feel about...? I imagine you will have strong opinions on...	I know this is not your specialist subject, but... I know you haven't had much time to think about this, but... Or am I just talking nonsense? Or not? Please tell me your opinion on... What are your (first) thoughts on...? What are your feelings about...? What are your views on...? What do you reckon? What do you think (about...)? What reaction do you have to...? What's your experience (of this)? What's your opinion (on this)? What's your position on...? What's your take on...? What's your view on...? Would you agree (that...)? You haven't said anything yet. You must have a view on this too.
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### **Asking for more details**

And then? / Dish! / How did you get out of that? / What happened? / What are you going to do about it? / So?

### **Keeping other people speaking with interested noises etc**

(I'm) sorry to hear that.

Amazing! Congratulations! / Well done! / Shudder! / Glad to hear it! / Ha! / How wonderful/ exciting/ depressing/ embarrassing/ ironic! / I don't believe it! / I know./ I know (just) what you mean. / Never mind! / Nice! / Lucky you! / No!?! / No way! / Oh my goodness!

Really? / That sounds great/ awful/ horrible. / That was close! / That's a pity!/ That's a shame! That's amazing! / Well I never!/ Well I never did! / What a pity!/ What a shame!

Whoops! / Wow! / You lucky thing!/ You poor thing! / You're joking!?

### **Signalling the end of your turn**

And so on. / Etcetera etcetera. / I could go on. / I think I've made my point. / Sorry for waffling on. / That's all I wanted to say. / Which just about covers it. / (I think) you get the idea.

### **Turning down the chance to speak**

I can't add anything to that.

I don't have any view on this at all.

I think you've covered everything.

I'm still just digesting what you said.

I'm still thinking about what I want to say.

### **Changing your mind about interrupting**

I was going to interrupt, but...

I'll let you finish.

No no, you go on.

No, it's okay. I've forgotten what I was going to say.

Sorry, I didn't mean to interrupt.

Sorry, I thought you'd finished.

That's okay, you've already answered my question.

### **Ending your interruption**

Sorry, please carry on./ Sorry, please go on.

Sorry, you were going to say?

Sorry, you were saying?

Sorry, you were saying...

Sorry. What were you saying?

**Activity 1. Try to think of at least one phrase for interrupting including each of the words below. You shouldn't need to change the words at all (although you can if you like). You may be able to use the same sentence in more than one place below, but please try to think of at least one different one for each key word.**

1. Interrupt 2. Sorry 3. Stop 4. Before 5. May 6. If 7. Just 8. Minute 9. Finish 10. Here

### **Suggested answers**

1. Interrupt - Could I interrupt you (for a minute/ moment/ second)?/ Excuse me for interrupting, but.../ I don't like to interrupt, but.../ I hate to interrupt you, but.../ I'll interrupt you there./ If I can just interrupt you for a moment, I'd like to.../ Sorry to interrupt, but.../ I know it's rude to interrupt, but.../ I don't mean to interrupt, but.../ If it's okay to interrupt,.../ If you don't mind me interrupting,.../ Excuse the interruption, but...

2. Sorry – Sorry for interrupting, but.../ Sorry for butting in, but.../ Sorry for not letting you finish, but.../ Sorry to butt in, but.../ Sorry to interrupt, but.../ Sorry to stop you in full flow, but.../ Sorry, can I just...?
3. Stop - I'll stop you there./ Can I stop you there?/ I'm afraid I have to stop you there./ Sorry to stop you in full flow, but... - (NOT Can you stop (talking)?)
4. Before - Before I forget,.../ Before you go on,.../ Before you move on,...
5. May - If I may.../ May I interrupt?/ May I(...)?/ This may be a good point to.../ This may be the right time to say...
6. If - If you think that sounds frightening,.../ If you will allow me to say something,.../ If I may,.../ If it's okay to interrupt,.../ If you don't mind me interrupting,...
7. Just – Can I just say something here?/ Could I just...?/ If I can interrupt for just a second,.../ Just wait until you hear.../ Before you continue, can I just say...
8. Minute - I'll let you finish in a minute, but.../ If I can interrupt for just a minute,...
9. Finish - I'll let you finish in a minute, but.../ Sorry for not letting you finish, but...

**Activity 2. Try to think of at least one phrase for interrupting including each of the words below. You shouldn't need to change the words at all (although you can if you like). You may be able to use the same sentence in more than one place below, but please try to think of at least one different one for each key word.**

1. Just 2. Say 3. Can 4. Finish 5. Before 6. Point 7. Off 8. On 9. Any 10. Where

*Suggested answers:*

1. Just - (I have) just one more point (to make)./ (Please) just let me finish./ I just want to make one more point before you have your say./ Just one more thing (before you interrupt)./ Can I just finish this point?
2. Say - I just want to make one more point before you have your say./ I know what you're going to say./ You probably want to say..., but.../ As I was saying (before I was interrupted),.../ To get back to what I was saying,.../ What was I saying?
3. Can - I can see that you want to interrupt, but.../ I can see that you want to say something about this, but.../ If I can just finish what I wanted to say,.../ If I can return to the original topic,.../ Perhaps we can talk about that later, but...
4. Finish - (I'm/ I've) nearly finished./ (Please) (just) let me finish./ (Please) allow me to finish./ Can I just finish (my sentence/ this point/ what I was saying)?/ I haven't (quite) finished (quite) finished what I was saying./ If I can just finish this one point,.../ If you'd allow me to finish.../ That is the next point I want to get to, once I've finished...
5. Before - Before you interrupt,.../ Before you reply,.../ Before you have your say,...
6. Point - (I have) just one more point (to make)./ I haven't (quite) finished my point (yet)./ I'll come on to that point later./ To get back to the point at hand,.../ We seem to be getting off the point.
7. Off - We seem to be getting off the point./ Carrying on from where I left off,.../ That's a bit off topic.
8. On - Shall I carry on?/ To get back on topic,.../ Carrying on from where I left off,.../ Getting on with the point at hand,...
9. Any – Anyway,.../ Anyhow,....

10. Where - Where was I?/ Where were we? Oh yes,...

**Activity 3. Your partner will choose one of the cards below and do that thing during the communicative activity that your teacher gives you. Try to guess what your partner is doing.**

Try to get your partner speaking more than you do

Try to speak as much as possible

Try to keep the time each person (including yourself) speaks exactly equal

Try to change topics as much as possible

Try to keep to the same topic for as long as possible

React as much as possible to what your partner says (without interrupting)

Interrupt even when you aren't exactly sure what you are going to say

Politely reject your partner's attempts to interrupt as much as possible

### Lesson 16

<b>Theme: Spoken interaction: formal (meetings, forums, conferences) Interviews</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To introduce students to a range of linguistic approaches to the description and analysis of interviews</li> <li>2. To provide opportunities for participants to analyze interviews using the analytical methods introduced.</li> <li>3. To have students understand the interviews and how they relate to the aims.</li> <li>4. To increase students' awareness of fixed expressions for interviews</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. be able to explain and demonstrate how interviews use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of interviews;</li> <li>3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of interviews</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 16

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students  2. Asks the questions What is interview? Why is it important interview in spoken discourse (in conversation)?  3. Asks the hometask	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students the theme: Interviews. The sample interview should be taken from an high-interest, age-appropriate magazine. Teacher makes enough copies of the interview for each student. Will have fluent readers read the interview, and encourages students to follow along in the text as they listen. Discusses why the interviewer asked the questions in the sample. In pairs, will have students write down a list of other questions that they wish the interviewer would have asked. Makse sure to pair students who have weaker English skills with students who have stronger English skills. Encourages the pairs to share their ideas with the class. Role play a model interview with students. Asks for a student to volunteer to be interviewed. As the interviewer, asks the student questions about one aspect of his or her life. Models strong interviewing skills, such as maintaining eye contact, speaking clearly, asking follow-up questions, and sticking to pertinent topics. Conducting an Interview Teacher will have students choose a person to interview. Suggests that they choose someone who they can contact easily, such as a nearby family member or neighbour. Encourages students to choose a subject from their native culture. Asks students to make a list of questions they would like to ask the subject of the interview. Cautions them to limit the list to fewer than 10 questions, and encourages them to make the questions as specific as possible. If possible, provides students with a blank	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.  They should tape the interview or write down the responses the subject gives. Students can conduct the interview in their native language.

	<p>tape and a recording device. Ensures that those students are familiar with the technology and can use the device appropriately.</p> <p>Instructs students to interview the subject. Instructs students to circle or rewrite the part of the interview that they found most interesting. Students should write down the section of the interview, translated into English.</p> <p>Encourages students to share the written section of the interview with the class. Students who are more secure with spoken English can present their findings verbally. Other students may wish for the teacher to read their findings aloud. Students who do not have a strong grasp of the English language can ask a friend or community member who is familiar with the language to help them translate. The translation can then be read to the rest of the class.</p> <p>2.2 Will have the student do the activities.</p>	
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Discusses the theme</p> <p>3.2 Estimates the activity</p> <p>3.3 Gives the hometask</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

**Handout 1. Types of interview.**

**There are many types of interviews serving diverse purposes. Knowing what to expect can help you achieve your goals.**

*1. Informational Interview*

The objective of this interview is to ask for advice and learn more about a particular career field, employer or particular job. Interviewing experts in their field is one more way to become more occupationally literate. The knowledge that you gain here will make you a sharper and more informed. You will also make a contact and further develop your network.

*2. Screening or Telephone Interview*

A phone interview is a very cost effective way to screen candidates. These can last anywhere from 10 to 30 minutes. You should prepare for it like an open book exam. It is recommended that you have in front of you your resume, the job description, a list of references, some prepared answers to challenging questions and perhaps something about the company. The vast majority of communication is non-verbal. Because they can't see your body language, it is critically important to have positive and polished answers with energetic tone and inflection. Be sure to ask what the next step is.

### *3. Individual Interview*

This is the most common type and often called a “personal interview.” It is typically a one-on-one exchange at the organizations offices. In order to best prepare you will want to know the length of the interview which can usually range from 30 to 90 minutes. If the interview is 30 minutes you have to be concise and have a high impact with your answers. If it is 60 or 90 minutes you will want to go into much more depth and use specific examples to support your generalizations.

### *4. Small Group or Committee Interview*

This is where you will be meeting with several decision-makers at once. This can be an intimidating experience if you are not prepared. It’s an efficient way to interview candidates and allows for different interpretations or perceptions of the same answer. Be sure to make eye contact with everyone, no matter who asked the question. It’s important to establish rapport with each member of the interview team. Try to find out the names and job titles of the participants.

### *5. The Second or On-Site Interview*

After your first interview, you may be asked back again for a “second date.” They like you enough that you made the first round of cuts, but they would like to know more about you before making their final decision. Second Interviews can last either a half or full-day so it is best to check again and get an agenda. You may be meeting with three to five individuals. This may include a representative from Human Resources, the department head, the office staff and the department head’s supervisor. Be alert and enthusiastic at all times! The more you know about the structure of the process, the less anxious you are going to feel and the better you will perform. This is the last step before an offer is made.

### *6. Behavioral-Based Interview*

The theory behind Critical Behavioral Interviewing (CBI) is that past performance in a similar situation is the best predictor of future performance. CBI probes much deeper than traditional interviewing techniques. You should prepare by thinking of specific examples that demonstrate your competence in core behaviors such as teamwork, problem-solving, communication, creativity, flexibility and organizational skills. You will want to tell your story and structure it by stating your answers in terms of the situation, the task, what action you took, and what was the result or outcome.

### *7. Task Oriented or Testing Interview*

This is a problem-solving interview where you will be given some exercises to demonstrate your creative and analytical abilities. A company may ask you to take a short test to evaluate your technical knowledge and skills. Sometimes a presentation to a group is necessary to determine your communication skills. Try to relax as much as possible.

### *8. Stress Interview*

During this rare type, the interviewer tries to bait you, to see how you will respond. The objective is to find your weaknesses and test how you hold up to pressure. Such tactics as weird silences, constant interruptions and challenging interrogation with antagonistic questions are designed to push your boundaries. The question you have to ask yourself is: Do I want to work for a company that treats me this way even before the offer is made? Rethink the corporate culture.

## **Activity 1. Match the common interview questions (1-6) with the suitable response from the list (A – F).**

1. Why did you choose this company?
2. What are your strengths/weaknesses?
3. How would your friends describe you?
4. What is your greatest achievement?

5. How well do you work in a team?
  6. Where will you be in 5 years?
- A. People say I'm sociable, organised, and decisive.
  - B. My aim is to have a position in the Management Team.
  - C. I have excellent time management, but I can be impatient for results.
  - D. Because I think I will find the work environment both challenging and rewarding.
  - E. I always support my colleagues and believe we should work towards a common goal.
  - F. Leading the University football team to the national Championships

**Activity 2. Match the words on the left to the words on the right to make 'power phrases' for interviews.**

1. showing	A. colleagues
2. presenting	B. initiative
3. solving	C. ideas
4. controlling	D. objectives
5. achieving	E. deadlines
6. motivating	F. budgets
7. meeting	G. problems
8. creating	H. information

**Answer**

- showing *initiative (B)*  
 presenting *information (H)*  
 solving *problems (G)*  
 controlling *budgets (F)*  
 achieving *objectives (D)*  
 motivating *colleagues (A)*  
 meeting *deadlines (E)*  
 creating *ideas (C)*

**Activity 3. The words in the column on the right are phrases that use the word career. For each definition on the left, match it to the correct phrase on the right:**

1. Chances of future success in your career
  2. The direction you hope your career will take
  3. A change you make in order to progress
  4. Time when you are not employed, perhaps when travelling or looking after children
  5. A series of promotions towards more senior positions
- A. career move
  - B. career break
  - C. career prospects
  - D. career ladder
  - E. career plan
- A. colleagues

**Answer**

- Chances of future success in your career - *C. career prospects*  
 The direction you hope your career will take - *E. career plan*  
 A change you make in order to progress - *A. career move*  
 Time when you are not employed, perhaps when travelling or looking after children - *B. career break*

A series of promotions towards more senior positions - *D. career ladder*

**Activity 4. Interview tips. Here are some tips relating to your appearance and body language. For each one select the correct missing word from the options**

1. Make sure your clothes are clean, but \_\_\_\_\_ wear obvious logos or designer names.  
a) do    b) don't    c) must
2. Don't use \_\_\_\_\_ much deodorant or perfume!  
a) to    b) too    c) two
3. Don't wear too much jewellery. Interviewers don't \_\_\_\_\_ like nose rings!  
a) never    b) sometimes    c) usually
4. Wear \_\_\_\_\_ that are smart, but comfortable.  
a) cloths    b) clothes    c) covers
5. Arrive well \_\_\_\_\_ the interview time.  
a) before    b) after    c) later than
6. Make eye \_\_\_\_\_ with the interviewer when you are introduced.  
a) contactation    b) contiction    c) contact
7. Give a firm handshake, and make sure you \_\_\_\_\_!  
a) snarl    b) smile    c) snigger
8. Don't \_\_\_\_\_. This will distract the interviewer from what you're saying.  
a) fidget    b) figgit    c) fijit

**Answer**

1. Make sure your clothes are clean, but \_\_\_\_\_ wear obvious logos or designer names.  
a) do  
**b) don't** - You should not wear obvious logos or designer names at job interviews.  
c) must
2. Don't use \_\_\_\_\_ much deodorant or perfume!  
a) to  
**b) too** - You should always spell 'too' with two 'o's when using the phrase 'too much'  
c) two
3. Don't wear too much jewellery. Interviewers don't \_\_\_\_\_ like nose rings!  
a) never  
b) sometimes  
**c) usually** - they don't 'usually' like nose rings. The other two options are not grammatically correct.
4. Wear \_\_\_\_\_ that are smart, but comfortable.  
a) cloths  
**b) clothes** - We wear 'clothes', not 'cloths' or 'covers'.  
c) covers
5. Arrive well \_\_\_\_\_ the interview time.  
**a) before** - You want to arrive before the interview starts - not after!  
b) after  
c) later than
6. Make eye \_\_\_\_\_ with the interviewer when you are introduced.  
a) contactation  
b) contiction  
**c) contact** - Make eye 'contact'. 'Contactation' and 'contiction' are not words.
7. Give a firm handshake, and make sure you \_\_\_\_\_!  
a) snarl  
**b) smile** - It's not very friendly to snarl or snigger at someone - make sure you SMILE instead!  
c) snigger



8. Don't \_\_\_\_\_. This will distract the interviewer from what you're saying.

a) **fidget** - DON'T fidget! You want the interviewer to listen to what you are saying. The 'd' in b) fidget is silent.

c) figgit

**Activity 5. Read the text below and select the best option from the drop-down menu of words.**

If you have (gained/arrived/reached/achieved) the interview stage, your CV and letter of application must have been (effective/ important/significant/impressive)! The company now wants to know more about you. But there is still more work to do if you want to get that job! Make sure you have (researched/discovered/inquired/examined) the company as thoroughly as possible - use the Internet, company reports, recruitment literature etc. (Remember / Imagine / Remind / Summarize) yourself of why you applied to this company. Make a list of the skills, experience, and interests you can (show/present/offer/demonstrate) the organisation. Finally, try to (ask/suggest/give/predict) the questions you will be expected to answer - imagine you are the interviewer!

**Activity 6. Sample for interview questions. Answer the questions:**

1. What is your country famous for?
2. What do you like about living in your city?
3. What do you *not* like about living in your city?
4. Describe your family.
5. Describe a good friend. Tell about his/her personality and physical appearance. Why is he/she your friend?
6. What do you usually do with your friends? When do you usually meet them? Where do you usually go? How do you usually go places with them (by car, by bicycle, by bus, on foot)?
7. How many days a week do you go to school? How many hours do you spend at school every day?
8. How long is your summer vacation? How many holidays do you have during the school year? What are they?
9. What are the subjects that you are studying at school this year?
10. What subject do you like the most? Why?
11. What subject do you dislike the most? Why?
12. What do you usually carry in your school bag?
13. What is in fashion for girls this season?
14. What is in fashion for boys this season?
15. What is your very favorite movie?
16. What is your very favorite book?
17. Who are your favorite musicians?
18. What is your favorite food?
19. Do you like American food?
20. What is your opinion of America?
21. If an American student came to your city, where would you take him/her?
22. Look into your future and complete this phrase: "Ten years from now, I ..."

## Lesson 17

<b>Theme: Oral discourse analyses</b> ( <i>Language and gender</i> )	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. to explore the role of gender as a sociolinguistic variable in the linguistic behaviour/patterns of males and females.</li> <li>2. to understand how linguistic practices and patterns are shaped by gender, culture and society.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender;</li> <li>3. be ablt to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 17

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Greets the students</li> <li>2. Asks the questions               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women?</li> <li>• Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?</li> </ul> </li> <li>3. Asks the questions</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions</li> </ol>

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

### Handout 1. Gender language differences

Sociolinguistics is a field of study that reviews how language varies within social groups and strata. Here are some of the key findings about how men and women use language differently.

#### Men's language

Crawford (1997) notes the three main objectives of male speech as:

- To assert one's position of dominance.
- To attract and maintain an audience.
- To assert one's self when another person has the floor.

Mulac (2001) notes that men tend to use language that reflects a more dominant and certain position. They identify:

Greater usage of	Example
Quantitative references	<i>It is 25 miles away.</i>
Judgmental adjectives	<i>His performance is poor.</i>
Commands	<i>Turn that off now.</i>
Location words	<i>Take it off the table put in in the cupboard.</i>
Brief sentences	<i>Looks great! Now what?</i>
Self-references	<i>I'm in agreement with that.</i>

Greater usage of	Example
Quantitative references	<i>It is 25 miles away.</i>
Judgmental adjectives	<i>His performance is poor.</i>
Commands	<i>Turn that off now.</i>

Location words	<i>Take it off the table put in in the cupboard.</i>
Brief sentences	<i>Looks great! Now what?</i>
Self-references	<i>I'm in agreement with that.</i>

Poynton (1989) noted that men, in comparison with women:

- Use more slang.
- Swear more often.
- Use fewer intensifiers.
- Use fewer adjectives.

### Women's language

Crawford (1997) notes the three main objectives of female speech as:

- To create and maintain relationships of closeness and equality.
- To criticize others in acceptable (indirect ways).
- To interpret accurately and sensitively the speech of other females.

Mulac (2001) noted that women use language that is more cautious and concerned not to offend or put the woman an embarrassing situation. They identify:

Greater usage of	Example
Intensive adverbs	It's so terribly interesting, isn't it?
Qualifying clauses	In which something is
Emotional reference	That made her feel rather angry.
Longer sentences	Whilst I think it would be a good idea I feel you might want to...
Initial adverbials	Owing to the interest we have now...
Uncertainty	It seems rather vague, I suppose.
Hedging	She's a bit like Jane in that.
Negation	Is it not a Bernini statue?
Simultaneous opposites	He looks a bit angry yet still reasonably calm.
Questioning	Do you think this looks good?

Poynton (1989) noted that women:

- Are generally more polite in their speech (though are no different in sincerity).
- Use politeness markers such as 'please' and 'thank you'.
- Use super-polite 'multiple modalities' such as «I was wondering if you could possibly just do me a small favour, if you wouldn't mind».
- Tend to use tag questions.
- Use more intensifiers.
- Use more adjectives.

Use euphemisms rather than swearin

These are ten elements of the language that women use, as identified by Robin Lakoff in 1975. Of course, not all women use all of this language all of the time, and some may question the whole.

#### *1. Hedging*

Hedging provides a way out, should disagreement occur, qualifying statements with non-absolute language, such as 'sort of', 'I guess', etc.

Well, I sort of looked at him, and then he kind of looked back. Then I guess I kept looking.

#### *2. Politeness*

Politeness is taken to more extreme forms, either putting the speaker in an inferior position or seeking to be thoughtful and non-threatening towards the other person.

Do excuse me, but I really appreciate it if you could take a little time to help me.

#### *3. Tag questions*

Tag questions added to the end of a statement do not change the statement, although they do seek agreement.

You would do that, wouldn't you?

#### *4. Emotional emphasis*

The emotional content of sentences are increased through the use of intonation that emphasizes and exaggerates emotional.

You are so very kind. I really want you to know I am so grateful.

#### *5. Empty adjectives*

Adjectives are applied to soften and add friendly elements to the sentence, although they do not add any particularly meaningful content.

What a charming and sweet young man you are!

#### *6. Correct grammar and pronunciation*

Care is taken to be correct with language and speech. Colloquialisms and slang are used far less than men.

I would be very appreciative if you could show me the way.

#### *7. Lack of humor*

Humor is not used very much and jokes are very seldom told.

#### *8. Direct quotations*

The words that people said are often quoted, even quoting people who quote other people.

Then she said that he said, «I won't do it.» So I said, «Why not?»

#### *9. Extended vocabulary*

Rather than simple language, vocabulary is extended to use descriptive language. Thus, for example a precise language is used to describe colors.

The walls should be cerise, with a royal blue tracer.

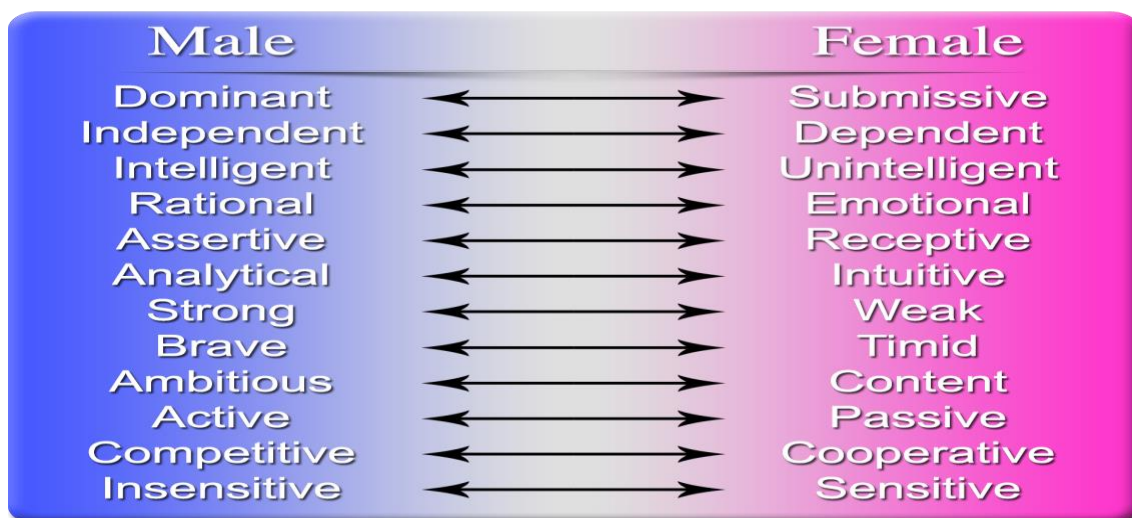
#### *10. Declarations with interrogative intonation*

Statements are made, but using the intonation used for questions, rising at the end of the statement.

That sounds like a good thing to do?

### **Handout 2. Frame of male and female.**

## Male and Female Stereotypes



### Main activities

#### 1. Sticks and stones

Ask the students to start thinking about how language is used once we grow up and go to primary and secondary school. They are going to make some lists of words, in pairs or groups of four. The lists should be of:

- (i) words of flattery for girls
- (ii) words of flattery for boys
- (iii) insults for girls
- (iv) insults for boys

The lists should be comprised of individual words (nouns and adjectives) or very short phrases. Let them be as rude as you feel you can tolerate, for the insults. If necessary let them sling out the first few as a class and put these on everyone's lists.

Get them to do this fairly quickly. They should be able to come up with a good few within five minutes (although the insults may be more forthcoming than the flattery).

Come together as a class to make Venn diagrams. The 'boy' and 'girl' circles should overlap to provide a space for terms that are aimed at both.

Take some time to focus on the insults and extrapolate from them. Are there any generalisations you can make about what the terms tend to make us think about? E.g. do the insults about girls focus on sexual behaviour? Do there tend to be more 'animal' words for girls? Why? Do the flattering words focus more on appearance with girls? If there are some words that are aimed at both, do they mean exactly the same thing in each case ('bitch' could be an interesting one here...)?

#### 2. Talk, talk

Read the poem 'Men Talk' by Liz Lochhead. If time allows, let students hear the poet read it on Youtube.

Check the students understand the poet's main idea about how seriously men and women are taken when they speak.

Explain that having analysed the words closely from the previous activity, the students are going to do similar work with the words in the poem.

Hand out the laminated words for 'women's speech' from the poem (e.g. CHATTER, NAG, BABBLE, YATTER, YAP, NIGGLE); one each to pair or group of three or four students. Ask the students to make three or four statements about what is suggested to them by their word. Here is an example (you could have this on a pre-prepared powerpoint slide):

#### Gossip

- 1) Gossip is about things or people in a limited sphere (such as local gossip, school gossip, celebrity gossip)
- 2) Gossip is not about important matters
- 3) Gossip might not even be true
- 4) Gossip might be mean or nasty

Allow about ten minutes for this activity, before moving on to the summary.

### Home learning

Here's a few possible home learning activities, depending on how you would like to progress with this. Choose one and explain it at the end of the lesson(s), or post them for students to choose from (with more detailed explanations) on your VLE.

1. Watch Australian PM Julia Gillard's attack on opposition leader for sexism and misogyny. Which words does she pinpoint as having offended her as a woman? Why these particular words, do you think? <http://tinyurl.com/92w5v8u>
2. Rap/ hip-hop is notorious for containing sexist language. Analyse a song you know. What does it show us about attitudes to women? Find an antidote to this. Have female rappers hit back? An older example would be Queen Latifah's 'UNITY'. Watch this on Youtube or find a more modern equivalent. <http://tinyurl.com/bp49rzt>
3. Find out about Mitt Romney's recent reference to 'binders full of women'. Why did this phrase so light up the Twittersphere? This article may help, or can be set as a reading assignment (for able students): <http://tinyurl.com/btfhn2c>

### Summary

Bring the class back together to hear the statements about each word in 'Men Talk' and encourage students to explain how the words emphasise the poet's point. You could conclude the discussion in different ways:

1. Through exploration of students' own experiences.
2. Through re-emphasising the idea that language is not neutral and has the power to shape attitudes and reflect values.
3. Through leading on to the next step: if language is not neutral and has the power to shape attitudes and reflect values, should we regulate its use? ( leading to discussion about hate-speech; censorship; sensitive use of language; 'PC').

### Question Excerpt

1. What are weak expletives, who uses them and why?
2. Who is more likely to use language to bond, encourage and balance power?

A. men

B. women

C. children

3. Three women and three men are chatting. Who is likely to talk more?

A. The women

B. The men

C. They are likely to talk about the same amount

4. Women use more what than men?

A. tag questions

B. specific lexis for household chores

C. phatic talk

D. swear words

E. adjectives

F. references to colour

5. Which of the following are typically true of male speech?

A. They swear more than women

B. They describe things more than women

C. They are more likely to interrupt than women

**D.** They backchannel a lot

**6.** Women frequently use language and conversation to establish their dominance within a group

**A.** True

**B.** False

**7.** Backchannelling is more common face to face, than on the telephone.

**A.** True

**B.** False

**8.** Your gender and your sex are the same thing, at least in linguistic terms.

**A.** True

**B.** False

**9.** It is important to consider gender within language a power, because people's gender is the main factor affecting their lexical choice.

**A.** True

**B.** False

**10.** Women use tag questions more frequently than men.

**A.** True

**B.** False



# KOMMUNIKATIV LEKSIKA

## LESSON 1

<b>Theme: A wide of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms, appreciating shifts in style and register</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. to explore the role of gender as a sociolinguistic variable in the linguistic behaviour/patterns of males and females.</li> <li>2. to understand how linguistic practices and patterns are shaped by gender, culture and society.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender;</li> <li>3. be ablt to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 1

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Greets the students</li> <li>2. Asks the questions               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women?</li> <li>• Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?</li> </ul> </li> <li>3. Asks the questions</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions</li> </ol>

<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

What is an idiom?

An idiom is an expression where the meaning is different from the meaning of the individual words. For example, to have your feet on the ground is an idiom meaning 'to be sensible': "Tara is an intelligent girl who has both her feet firmly on the ground."

A lot of idioms are formed using phrasal verbs. For example: After he left me, it took me a long time to pick up the pieces (= It took me a long time to return to a normal life).

Many idioms are colloquial, which means that they are used in informal conversation rather than in writing or formal language. For example: "I won't tell anyone your secret. My lips are sealed."

In this lesson, you will find a lot of colloquial idioms, together with some examples of slang (very informal words and expressions that are often used by particular groups of people, such as teenagers). If an idiom that is being practised is informal or very informal, the book will tell you this.

**Task 1.** Read the text and fill in the gaps with the words (red, white, green, blue, black)

In the red

The letter came out of the ... ! I wasn't expecting it. But there it was in ... and ..., signed by the bank manager. I had no money in my checking account. I was in the ....

I couldn't believe it. So I went to see the manager. We looked at the problem together. The bank had made a mistake. It had put ten dollars into my account instead of one thousand dollars!

Because it was the bank's mistake, there was no delay reopening my account. The manager cut through all the ... tape. Now I had money in my account. And I had the .... light to write checks again.

### Pair work. Exercises 1.

Complete the idioms in these sentences with one of the key words given, as in the example. If you are not sure, try looking up the key word in a good dictionary.

clanger    shot    ocean    plate    block    handle    pie

- 1 All the promises these politicians make! It's just *pie* in the sky. (big promises that will never materialise)
- 2 The small amount of money donated is just a drop in the ..... compared with the vast sum we need. (tiny contribution compared with what is needed)
- 3 You really dropped a ..... when you criticised the Americans last night; that man opposite you was from New York! (said something inappropriate/embarrassing)
- 4 I can't do that job as well; I've got enough on my ..... as it is. (have more than enough work)
- 5 When I told her she just flew off the ..... and shouted at me. (lost her temper)
- 6 His father was a gambler too. He's a real chip off the old ..... (just like one's parents/grandparents)
- 7 I wasn't really sure; I guessed it; it was just a ..... in the dark. (a wild guess)

### Exercises 2.

Use a good general dictionary or a dictionary of idioms to see if it can help you decide which version of these sentences is in the normal grammatical form for the idiom concerned, as in the example. Check the meaning too, if you are not sure.

*Example:* You bark / are barking up the wrong tree if you think I did it. (see B opposite)

- 1 Holland is springing / springs to mind as the best place to go for a cycling holiday; it's very flat.
- 2 That remark is flying / flies in the face of everything you've ever said before on the subject.
- 3 He was innocent after all. It just goes / is just going to show that you shouldn't believe what you read in the papers.
- 4 You sit / 're sitting pretty! Look at you, an easy job, a fantastic salary, a free car!
- 5 His attitude is leaving / leaves a lot to be desired. I do wish he would try to improve a little.

How would you organise this selection of idioms into different groups? Use some of the ways suggested on the opposite page, plus any other ways you can think of.

be in a fix    child's play    rough and ready    be up to it    hold your tongue  
be out of sorts    hold your horses    a fool's errand    odds and ends  
stay mum    give or take

Without using a dictionary, try to guess the meaning of these idioms from the context.

- 1 It's midnight. Time to hit the sack.
- 2 This is just kid's stuff. I want something challenging!
- 3 He was down and out for two years, but then he got a job and found a home for himself.

# Idioms describing people

## Positive and negative qualities

<i>positive</i>	<i>negative</i>
She has a heart of gold. [very kind, generous]	She's as hard as nails. [no sympathy for others]
He's as good as gold. [generous, helpful, well-behaved used generally for children]	He's rather a cold fish. [distant, unfriendly]

Note also:

He's such an awkward customer. [difficult person to deal with]

She's a pain in the neck. Nobody likes her. [nuisance, difficult]

He gets on everyone's nerves. [irritates everybody]

## People's 'fast' and 'slow' qualities

<i>fast</i>	<i>slow</i>
He's very quick off the mark; he always gets things before everybody else.	I was a bit slow off the mark; the job had been filled by the time I got the forms.
You've asked him to marry you! You're a fast worker! You only met him three weeks ago!	Come on! Hurry up! You're such a slow-coach!

## How people relate to the social norm

She's a bit of an odd-ball; very strange. [peculiar, strange]

He's really over the top. [very exaggerated in behaviour]

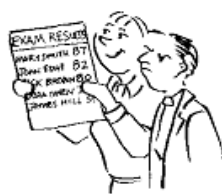
He's round the bend, if you ask me. [absolutely crazy/mad]

My politics are very middle-of-the-road. [very normal; no radical ideas; neither left- nor right-wing]

## Who's who in the class? Idioms for 'people in the classroom'



teacher's pet



Mary's top of the class



a real know-all



a bit of a big-head



a lazy-bones

The last three idioms are used of people outside of the class, too.

Try to complete these idioms from memory if possible.

- 1 She does a lot of voluntary work; she has a heart...
- 2 Don't expect any sympathy from the boss; she's as hard...
- 3 I'm sure Gerry will help you; he's as good...
- 4 I was too late to get on that course; I was a bit slow...
- 5 You won't find him very friendly; he's rather a cold...
- 6 Tell him to hurry up! He's such a...

What do we call...

- 1 an irritating person who knows everything?
- 2 the person who is the teacher's favourite?
- 3 someone who thinks they are the best and says so?
- 4 the one who gets the best marks?
- 5 a person who is very lazy?

You can also learn idioms by associating them with a key word or words. For example, two idioms on the left-hand page had *gold* in them and two had *mark*. Which were they? Here is a work-fork based on *to have + head*. Use the expressions to finish the sentences below.

to have	—	one's head screwed on [be sensible]
		a head for heights [not suffer from vertigo]
		a head like a sieve [bad memory; see Unit 76]
		a good head for figures [be good at maths]
		one's head in the clouds [unaware of reality]

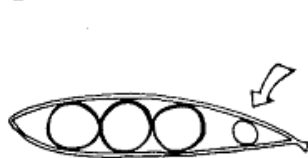
- 1 I'd better write it in my notebook. I have...
- 2 Ask Martha to check those sums. She has...
- 3 Don't ask me to go up that tower. I'm afraid I don't...
- 4 She's very sensible and knows what she's doing. She...
- 5 He's quite out of touch with reality. He really...

Look out for other sets of idioms based on key words.

Mini-quiz. Which parts of your body might a difficult person (a) *get on* (b) *be a pain in*?

Which idioms do you think these drawings represent?

1



2



3



Try guessing from the context what the underlined idioms mean.

- 1 Don't get angry with him. His heart's in the right place.
- 2 Joe's a bit of a square peg in a round hole here. I think he should get a job which suits his character better.
- 3 A: Hey! I'm talking to you! B: Sorry, I was miles away.

## LESSON 2

<b>Theme: Slangs</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. to explore the role of gender as a sociolinguistic variable in the linguistic behaviour/patterns of males and females.</li> <li>2. to understand how linguistic practices and patterns are shaped by gender, culture and society.</li> </ol>
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts;</li> <li>2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender;</li> <li>3. be ablt to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender</li> </ol>
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 2

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Greets the students</li> <li>2. Asks the questions               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women?</li> <li>• Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?</li> </ul> </li> <li>3. Asks the questions</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions</li> </ol>

<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

Slang is a particular kind of colloquial language. It refers to words and expressions which are extremely informal. Slang helps to make speech vivid, colourful and interesting but it can easily be used inappropriately. Although slang is mainly used in speech, it is also often found in the popular press.

It can be risky for someone who is not a native speaker to use slang.

Firstly because some slang expressions may cause offence to some sections of the population. For example, most policemen are quite happy to be referred to as coppers but are offended by the term pigs. Similarly, you could probably use the word sozzled (meaning drunk) in front of anyone but using the words, pissed or arseholed, which also mean drunk, could upset some people.

Secondly, slang words date very quickly. Different generations, for instance, have used different slang expressions to say that something was 'wonderful'.

pre-war: top-hole	1970s: ace, cosmic
1940s: wizard	1980s: brill, wicked
1960s: fab, groovy	

It can be possible to work out a native speaker's age from the expressions which they use, as people tend to stick with the slang expressions of their youth.

To sum up, you may find it interesting to learn about slang and you may come across slang expressions (particularly when you are watching films or reading popular newspapers or novels) but you might be well advised to avoid using slang yourself.

Here are some examples of some slang words and expressions which you may come across. The ones which are most likely to cause offence are underlined.

Expressions for money: dough, bread, dosh, loot, brass, spondulicks

Expressions for the police: pigs, fuzz, cop(per)s, bill

Expressions for drunk: pissed, sozzled, paralytic, legless, arseholed

Expressions for a stupid person: wally, prat, nerd, jerk, dickhead, plonker, pillock

Expressions for lavatory: loo, lav, hog, john

Expressions for drink: booze, plonk (wine), a snifter, a snort

Drug-related expressions: a fix, dope, grass, high, stoned, snow (heroin)

Prison-related expressions: nick (prison), nark (informer), screw (warder)

Slang is often used by one particular group and is unintelligible to other people. Here are some examples from American truck-drivers using CB radio to talk to each other.

grandma lane: slow lane

five finger discount: stolen goods

super cola: beer

doughnuts: tyres

anklebiters: children

affirmative: yes

motion lotion: fuel

eyeballs: headlights

### Exercises Ex. 1.

Replace the slang words which are underlined in the sentences below with more formal equivalents. If the meaning is not given opposite, then it should be possible to guess what it is. Notice that some of the words have a slang meaning which is different from their everyday meaning.



- 1 The newsreader on TV last night seemed to be pissed as he was reading the news.
- 2 He's quite a nice bloke really.
- 3 I've got a terrible belly ache – I think I'd better make an appointment with the quack.
- 4 Her dad was furious when he learnt he had to wear a penguin suit to the wedding.
- 5 Can you lend me some dosh till tomorrow?
- 6 I know there'll be plenty of nosh but do we need to take some booze to the party?
- 7 Have you got wheels or shall we call a taxi?
- 8 I'm dying for a cuppa. I haven't had one since breakfast.
- 9 Can I use your loo, please?
- 10 I was absolutely gobsmacked when she told me she was leaving.

**2 Match the statements on the left with the responses to them on the right.**

- |   |  |  |
|---|--|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1 How was the party?</li> <li>2 What does that guy over there do?</li> <li>3 He's getting legless.</li> <li>4 Keep a lookout for the pigs.</li> <li>5 Where's the dough?</li> <li>6 Where's her hubby?</li> <li>7 What'll we do tomorrow?</li> </ol> |  | <p>Let's take him home.<br/>         Sure. I'll keep my eyes skinned.<br/>         He's in the nick.<br/>         It's in a drawer, over here.<br/>         He's a cop.<br/>         Let's go for a run in the motor.<br/>         Wicked!</p> |
|---|--|--|

**3 A particular well-known kind of slang is Cockney rhyming slang where an expression is used in place of something that it rhymes with.**

*Example:* trouble and strife = wife    apples and pears = stairs

How would you translate the Cockney rhyming slang expressions in the sentences below?

- 1 Let's have a butcher's (short for butcher's hook) at your homework.
- 2 Just look at those Gawd forbids playing football!
- 3 It's on the Cain and Abel next to the phone.
- 4 What a set of Hampstead Heath!
- 5 She'll get him to the lean and lurch by hook or by crook.
- 6 Have you seen my titfer? (short for tit for tat)

**4 Another common way of making slang words is by using short forms or loosely pronounced forms of ordinary words. Thus fab is a slang form of 'fabulous' and hubby is a slang form of 'husband'. Can you work out the meanings of the following underlined slang words?**

- |                               |                             |                                |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 He's my <u>fella</u> .      | 3 It was a <u>freebie</u> . | 5 I took a <u>sickie</u> .     |
| 2 Let's have <u>brekkie</u> . | 4 He's a <u>brickie</u> .   | 6 Let's have a <u>barbie</u> . |

**TASK 1**

Tick (✓) the box if you have seen these words before, and put another tick if you think you know what the word means:

	I have seen it	I think I know the meaning
rack rate		
subprime		
fanzine		
blogosphere		
biagger		

### Lesson 3.

<b>Theme: Idioms and phrases</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:10-12</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of idioms and phrases as a sociolinguistic variable in the linguistic behaviour/patterns of males and females. 2. to understand how linguistic practices and patterns are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be ablt to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

#### The technological schedule of practical lesson 3

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students  2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?  3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions

<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

**What is an idiom?**

What is the difference in meaning between sentence A and B in each pair?

1	A	He hit the sack with a stick but it seemed to be empty.
	B	He hit the sack at 10 o'clock and was asleep by 10.15.
2	A	She wore a red glove on her left hand, and on the other hand she wore a blue glove.
	B	She's very famous, but on the other hand, she's very natural, normal and friendly.
3	A	He went to the wall and climbed over it into the garden.
	B	A lot of small businesses have gone to the wall because of the economic crisis.

Sometimes, we can understand expressions simply by looking at the meaning of each individual word in them. So, as long as I know the words ship, sink deep and water, I can understand the sentence, The ship sank in deep water. But what about these sentences:  
My heart sank when I heard the news.

We're going to be in deep water if the company doesn't make a profit this year. Even if we know the words in the sentences, we need to know more. We need to know that if your heart sinks, you do not feel tired, you do not die of a heart attack, but you do feel sad or worried (like, for example, when you hear bad news). And in the second sentence, you need to know that deep water has nothing to do with getting wet or standing in a pool, but means being in a difficult situation. It may help us to understand the non-literal meaning of the sentence if we understand the individual words, but not always. In these sentences, the words give us no clue as to what the expressions in bold-type mean:

You'll just have to keep your nose to the grindstone.

His old uncle kicked the bucket a couple of months ago.

We either know what the expressions in bold mean or we have to work very hard indeed to interpret what they mean in the context. Keep your nose to the grindstone (meaning to continue to work hard without stopping) and kick the bucket (meaning to die) are Idioms.

Idioms are expressions whose meaning is more than the sum of the meanings of the individual words.

Some idioms are easier to understand than others; they are more or less transparent. The expression, That's news to me!, is not too difficult to understand: it means 'that is information that surprises me!'; it is relatively transparent. The expression to have (several) irons in the fire is much more difficult to understand. Does it mean to have problems, to have dreams or ambitions, to have powers or abilities? In fact it means to have several jobs at the same time, or job possibilities. To have irons in the fire is opaque (the opposite of transparent). Idioms can be placed on a scale, from more transparent to more opaque. Here are some examples of idiomatic expressions with the word hand:

give someone a hand	(help them)
force someone's hand	(make them do something)
get out of hand	(get out of control)
be a dab hand	(be very skilled at something)

The other important characteristic is that idioms are usually very fixed in their form. The expression to keep one's nose to the grindstone (see above) always has that form: we cannot say hold your nose ... or stick your nose ... , we cannot say keep your nose on or at the grindstone, we cannot say millstone or tombstone instead of grindstone. We normally never use the expression in the plural or in the passive (for example, we don't normally say Noses were kept to the grindstone all day). Similarly, we don't say The bucket was kicked by his old uncle and he inherited a fortune. The idiom to be barking up the wrong tree (meaning to be wrong in the way you do something or think about something) is always used in the continuous form - we never say She barked up the wrong tree. However, some idioms are more flexible than others. As well as saying give someone a hand, we can say lend someone a hand. We can say hit the nail on the head (meaning to state exactly the reason for a problem) and we can strengthen it by saying hit the nail right on the head. As well as saying get the sack (be dismissed from your job), we can say give someone the sack (dismiss them). The expression to pass the buck (meaning to pass the responsibility you have for something to another person to avoid tackling the problem) can be used in the active or passive:

*Politicians are always passing the buck and not taking responsibility for their actions. The buck was passed from one ministry to another - no-one wanted to accept responsibility.*

Native speakers and expert users of English know thousands of idiomatic expressions; they know what they mean, they know what restrictions there are on the forms they can be used in and how flexible they are.

What different types of idioms are there?

## **Task 2.**

Many of the idioms we have looked at so far consist of a verb and an object (for example, *kick the bucket*, *pass the buck*, *hit the sack*, *force someone's hand*). What do the pairs of idioms in bold have in common?

<i>I ran <b>to and fro</b> all morning.</i>	<i>You have to accept <b>the ups and downs</b> of life.</i>
<i>I will be <b>on hand</b> if you need me.</i>	<i>I'm <b>out of touch</b> with the latest pop music.</i>
<i>I'm <b>ready, willing and able</b> to do anything to help.</i>	<i>They sold the company <b>lock, stock and barrel</b>.</i>
<i>He's <b>as thin as a rake</b>.</i>	<i>She was <b>as keen as mustard</b>.</i>

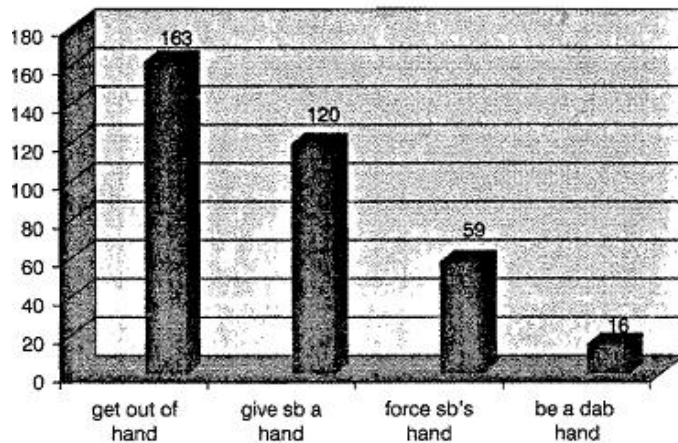
One way of classifying idioms is to look at their grammar. There are a number of different types of idiom in terms of grammatical form. Here are some of the most common types:

Type	Example
verb + object	kick the bucket, pass the buck
Professional phrase	On the go, off the wall
binominal	Give and take, off and on, sink or swim
Trinomial	lock, stock and barrel, cool, cam and collected
Frozen similes	as quiet as a mouse, as strong as an ox
Possessive expressions	the bee's knees, the lion's share, a king's ransom
Idiomatic compounds	the happy hour, a mish-mash, to make do

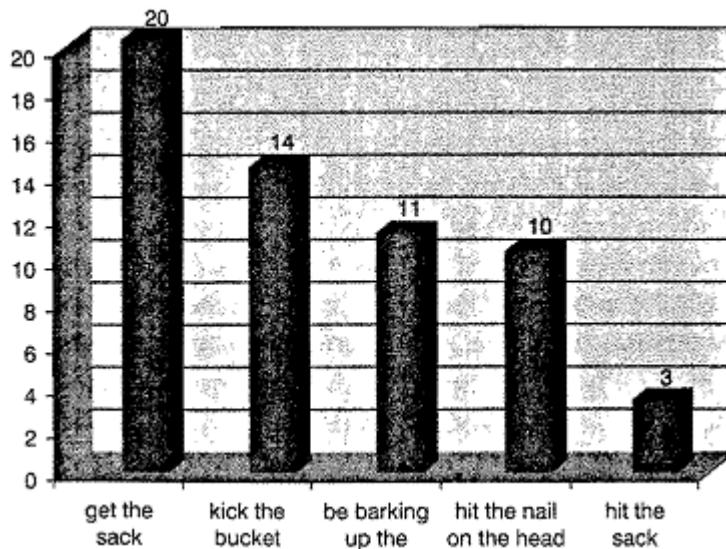
As we can see, idioms come in many forms, and although some are relatively infrequent and few in number (for example the trinomials and the possessive expressions), some are frequent and great in number (such as prepositional phrase idioms).

How frequent are idioms in everyday language?

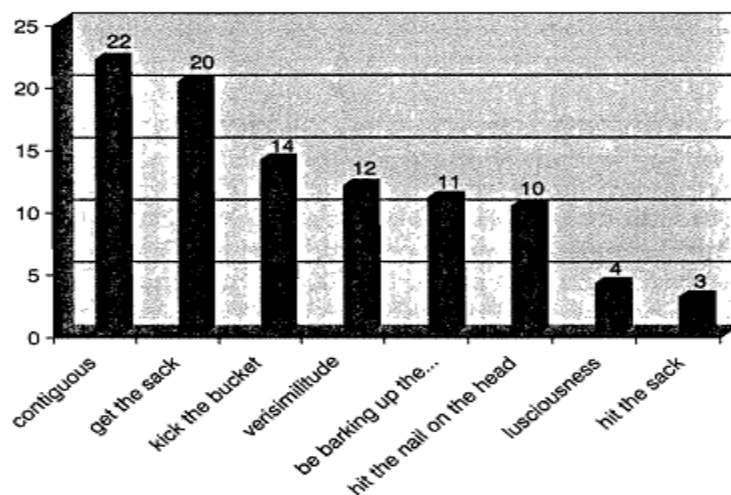
Compared with common single words and compared with the most frequent chunks (see Chapter 8), the idioms we have looked at so far are relatively infrequent, though some are much more frequent than others. In a sample of almost 55 million words of texts from British books in the Bank of English corpus, the idioms with hand which we saw above are distributed as follows:



The most frequent among our selection of 'hand' idioms, get out of hand, is ten times more common than the least frequent, be a dab hand. But the expression on the other hand actually occurs 2719 times in the same corpus, which is 170 times more frequent than be a dab hand! Some of the other idioms we have mentioned in this chapter are relatively infrequent in the same 50-million word corpus, occurring only 20 times or less:



To get some idea of how infrequent these idioms are, we can intersperse them with words of similar frequencies from our British books sample from the Bank of English:



Words such as contiguous, verisimilitude and lusciousness would all be considered very rare words and very advanced for learners of English, and yet their frequency is similar to the idioms we saw in Figure 6.3. So we can see, by looking at a corpus, that many idiomatic expressions are very infrequent indeed, compared with the everyday words we need to teach our language learners. However,

O'Keefe et al. (2006: 85) give lists of idioms which are relatively frequent from a selection of 200 idioms extracted manually from British and North American spoken corpora (100 idioms from each variety), and claim that the frequency of their selected items is similar to that of words at the 5000-7000 word level which an upper intermediate or advanced level learner might be expected to understand.

Are some words more likely to occur in idioms than others?

So far, we have looked at a random selection of idioms. But can we organise idioms in any way? Are there any patterns, apart from classifying them into grammatical types (for example, prepositional phrases, verb + object expressions and so on), as we did above? Some words in English do seem to be 'idiom-prone', that is to say they form the basis of a whole set of idioms. An example is words to do with parts of the human body. The hand, the foot, the eyes and other body parts all act as key words in idioms.

For example, apart from the 'hand' idioms we have already looked at, we also have:

put one's foot in it - catch someone's eye - keep an eye on  
get off on the wrong foot - cast an eye over - in one's mind's eye  
put one's foot down - have an eye for something - look someone in the eye  
shoot oneself in the foot - see eye to eye - an eye-opener

So, one way we can group idioms is by the key words they are based on. This could be, as we have seen, parts of the body, or particular animals (let the cat out of the bag, play cat and mouse, fight like cat and dog), or common adjectives such as hot (hot off the press, all hot and bothered, be in hot water), and so on. McCarthy and O'Dell (2002) group idioms according to key words, with many centring around body parts, common nouns such as line, act, action and activity, and adjectives such as good and bad.

Another way of grouping idioms is according to themes or topic areas. The Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms (1998) has a special section of idioms classified according to themes such as 'anger', 'intelligence and stupidity', 'success and failure', and so on. This underlines the particular usefulness of special idioms dictionaries for learners, where the lexicographers have given a great deal of attention to how best to organise the thousands of idioms they present for learners. The Longman Idioms Dictionary (1998) contains more than 6000 idioms, while the Oxford Idioms

Dictionary for Learners of English (2006) has some 10 000 idioms in current use in English - a formidable learning task and one where any help given in organising this mass of information is invaluable. The Oxford dictionary, for example, includes study pages exploring common themes (such as idioms that describe types of people, or the way people look). All the idioms dictionaries mentioned here are based on corpora, so that learners can be confident that the idioms in the dictionaries are in current usage, and the dictionaries often indicate which idioms are the most common.

What do idioms mean and how do people use them?

Why do you think speaker B uses the idiom in bold-type in this conversation?

A: This economic crisis is terrible, everyone's losing money and people are losing their jobs.

B: : Yes, and whose fault is it?

A: Well, it's the bankers and the politicians, but they never seem to take responsibility for it all.

B: . Yes, that's right. They're always passing the buck!

Idioms have figurative (non-literal) meanings. These meanings have developed and become 'fossilised' over long periods of time. There may have been a time when some of the more opaque idioms had transparent, literal meanings. The idiom to kick over the traces, for example, which means in modern English to act in a way that shows no respect for authority, came originally from the time when vehicles and farm equipment were pulled by horses. The traces were leather straps used to tie a horse to a plough or a cart or other vehicle. If the horse kicked and got its feet tangled over the straps, it was out of control. Very few people now know the literal, transparent meaning; for most people, the idiom is just an opaque expression whose meaning they know as one whole unit. However, the colourful imagery of the original meanings of many idioms still remains, and there is evidence to suggest that we process them at least in part - and in the first few moments that we hear or read them - by thinking of the literal meaning, or else that we process literal and non-literal meanings in parallel with one another. Everything seems to depend on which meanings of the words are most salient or prominent. The literal meaning may be salient (that is, more accessible to us because of frequency and familiarity), or, equally, the non-literal meaning may be salient and familiar to us, enabling us to jump straight to a figurative interpretation (Giora, 2003). In the debate on the power of salient meanings, it is not always clear how influential the context is in forcing our interpretations, but context undoubtedly plays an important role. For language learners, as we shall see below, the processing challenges may be different. However, some linguists think that universal metaphors often underlie idioms and that such metaphors are the key to understanding idiomatic expressions, especially where they are shared across languages (Charteris-Black, 2002).

But what are idioms for? Why do we seem to have two ways of saying many things? Why do we have die and kick the bucket, go to bed and hit the sack, and so on? Clearly, the figurative meanings say more than just what happens, or how something is, in an objective way. They are subjective and evaluative; they are often colourful and humorous, and, in the case of frozen similes, binomials and trinomials (see Chapter 5), they seem to have a rhythm and musicality which sets them apart from their literal equivalents.

Compare:

He's a complete charlatan! He's an out and out charlatan! (repetition of out)

She has poor eyesight. She's as blind as a bat. (repetition of /b/ sound)

When we look at how idioms are actually used in a corpus, we see the evaluative function coming out strongly. For example, we often find them at the end of a segment of text, when the speaker or writer is summing up or evaluating a series of events or an argument. In this extract from a conversation, note how speaker B uses the idiomatic compound a small world to sum up the coincidence that has just come to light:

A: No I'm not from Manchester. I'm from Leeds.

B: Yeah me too.

A: What a Coincidence! Are you from Leeds too?

B: Yeah.

A: Oh my gosh!



B: Isn't it **a small world!**

A: Yeah, it is.

In the next extract from a conversation about having to pay an excessive sum of money for a garden designer's services, speaker A uses two idioms. He first criticises the poor value for money by suggesting that the designer did his work in a very careless way (using the idiom on the back of an envelope, meaning to design or plan something in a very informal and hasty way), then sums up the experience using the idiom to learn mze's lesson the hard way (meaning to learn something about life through a bad experience):

A: This garden designer charged me a fee of £2000 for what he'd done, and it was **all on the back of an envelope.**

B: Wow!

A: **I learnt my lesson the hard way.**

B: Mm. You sure did!

Evaluating an event or situation in this way is a very common function of idioms (McCarthy, 1998). What we often find, as in the two examples above, is that the speaker(s) or writer recounts or describes something using literal language, then sums it up or repeats it in part using an idiom. In this way, idioms are often surrounded by strong clues to their meaning in the immediate context. Idioms, therefore, are not neutral; they are not simply duplicates of their literal equivalents, but perform important evaluative functions in the language. O'Keeffe et al. (2006: Chapter 4) give many more examples of idioms in evaluative contexts.

Finally we should note that idioms occur not just in everyday, informal contexts, but also in specialist registers such as business English and academic English. O'Keeffe et al. (2006) give examples from a spoken business English corpus, and Simpson and Mendis (2003) show how idioms are used widely in a spoken academic corpus (the MICASE corpus).

#### Lesson 4.

<b>Theme: Task based activities for using vocabulary in context</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students:10-12</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of vocabulary as a sociolinguistic variable in the linguistic behaviour/patterns of males and females. 2. to understand how linguistic practices and patterns are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be ablt to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions,

<b>teaching</b>	associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

#### The technological schedule of practical lesson 4

<b>Activities and time management</b>	<b>The plot of the action</b>	
	<b>Teacher</b>	<b>student</b>
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women?</li> <li>• Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?</li> </ul> 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

# Idioms describing people

## Positive and negative qualities

<i>positive</i>	<i>negative</i>
She has a heart of gold. [very kind, generous]	She's as hard as nails. [no sympathy for others]
He's as good as gold. [generous, helpful, well-behaved used generally for children]	He's rather a cold fish. [distant, unfriendly]

Note also:

He's such an awkward customer. [difficult person to deal with]  
 She's a pain in the neck. Nobody likes her. [nuisance, difficult]  
 He gets on everyone's nerves. [irritates everybody]

## People's 'fast' and 'slow' qualities

<i>fast</i>	<i>slow</i>
He's very quick off the mark; he always gets things before everybody else.	I was a bit slow off the mark; the job had been filled by the time I got the forms.
You've asked him to marry you! You're a fast worker! You only met him three weeks ago!	Come on! Hurry up! You're such a slow-coach!

## How people relate to the social norm

She's a bit of an odd-ball; very strange. [peculiar, strange]  
 He's really over the top. [very exaggerated in behaviour]  
 He's round the bend, if you ask me. [absolutely crazy/mad]  
 My politics are very middle-of-the-road. [very normal; no radical ideas; neither left- nor  
 right-wing]

## Who's who in the class? Idioms for 'people in the classroom'



teacher's pet



Mary's top of  
the class



a real know-all



a bit of a  
big-head



a lazy-bones

The last three idioms are used of people outside of the class, too.

## Exercises

**.1** Try to complete these idioms from memory if possible.

- 1 She does a lot of voluntary work; she has a heart...
- 2 Don't expect any sympathy from the boss; she's as hard...
- 3 I'm sure Gerry will help you; he's as good...
- 4 I was too late to get on that course; I was a bit slow...
- 5 You won't find him very friendly; he's rather a cold...
- 6 Tell him to hurry up! He's such a...

**.2** What do we call...

- 1 an irritating person who knows everything?
- 2 the person who is the teacher's favourite?
- 3 someone who thinks they are the best and says so?
- 4 the one who gets the best marks?
- 5 a person who is very lazy?

**.3** You can also learn idioms by associating them with a key word or words. For example, two idioms on the left-hand page had *gold* in them and two had *mark*. Which were they? Here is a work-fork based on *to have + head*. Use the expressions to finish the sentences below.

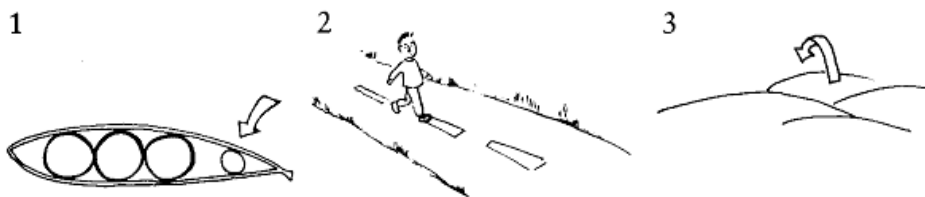
to have	—	one's head screwed on [be sensible]
		a head for heights [not suffer from vertigo]
		a head like a sieve [bad memory; see Unit 76]
		a good head for figures [be good at maths]
		one's head in the clouds [unaware of reality]

- 1 I'd better write it in my notebook. I have...
- 2 Ask Martha to check those sums. She has...
- 3 Don't ask me to go up that tower. I'm afraid I don't...
- 4 She's very sensible and knows what she's doing. She...
- 5 He's quite out of touch with reality. He really...

Look out for other sets of idioms based on key words.

**.4** Mini-quiz. Which parts of your body might a difficult person (a) *get on* (b) *be a pain in*?

**.5** Which idioms do you think these drawings represent?



**.6** Try guessing from the context what the underlined idioms mean.

- 1 Don't get angry with him. His heart's in the right place.
- 2 Joe's a bit of a square peg in a round hole here. I think he should get a job which suits his character better.
- 3 A: Hey! I'm talking to you! B: Sorry, I was miles away.

# Idioms describing feelings or mood

## Positive feelings, moods and states

- Jo's as happy as the day is long. [extremely content]  
Mary seems to be on cloud nine these days. [extremely pleased/happy]  
Everyone seemed to be in high spirits. [lively, enjoying things]  
She seems to be keeping her chin up. [happy despite bad things]

## Negative feelings, moods and states

- He had a face as long as a fiddle. [looked very depressed/sad]  
She certainly looked down in the dumps. [looked depressed/sad]  
Gerry is in a (black) mood. [a bad mood/temper]  
Mark was like a bear with a sore head. [extremely irritable] (See Unit 76.)

## Physical feelings and states

- I could eat a horse! [very hungry]  
I'm feeling all in. [exhausted]  
You're looking a bit under the weather. [not very well / ill]  
She looked, and felt, on top form. [in good physical condition]  
I suddenly felt as if my head was going round. [dizzy]  
I was almost at death's door last week! [very sick or ill]  
Old Nora's as fit as a fiddle. [very fit indeed]

## Fear/fright

- She was scared stiff. [very scared]  
She frightened the life out of him. [frightened him a lot]  
We were all shaking in our shoes. [trembling with fear]  
The poor lad was scared out of his wits. [very scared indeed]  
I jumped out of my skin when I heard the bang. [gave a big jump]

*Remember:* there is an element of exaggeration in these idioms; they make comments on the situation and lighten the tone of what you are saying. So use them only informally.

Horoscopes in English language newspapers and magazines are often a good place to find idioms about moods and states, since the horoscope usually tries to tell you how you are going to feel during the coming day/week/month. Look at these horoscopes and note the idioms in italics. Each one is given a literal paraphrase below the text. Collect more idioms from horoscopes if you can.

### Capricorn (21.12–19.1)

*D*on't get carried away (1) by promises that won't be kept. *Keep a cool head* (2) and take everything as it comes. On the work front, things are looking better.

### Taurus (21.4–20.5)

*S*omeone will say something that will make you swell with pride (3) and you may feel on top of the world (4) for a while, but the evening will not be so easy.

- (1) be fooled      (2) stay calm      (3) feel very proud      (4) very happy indeed

## Exercises

- 1 Here are some more idioms that can be grouped as expressing either *positive* or *negative* feelings. Try to group them using a dictionary if necessary.

to be over the moon      to feel/be a bit down  
to feel/be as pleased as Punch      to feel/be brownd off

- 2 Using the idioms from 79.1 and from A opposite, say how you would probably feel if...

- 1 you were told you had just won a vast sum of money. *I'd be over the moon!*
- 2 your boss said you had to do again a piece of work you'd already done three times.
- 3 you were told you'd got a very high mark in an exam.
- 4 you had a bad toothache and your neighbour was making a lot of noise late at night.
- 5 nothing seemed to have gone right for you that day.
- 6 someone you were secretly in love with told you they were in love with you.

- 3 Complete the idioms in these sentences.

- 1 Don't creep up behind me like that! You frightened the...
- 2 I don't need a doctor, I just feel a bit under...
- 3 As long as he has his car to work on, he's as happy...
- 4 Last year, when I won that medal, I really was on...
- 5 I wasn't expecting such a loud bang; I nearly jumped...
- 6 I've had nothing since lunch; I could...
- 7 I feel a bit down this week; last week I felt on top...

- 4 Spot idioms to do with feelings, moods and states in these horoscopes. Underline them, then check the meaning if necessary in a dictionary.

### Scorpio (23.10–22.11)

You may get itchy feet today, but be patient, this is not a good time to travel. Events at work will keep you on the edge of your seat for most of the day. Altogether an anxious time for Scorpians.

### Leo (21.7–21.8)

You'll be up in arms over something someone close to you says rather thoughtlessly today, but don't let it spoil things. You may be in two minds over an invitation, but think positively.

Now use the idioms to rewrite these sentences.

- 1 I can't decide about that job in Paris.
  - 2 I've been in suspense all day. What's happened? Tell me!
  - 3 Her son became restless to travel and went off to Uruguay.
  - 4 Everyone protested loudly when they cancelled the outing.
- 5 Which idioms opposite include the words *head*, *wits*, *swell*, *black* and *carried*? Write a sentence using each one.

# Idioms connected with problematic situations

## Problems and difficulties

<i>idiom</i>		<i>literal phrase</i>
to be in a fix	=	be in difficulty
to be in a tight corner	=	be in a situation that is hard to get out of
to be in a muddle	=	be confused/mixed up

(these three go together as all having be + in + a)

## Reacting in situations

Three pairs of more or less opposite idioms.

to take a back seat [not do anything; let others act instead]	≠	to take the bull by the horns [act positively to face and attack the problem]
to stir things up [do/say things that make matters worse]	≠	to pour oil on troubled waters [do/say things that calm the situation down]
to keep one's cards close to one's chest [hold back information]	≠	to lay one's cards on the table [be very open, state exactly what your position is]

## Idioms related to situations based on get

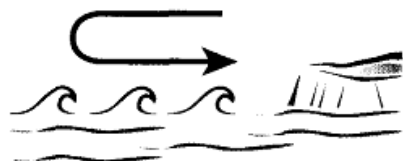
This has to be done by next week; we must **get our act together** before it's too late.  
[organise ourselves to respond; informal]

We need a proper investigation to **get to the bottom of things**. [find the true explanation for the state of affairs]

It's quite difficult to **get people to sit up and take notice**. [make them pay attention]

I'm trying to **get a grasp of** what's happening; it's not easy. [find out / understand]

## Changes and stages in situations



The tide has turned for us;  
better days are ahead.

I'm afraid we've just come to a **dead end** with our plans.  
I think I've reached a **turning-point** in my career.



We can see light at the end  
of the tunnel at last.

## Some idioms connected with easing the situation

The government and the unions have **buried the hatchet** for the time being. [made peace / stopped fighting each other]

All that trouble last year was just **swept under the carpet** in the end. [ignored / deliberately forgotten, without solving it]

You should say sorry. **It would go a long way**. [would help a lot]

# Exercises

- 1 When looking up idioms (or any type of words) in your dictionary, it is often a good idea to look at what is just before and just after the information you are looking for. In this way you can pick up some related words and/or expressions which you can record together.

For example, if you look up *take the bull by the horns* in a dictionary, you will probably also find these idioms:

(to *belact*) *like a bull in a china shop* [be very clumsy]  
(to *talk*) *a load of bull* [talk nonsense]

Look up these idioms using the words underlined as your key word and see what other idioms or useful phrases you can find around them in the dictionary.

- 1 let the cat out of the bag      3 to pour oil on troubled waters  
2 be in a fix                      4 to stir things up

- 2 Choose a suitable idiom from the opposite page to fill the gaps.

- 1 I think I'll just ..... and let everyone else get on with sorting matters out.  
2 No, please, don't say anything; you'll only .....  
3 It's been a long, hard struggle, but I think at last we can see .....  
4 The police are trying their best to get to ....., but it's a real mystery at the moment.  
5 I'm sorry, I'm in .....; could you explain that again?  
6 At last I've managed to get him to sit .....; he's done nothing at all for us so far.  
7 I find it difficult to get a ..... this global warming business, don't you?  
8 I think we should take the bull ..... and sort it out. I don't think it should be just swept .....

- 3 Here are some more idioms connected with situations. From the context, can you paraphrase their meaning, as in the example?

- 1 It's not working; we'll have to go back to square one. *go back to the beginning again*  
2 The teachers want one thing, the students want the exact opposite. I'm sure we can find a happy medium.  
3 We were on tenterhooks all night waiting for news from the hospital. They finally rang us at 6.30 a.m.  
4 Poverty and crime go hand in hand in this part of town.  
5 You've been in a lot of trouble lately; you'd better toe the line from now on.

- 4 What *questions* could be asked to get these answers?

- 1 Well, we've buried the hatchet for the moment, but I'm sure it's not for good.  
2 Yes, it's been a real turning-point in my career.  
3 Yes, I think it would go a long way. You know how sensitive he is, and how he appreciates little gestures.



# Idioms connected with praise and criticism

## Idioms connected with praise

### **Saying people/things are better than the rest**

Mary is head and shoulders above the rest of the girls. *or* She's miles better than the other girls. [used usually of people]

When it comes to technology, Japan is streets ahead of most other countries. [can be used of people or things]

When it comes to exam passes, St John's school usually knocks spots off the other schools. [used of people or things]

That meal was just out of this world. [outstanding/superb; usually used of things]

### **Saying people are good at something**

Some expressions with idiomatic compound nouns, noun-phrases and compound adjectives.

She's a dab-hand at carpentry, just like her father. [usually for manual skills]

She's a really first-rate / top notch administrator, the very best.

When it comes to grammar, she's really on the ball. [knows a lot]

Bill has a way with foreign students. The other teachers envy him. [good at establishing good relations / motivating them, etc.]

Marjorie really has green fingers; look at those flowers! [good at gardening]

Let him do the talking; he's got the gift of the gab. [good at talking]

## Idioms connected with criticism

*Note:* There are far more of these in common use than ones connected with praise!

You can group some according to form; for example, 's idioms include several connected with criticising people and things.

She thinks she's the cat's whiskers / the bee's knees. [thinks she's wonderful]

He was dressed up like a dog's dinner [over-dressed in a showy way]

When it comes to time-keeping, he's the world's worst. [no-one is worse]

I'm sorry, this essay of yours is a dog's breakfast. [a mess / very badly done]

This group could be learned in association with 'food' words.

When it comes to unreliability, he really takes the biscuit. [is the epitome / most striking example of some negative quality] (See Unit 74.)

Mary wants to have her cake and eat it! [wants everything without any contribution from her side]

I think he's just trying to butter me up. [give false praise in order to get something]

A pay-rise and a company car! You want jam on it, you do! [have totally unreasonable expectations/demands]

*Note* these idiomatic synonyms of the verb to criticise:

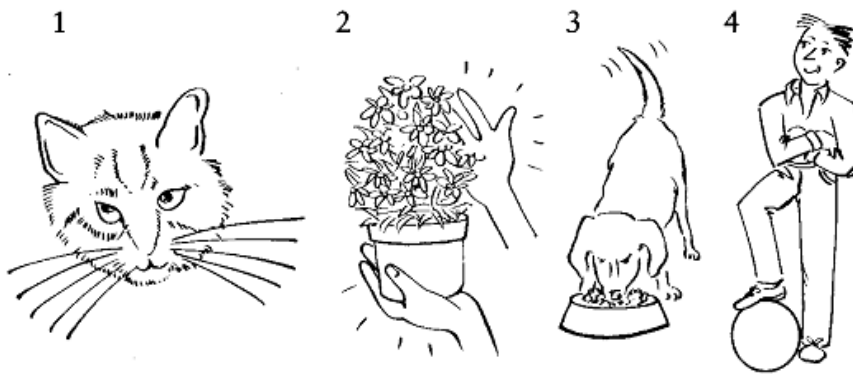
You shouldn't run down your own country when you're abroad.

Why do you always have to pick holes in everything I say?

## Exercises

- 1 Using idioms from A opposite, rewrite these sentences without changing the basic meaning.
- 1 The hotel we were staying in was absolutely superb.
  - 2 Joe is a long way above the other kids when it comes to doing hard sums.
  - 3 This restaurant is much, much better than all the other restaurants in town.
  - 4 You're a long way ahead of me in understanding all this new technology; I'm impressed.

- 2 Which idioms opposite might these pictures help you to remember?



- 3 Which of the expressions in 81.2 is most suitable for:

- 1 praising someone's knowledge/ability in their profession?
- 2 saying that something is a real mess?
- 3 saying someone has a very high opinion of themselves?
- 4 praising someone's gardening skills?

- 4 Express the *opposite* meaning to these sentences using idioms from the left-hand page.

*Example: He's a third-rate athlete. He's a first-rate (or top-notch) athlete.*

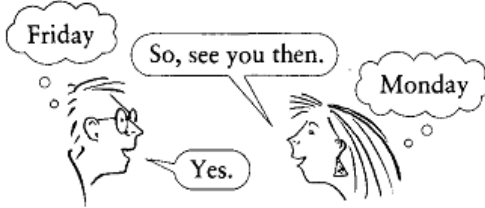
- 1 She was dressed beautifully, just right for the occasion.
- 2 Penny has such an inferiority complex.
- 3 She's hopeless at DIY; just look at those bookshelves she made.
- 4 He is no good at talking to people at all.
- 5 Mick doesn't get on with the secretaries; just look at how they react when he wants something done.
- 6 He wants a new office, a secretary and a new computer. But compared to what Geoff wants he isn't expecting much!
- 7 She said I was the best boss they'd ever had. It was obvious she was praising me sincerely. I wonder what she wants?
- 8 He often says how wonderful his school is.
- 9 She always praises everything I say.

- 5 Using a good general dictionary or a special dictionary of idioms, see what further idioms you can find that include the 'food' words listed below and which are used in contexts of praising or criticising people/things/actions. Make sentences with the expressions.

- 1 ham    2 tea    3 icing    4 nut    5 onion    6 cream

# 82 Idioms connected with using language

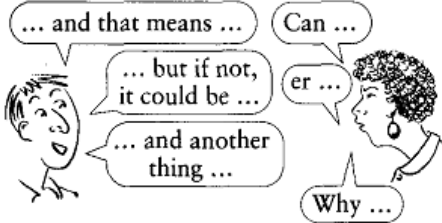
## Idioms connected with communication problems



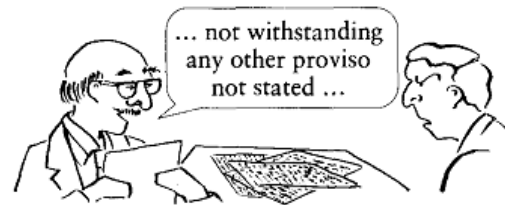
They're talking at cross-purposes.



He's got the wrong end of the stick.



She can't get a word in edgeways.



I can't make head or tail of what he's saying.

## Good talk, bad talk

The boss always **talks down** to us. [talks as if we were inferior]

My work-mates are always **talking behind my back**. [saying negative things about me when I'm not there]

It was just **small talk**, nothing more, I promise. [purely social talk, nothing serious]

Let's sit somewhere else; they always **talk shop** over lunch, and it bores me rigid. [talk about work]

Hey! Your new friend's become a real **talking-point** among the staff! Did you know? [subject that everyone wants to talk about]

It's gone too far this time. I shall have to give him a **talking to**. [reproach/scold him]

## Talk in discussions, meetings, etc.



- 1 start the discussion
- 2 say exactly what I think
- 3 say it in few words
- 4 say things in a long, indirect way

- 5 finish the discussion
- 6 say stupid things
- 7 come to the important part of the matter
- 8 say intelligent, reasonable things

# Exercises

**1** Look at these dialogues and comment on them, as in the example.

*Example:* A: £98 for a meal! that's outrageous!  
 B: Not the meal, you twit! The room!  
*They seem to be talking at cross-purposes.*

1 JOE: So that's what I'm going to do, take it all away.  
 ANN: What about –  
 JOE: And if they don't like it they can just go and do what they like.  
 ANN: If she –  
 JOE: Not that I have to consult them, anyway, I'm in charge round here.  
 ANN: I wonder whether it –  
 JOE: You see, I'm the kind of person who can take a hard decision when it's needed.

It seems that Ann can't get .....

2 MICK: I got very upset when you said I was childish.  
 GRACE: I didn't, honestly! All I said was that you seemed to get on very well with the children. Honestly.  
 MICK: Oh, I see. Oh, sorry.

It seems that Mick got the .....

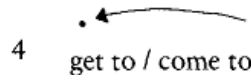
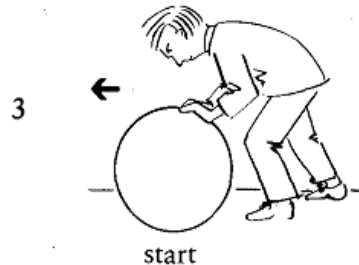
3 DAN: So, area-wise the down-matching sales profile commitment would seem to be high-staked on double-par.  
 REG: Eh? Could you say that again? You've got me there.

It seems that Reg can't make .....

4 MADGE: I don't expect someone with your intelligence to understand this document.  
 ERIC: Thank you.

Madge seems to be talking .....

**2** What idioms opposite do these drawings represent?



**3** Fill the gaps to complete the collocations.

- 1 She is very direct and always ..... her mind.
- 2 I get bored with small .....; let's get down to serious matters. I'm in love with you.
- 3 The boss gave me a real ..... to after that stupid mistake I made. Still, I was in the wrong.
- 4 You're behind the times! Darren's girlfriend was *last week's* .....-point.

# Idioms – miscellaneous

## Idioms connected with paying, buying and selling

He bought a real pig in a poke when he got that car. [buy something without examining it properly first]

We'll probably have to pay over the odds for a hotel room during the week of the festival. [pay more than the usual rate]

He did £600 worth of damage to the car and his parents had to foot the bill. [pay up, usually a large amount]

That restaurant was a real rip-off. or That taxi-driver really ripped us off. [made us pay much too much; very informal]

If I were you I'd drive a hard bargain. She's desperate to buy a flat and wants yours. [ask a lot and resist lowering the price]

See also nose on the human body below.

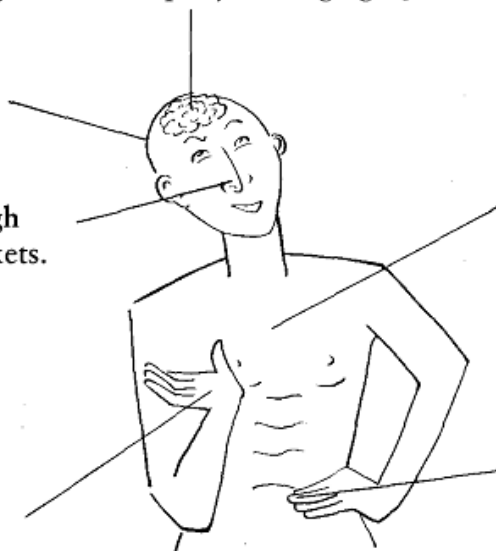
## Idioms based on names of the parts of the body

I've got that song on the brain!  
[just can't stop myself singing it]

He's made quite a bit of headway with his maths lately.  
[make progress]

We had to pay through the nose for those tickets.  
[pay a huge amount]

You've got to hand it to her; she's a great singer.  
[acknowledge/admit]



I hope you didn't mind me telling you. I just had to get it off my chest.  
[tell something that's been bothering you a lot]

Oh, he's got a finger in every pie.  
[is involved in many different things]

## Idioms connected with daily routine

Come on! Rise and shine! We've got to leave! [a command to someone to get up, often said to someone who doesn't want to and at a very early hour]. There's no time for breakfast. We can get a bite to eat on the motorway [have a snack or meal]. I'll drive and you can have a nap in the back seat [a short sleep]. When we get there, there'll just be time to freshen up before the meeting. [wash and tidy oneself]. It's going to be a long day; I'll be ready to crash out about 8 o'clock, I should think [be very tired/ready to sleep almost anywhere]. Still, we can stay home the following evening and put our feet up [relax], and just watch the box [watch television].

## Exercises

- 1 Look at these mini-dialogues and decide which idiom from the opposite page you could use to answer the questions.

1 A: I'll give you \$85.  
B: No, \$100 or nothing.  
A: Oh, come on. Look, \$90, there.  
B: No, I said \$100 and I mean \$100.

What's B doing?

2 A: I'm president of the squash club, I'm on the teacher-parent committee and I run three youth clubs.  
B: Really?  
A: Yes, oh, and I'm on that working party at the Social Centre, and there's the Union...

What sort of person could A be described as?

3 A: 'Lady in red, la-da-da-di-da...'  
B: I wish you'd stop singing that blasted song!  
A: What? Oh, sorry... 'Lady in red, la-la ...'

What's A's problem?

4 A: Oh, no! You know that box of wine glasses I bought from that guy in the street? Half of them are cracked!  
B: Well, you should have looked at them first. It's your stupid fault.

What has A done?

- 2 Rewrite these sentences using an idiom instead of the underlined bits.

1 Can I tell you about a problem I have? I just have to tell somebody. It's been bothering me for a while now.  
2 They charged us £100 for a tiny room without a bath. It was just robbery!  
3 There'll just be time to have a quick meal before the show.  
4 I must admit, Maria coped with the situation brilliantly.  
5 I think I'll just go upstairs and have a sleep for a while, if nobody objects.  
6 Well, I was very tired and fell asleep on the sofa at about two o'clock, and the party was still in full swing.

- 3 Can you think of a situation where you might...

1 have to get a bite to eat on the way?  
2 have to pay over the odds for a hotel room?  
3 find it hard to make any headway?  
4 be willing to pay through the nose for tickets?

- 4 Which idioms do these drawings suggest?

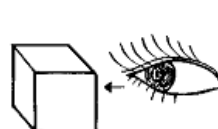
1



2



3



*Follow-up:* Look up idioms under further parts of the body, for example, *tongue, heels, toe, back*, and make a note of examples.

### Lesson 5.

<b>Theme: Use of equivalent term for words without distracting the listener Effective Sentence Structures</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the use of equivalent term for words without distracting the listener 2. to understand how equivalent term for words and patterns are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 5

<b>Activities and time management</b>	<b>The plot of the action</b>	
	<b>Teacher</b>	<b>student</b>
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greet the students  2. Ask the questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women?</li> <li>• Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?</li> </ul> 3. Ask the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions

<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

1. Position statement:

- The price of gas stood at \$2.75 per gallon.
- In 2005, the sugar export accounted for about 10% of total exports.

2. Movement statements

- There was a decrease in the price of gas/ gas prices.
- There was an increase in the sugar export/ export of sugar/ exported sugar.
- Gas prices/ the price of gas decreased.
- The export of sugar/ the sugar export/ the exported sugar increased.
- Gas prices/ the price of gas experienced a decrease.
- The export of sugar/ the sugar export/ the exported sugar witnessed an increase.

3. Time phrases

- From 1990 to 1995
- Between 1990 and 1995
- During/throughout the period from 1995 to 2005
- During a period of 10 years
- Over the (three-month) period (between April and June)
- In 1990
- By 1995
- For 5 years

4. Grammar variations

Connecting sentences together makes your writing more interesting and can help to improve your band score - but you should aim to vary the way you link sentences. Here are a couple options to try instead of just using “then”:

- CD sales increased steadily from 2005 until 2010, then fell slightly in the following year.



· CD sales increased steadily from 2005 until 2010, before falling slightly in the following year.

· After increasing steadily from 2005 until 2010, CD sales fell slightly in the following year.

#### 5. Vocabulary variations

Again, these variations increase the range of language you use, which can make your writing more interesting and benefit your band score.

- There was a slight fall in CD sales in 2010.
- (The year) 2010 saw a slight fall in CD sales.
- CD sales experienced a slight fall in 2010.

#### 6. Giving evidence (data)

When you describe the key information in a diagram, it's extremely important to include evidence to support your idea. This means you add data: specific numbers, percentages, etc.

For example:

· CD sales increased slightly from 52 (million) to 70 million units between 2009 and 2010.

· CD sales increased slightly from 52 million units in 2010 to 70 million the following year.

· CD sales increased by eight million units from 2009 to 2010.

· During the period from 1990 to 1995, there was a decrease in gas prices from \$2.70 to \$2.75 per gallon.

· There was an increase in the sugar export between May and August from about 10% to over 20%.

· Between 1990 and 1995, the price of gas decreased from \$2.75 to \$2.70 per gallon.

· The sugar export increased from approximately 10% to more than 20% between May and August.

· From 1990 to 1995, the price of gas experienced a decrease from \$2.75 to \$2.70 per gallon.

· The sugar export witnessed an increase between May and August from around 10% to over 20%.

Vocabulary note

Note the way we use prepositions with numbers and dates:

1998	2000
45%	20%

· In 2000 the number fell to 20%.

· In 2000 the number fell by 25%.

· The number fell/dropped from 45% in 1998 to 20% in 2010.

· The number fell/dropped from 45% to 20% between 1995 and 1997.

You can use a combination of verb + adverb, or adjective + noun, to avoid repeating the same phrases and to add extra meaning:

· There was a significant increase/rise in the number of X.

· The number of X increased/rose significantly.

Notice that you need a preposition when you use the noun form:

- There was an increase in house prices;
- There was a drop of 10% in the number of male students who studied abroad.

Those above are all about the unique things when it comes to your task 1 description. This is a suitable range. So, when it comes to the sentence structures, pay attention to these, and pay attention to the parts of these structures because that is what you will be doing when it comes to describing.

Understand that the grammar never changes, the verbs never change. They stay the same. You are dealing with a limited number of words, a limited number of structures. The only thing that changes is what you are talking about. We might be talking about the purchase of Honda, or we might talk about the number of members at a club or we might talk about the dollars earned or the kilometers travelled or the number of books sold. It doesn't matter. That is the only thing that changes. It is very mathematical. When it comes to task 1, you need to use certain kinds of language:

1. COMPARISON AND SUPERLATIVE LANGUAGE: The language we should use in task 1 writing is the language of comparison and superlative. We can compare X and Y by using superlatives. For example: Honda was the most popular motorbike. (Superlative language)

Or: Honda produced the most sold motorbikes.

- Honda was more popular than any other motorbike. (Comparison language)
- More males than females chose Honda.
- Fewer females than males chose Honda.
- Honda was more popular among males than females.
- Honda was less popular among females than males.
- The most popular means of transport was Honda.
- Honda was more popular than any other means of transport.
- Honda was the most popular means of transport.
- Honda was chosen by more males than females.
- A higher percentage of males chose Honda than females.
- Compared to/with the number of females, the number of males were considerably higher.
- The number of males were considerably higher compared to/with the number of females.





## 2. TREND LANGUAGE:



If we have 2 time points (that could be days/weeks/months/years/decades), we need to use trend language. We need to talk about "increase", "decrease". We could talk about 1990 and 2000, or we could talk about January and June, or we could talk about Monday and Friday. It doesn't matter.

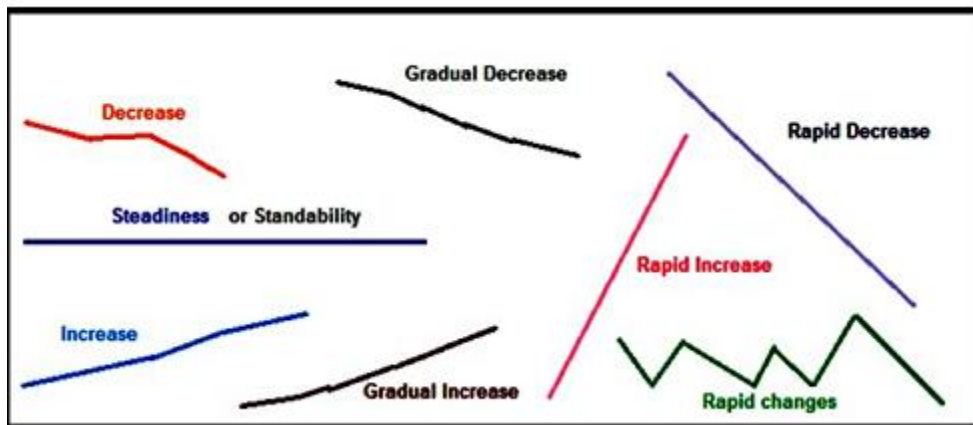
Note: if they give you a diagram with just one year, all we can do is just to compare, we cannot use trend language “increase”, “decrease”, “fluctuated”. In other words, we cannot talk about movement. On the other hand, if they give you two years, three years, or four years, they still want comparison, but now they also want trend language. They also want you to talk about movement. These are really two basic groups of language that you need to use to describe diagrams: comparison and trend language.

Let’s build some vocabulary. Here is a list of verbs, adverbs, adjectives and nouns that you need to use in task 1 writing.

**LANGUAGE OF TRENDS: SENTENCE STRUCTURE AND VOCABULARY**





Meaning	Verb	Noun	Adjectives	Adverbs
<b>Go down</b> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• decline</li> <li>• decrease</li> <li>• drop</li> <li>• fall</li> <li>• go down</li> <li>• plummet</li> <li>• plunge</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• decline</li> <li>• decrease</li> <li>• drop</li> <li>• fall</li> <li>• go down</li> <li>• plummet</li> <li>• plunge</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• sharp</li> <li>• rapid</li> <li>• quick</li> <li>• considerable</li> <li>• significant</li> <li>• substantial</li> <li>• steady</li> <li>• gradual</li> <li>• moderate</li> <li>• slight</li> <li>• slow</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• sharply</li> <li>• rapidly</li> <li>• quickly</li> <li>• considerably</li> <li>• significantly</li> <li>• substantially</li> <li>• steadily</li> <li>• gradually</li> <li>• moderately</li> <li>• slightly</li> <li>• slowly</li> </ul>
<b>Go up</b> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• climb</li> <li>• go up</li> <li>• grow</li> <li>• increase</li> <li>• jump</li> <li>• rise</li> <li>• rocket</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• climb</li> <li>• go up</li> <li>• growth</li> <li>• increase</li> <li>• rise</li> </ul>		
<b>No change</b> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Level off at</li> <li>• remain the same</li> <li>• remain unchanged</li> <li>• remain constant</li> <li>• remain stable</li> <li>• stay constant</li> <li>• stay stable</li> <li>• stay steady</li> <li>• keep unchanged</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A levelling off at</li> </ul>		
<b>Constant change</b> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• fluctuate</li> <li>• vary (around)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• fluctuation</li> <li>• variation</li> </ul>		

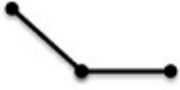



<p><b>Change of direction</b></p>  	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To bottom out at</li> <li>To hit a low point/the lowest/the largest of</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A low of</li> <li>A high of</li> </ul>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>To stand at</li> <li>To start/begin at</li> <li>To end/finish at</li> </ul>			
<p><b>Grammatical structures used to describe trends.</b></p>			<p><b>Time phrases</b></p>	
<p><b>There + Be + Adj + Noun + In + Noun Phrase</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>There was a <u>significant increase</u> in the number of unemployed people during the period.</li> <li>There was a <u>slight increase</u> in the gold price/ the price of gold between 2005 and 2010.</li> </ul> <p><b>Noun Phrase + Verb + Adverb</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The number of unemployed people increased significantly during the period.</li> <li>The gold price/ the price of gold increased slightly.</li> </ul>			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>From 1995 to 2005</li> <li>For 10 years</li> <li>Between 1995 and 2005</li> <li>During/throughout the period from 1995 to 2005</li> <li>During a period of 10 years</li> <li>Over the (three-month) period (between April and June)</li> </ul>	



## Examples:

The overall sale of the company *slightly increased* by 10% in 2005.

<p><b>A downward trend</b></p> <p><i>The consumption for Hamburger witnessed a <u>downward trend</u> over the period.</i></p>	
<p><b>To fall steadily</b></p> <p><i>Expenditure on landline phones <u>fell steadily</u> over the 10-year period.</i></p>	
<p><b>To drop/decrease slightly</b></p> <p><i>The proportion of bus commuters <u>dropped/decreased slightly</u> to 15% in 2002.</i></p>	
<p><b>To rise gradually</b></p> <p><i>The proportions of elderly people in the UK <u>rose gradually</u> over the next 20 years.</i></p>	

<p><b>To level off</b></p> <p><i>The unemployment rate <u>levelled off</u> at 18% in 2008.</i></p>	
<p><b>To drop suddenly</b></p> <p><i>The figure <u>dropped suddenly</u> to 10% in 1975.</i></p>	
<p><b>To increase/climb sharply</b></p> <p><i>The number of people using computers <u>increased/climbed sharply</u> from 2002 to 2005.</i></p>	
<p><b>An upward trend</b></p> <p><i>There was an <u>upward trend</u> in the number of people using the Internet between 1995 and 2005.</i></p>	

Note that “plunge” and “plummet” do not take adverbs because what they mean is a big decrease. We can say “decreased considerably /sharply / dramatically / significantly / substantially” or “plunged”, or “plummeted”. But, we must not say, “plummeted

considerably/sharply/dramatically/significantly/substantially” or “plunged considerably / sharply / dramatically / significantly / substantially”

No need to use those two verbs “plunge” and “plummet” with an adverb. Decreased sharply equals plummeted. They mean the same thing. Likewise, “rocket” does not take adverbs. So to say increased significantly, rose sharply, they mean the same thing as rocketed. A big/sharp increase, so no adverbs for rocketed.

There are some things I need you to be aware of here. I want you to know that steadily and gradually mean the same thing. Slightly is something means

### Lesson 6.

<b>Theme: Synonymy and antonym</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of Synonymy and antonym 2. to understand how Synonymy and antonym are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 6

<b>Activities and time management</b>	<b>The plot of the action</b>	
	<b>Teacher</b>	<b>student</b>
<b>The introductory part of the lesson</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women?	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions

<b>(15- min)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?</li> </ul> <p>3. Asks the questions</p>	
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	<p>2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters.</p> <p>2.2 They answer the teachers questions.</p> <p>2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member</p> <p>2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.</p> <p>3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.</p> <p>3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

What are word relationships?

Task 1.

*Sort the following words into pairs or groups. Think about how you made your decisions.*

cold	hot
great	apples
wonderful	pears
bank (of a river)	bananas
bank (where you put your money)	

As we discussed before, words are signifiers of meaning. The relationship between a word and its meaning is an arbitrary one. Meanings evolve and change over time within groups of users. In the last lesson, we touched on the 'sense relations' which some words have with others. This is a relationship of meaning rather than of grammar. For example, from Task 1, you will have grouped great and wonderful because they both express similar positive attributes. You will have paired off hot and cold because of their oppositeness of meaning. Apples, pears, bananas, you will have grouped together because they belong to the same category of fruit. And the bank of a river and the bank where you put your money are related because the words look and sound the same. All of these types of relationships will be explored in greater detail in this lesson.

*Sense relations are both an aid to teaching vocabulary and an aid to memorizing new words.*

Teachers can draw on sense relationships when teaching new meanings. For example, when you are teaching hawk you are likely to draw on its category of bird, and when you teach high, it is helpful explain it with reference to its opposite low. If you are trying to explain the word devastated, you are likely to use a synonym such as sad in your explanation (we'll discuss synonyms in the next section). All of these strategies help your learners make semantic connections and these connections ultimately aid memory.

Another type of relationship which we will explore in this chapter is a type of extended meaning. This is when words are not used in their literal meaning, but they are used in an extended non-literal way to explain something in a comparative relationship. This is called metaphoric meaning. In this example, the underlined words or phrases are not used in their literal meaning:

Teachers can draw on sense relationships when teaching new meanings. For example, when you are teaching hawk you are likely to draw on its category of bird, and when you teach high, it is helpful explain it with reference to its opposite low. If you are trying to explain the word devastated, you are likely to use a synonym such as sad in your explanation (we'll discuss synonyms in the next section). All of these strategies help your learners make semantic connections and these connections ultimately aid memory. Another type of relationship which we will explore in this chapter is a type of extended meaning. This is when words are not used in their literal meaning, but they are used in an extended non-literal way to explain something in a comparative relationship. This is called metaphoric meaning. In this example, the underlined words or phrases are not used in their literal meaning:

*Reachel's rejection felt like a knife in the heart for him. Her icy words would stay with him for many years. She had hurt his feelings very badly and thre and then he felt that the wounds would never heal.*

As you read this, you did not think that Rachel really put a knife in her lover's heart or that her words were made of ice. You did not think that she actually caused physical hurt to him or that there were actual wounds as a result. We understand the use of these words in this context as being non-literal or metaphoric. They express the shock and pain of an event very powerfully and very vividly. For learners of a language, metaphor can pose quite a challenge. In some instances, learners may not immediately recognise certain words or phrases as being non-literal in meaning.

Metaphor is often associated with literary styles but we also use metaphor in every day language and it is something that we need to make our learners aware of. What types of word relationships are there?

### Synonymy

Where two or more words have the same meaning, that is, where one can substitute for the other without altering the meaning, we say that they are synonyms or that one is synonymous with other. For example, start and begin, worried and concerned, complete, end and finish, and so on. Synonyms can be very useful in the teaching of meaning because we can draw on words of equivalent meaning which our students already know.

### Task 2.

Here are some examples of definitions where synonyms have been used in the explanation. Circle the synonymous words:

**concur:** to agree with



**confab:** an informal conversation

**contradictory:** when facts, ideas, advice or opinions are contradictory, it means they are opposite to each other

**contrite:** to feel very sorry for something bad or wrong that you have done

As you will have seen, the definition of concur draws on the more commonly used synonym agree, and confab makes use of the synonym conversation in its definition. Contradictory draws on word opposite and the explanation of contrite uses the synonym sorry. In all of these cases, lesser known words have been explained by using more commonly known synonyms.

However, we need to be aware of the pitfalls of synonymy. There is rarely a one-to-one relationship between words. We usually only have 100 per cent synonymy with words which are used in different varieties of a language. Some examples of these are:

British English	American English
boot (of a car)	trunk
kerb	sidewalk
trailer	caravan
mobile phone	cell phone
biscuit	cookie

Going back to the synonyms from the definitions in Task 2, we can see that they are not 100 per cent synonyms:

Concur and agree lack 100 per cent synonymy because of register. Concur is more formal than agree, Regarding confab and conversation, confab is a very informal private talk between two people, whereas conversation is a neutral word. Equally, in the case of contrite and sorry, the latter is used in more formal registers whereas sorry is less formal and has a wider range of uses. Looking at contradictory and opposite in a little more detail, they do not have a 100 per cent relationship of synonym either, because they do not collocate with the same words. We cannot say:

*He wanted to meet members of the contradictor/sex,*

*They stood at contradictory sides of the room*

*I walked in the contradictory direction.*

### **Vocabulary file:**

Synonyms come with a 'health' warning: you will rarely find 100 per cent synonymy between words.

Another type of relationship of equivalence or synonym is that of cognates. That is, where one word means the same in another language. In English, many words have been borrowed from other languages (see Chapter 1) and many of these mean exactly the same in English as they do in the language from which they originated. Many words in English have come from Latin and French and these are often written and pronounced similarly in European languages:

English	French	Spanish	Italian	Portuguese
Important	important(e)	importante	importante	importante

Apartment	appartement	apartamento	appartamento	apartamento
Intelligent	intelligent(e)	inteligente	intelligente	inteligente

The suitcase was very light/heavy.

Her hair was a light/dark brown.

This bread is light/fattening.

In the case of rough, you may have come up with some of the following antonyms:

His hands were very rough/smooth.

The sea was rough/calm.

Jamie is such a rough/gentle boy

This poses a challenge when teaching meaning. If we teach students that the opposite of rough is smooth, then it could generate an error by over-generalisation, for example The sea was smooth or Jamie is such a smooth boy. Teaching antonyms in context and focusing on their collocations is important in overcoming this obstacle. We will also return to this in Part B.

## LESSON 7.

<b>Theme: Homonymy and Hyponymy</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of Synonymy and antonym 2. to understand how Synonymy and antonym are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 7

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them? 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

#### Hyponyms

Hyponymy is a relationship of inclusion. It helps us to organise words into inclusive hierarchical relationships.

Task 5. Fill in the blanks.

- \_\_\_\_\_ is a type of animal.
- \_\_\_\_\_ is a type of house.
- \_\_\_\_\_ is a type of hat.
- \_\_\_\_\_ is a type of shoe.

There are many possible answers to Task 5. Cat, dog, mouse, horse, pig, lion, cheetah, and so on are types of animal. Mansion, chalet, cabin, bungalow, semi-detached, detached, and so on are all types of houses. Stetson, trilby, pillbox, beret, bowler are all types of hats. Stiletto, platform, sandal, pump, mule are types of shoes.

In each case, what you have suggested to fill the blanks in Task 5 can be called a hyponym. Therefore, we can say X is a hyponym of Y. For example:

*Cat is a hyponym of animal.*

*Chalet is a hyponym of house.*

*Trilby is a hyponym of hat.*

*Stiletto is hyponym of shoe.*

The reverse relationship is called hyperonymy:

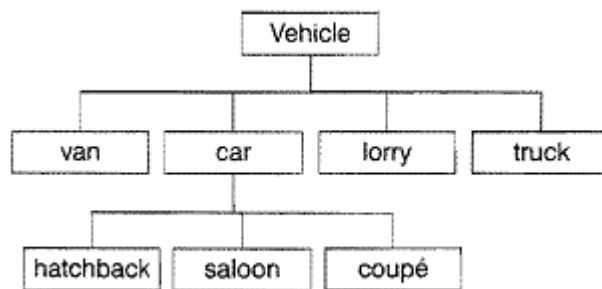
*Animal is a hypernym of cat.*

*House is a hypernym of chalet.*

*Hat is a hypernym of trilby*

*Shoe is a hypernym of stiletto.*

We can also say that dog, mouse, horse, pig, lion, cheetah are co-hyponyms. Sometimes the category words such as animal, house, hat and shoe are referred to as superordinates. Their hyponyms can be called subordinates. Let's look at this graphically in a hyponym tree:



**Task 6.** Based on the above hyponym tree, fill in the blanks in the statements below.

- \_\_\_\_\_ is a hyponym of vehicle,
- \_\_\_\_\_ is a hypernym of lorry.
- \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ are co-hyponyms.
- \_\_\_\_\_ is a superordinate of \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ are subordinates of car.
- \_\_\_\_\_ is a superordinate of coupe,

Carter (1987) says that hyponymy is a type of asymmetrical synonymy. That is, where two words are related by meaning but the relationship is asymmetrical because one of the words includes the other in its meaning. Hyponymy is very useful in the teaching of new words because co-hyponyms (or subordinates) can be explained in terms of their superordinates. For instance, we can say that a necklace is a type of jewellery. Dictionaries draw on this relationship in their definitions. In the examples of definitions below, we have highlighted the superordinates in bold:

**Adjective:** A **word** such as 'small', 'heavy', 'sunny' or 'blue' that describes a person, place or thing or gives extra information about them,

**Bottle:** A **container** for drinks and other liquids usually made of glass or plastic,

**Daffodil:** A yellow spring **flower** which has a bell-shaped centre and a long stem.

**Fanzine:** A **magazine** which is written by fans and is for fans, Usually pop groups and football teams have fanzines,

### **Homophones and homographs**

Homophones and homographs are terms used to refer to relationships between words which are more a matter of coincidence. Neither homophones nor homographs any semantic relationship.

Homophones are words which have the same pronunciation but are unrelated in meaning. Common examples of homophones are:

air - heir	banned band	cellar – seller	knew-new
aisle isle	bare bear	censor - sensor	hair - hare
allowed - aloud	beach beech	core - corps	hear - here
ate eight	beat beet	draft draught	know-no
leak -leek	bail - bale	ceiling - sealing	dual - duel
bait bate	cell - sell	fair - fare	mode-mowed

Homographs are words which have the same sign. That is, they look identical but they are unrelated in meaning. Some common homographs are:

	Meaning 1	Meaning 2
<i>bow</i>	/bəʊ/	/baʊ/
	what you use to play the violin	to bend at the waist
<i>lead</i>	/led/	/li:d/
	the heavy metal whose symbol is Pb	to be in front of others
<i>close</i>	/kləʊs/	/kləʊz/
	near to something	to shut something
<i>invalid</i>	/ˈɪnvəlɪd/	/ɪnˈvælɪd/
	a person who is ill	something which is not valid

Usually homographs have different pronunciations. For this reason, they may not cause confusion for learners. What is important from the perspective of teaching words which are homographs is to focus on correct pronunciation.

### Metaphor

Lakoff and Johnson (1980) conducted a famous study entitled *Metaphors We Live By*. This showed that metaphor is very common in all forms of language, not just in literature. They illustrate how metaphors are linked to cultural constructions or concepts. Here is an example of how the metaphor of a fire as a wild beast is used in a newspaper article. The words used within this metaphor are in bold print:

*Yesterday a fire **broke out** at the Hillsbury Castle owned for generations by the Hampton-Smyth family. It is believed to have begun in the kitchen but very quickly it **got out of control** and **raged** through the whole castle. Eye witnesses say that flames **leaped** high above the roof. Firefighters **fought** the flames for many hours and eventually they were able to **bring it under control**.*

**Task 7. Can you think of any example phrases we use for the following metaphors? One example has already been given in each case.**

Time as a valuable commodity (That's how I spend my time.)

Love as a journey (Our relationship is on the rocks.)

Argument as war (My point was shot down)

(Based on Lakoff and Johnson, 1980)

Some of the metaphoric uses of words you may have come up with for time as a valuable commodity may have been: buy time; lose time; waste time; time well spent. For love as a journey, you may have come up with words and phrases such as we've come a long way together; they went their separate ways; our relationship isn't going anywhere, our relationship is going downhill or our relationship is going nowhere; we're going through a rocky patch. In the case of argument as war, you may have listed items such as He attacked my argument; I demolished his argument; I've never won an argument with him (based on Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

Looking at how we use language non-literally, or metaphorically, is very interesting for learners. Very often metaphoric concepts (such as time as a valuable commodity, love as a journey and argument as war) are similar across cultures but sometimes they are not. Metaphoric use of language is pervasive and most texts that we use with our learners contain some degree of non-literal language. This is worth exploring. Metaphor provides a very strong visual connection with meaning and this in turn aids both comprehension and memory. Exploring concordance lines for metaphoric meaning can also be fruitful.

**Task 8.** The literal meaning of die is not live but it is sometimes used in a non-literal or metaphoric way. Identify which of the following usages are literal and which are non-literal (or metaphoric):

1. Melissa said she nearly **died** when she came out she was
  2. hear one hundred people **died** of heat related illnesses in Paris?
  3. street Gregory Peck. He **died**. Who was he? An actor. He was
  4. I'm so sick I'm going to **die**. Jealousy gets you no where
  5. four years. I would **die**. Actually I nearly died on my
  6. mother. His mother didn't **die**. No it was his aunt he's a cousin
  7. a bit of a problem. Did it **die**?
  8. is a twin and her mother **died** when she was three and her father
  9. I can't wait j'm **dying** for it You are all right do you have
  10. it? Yeah her hamster's **dying**. Oh Lord. She's very sick like so
- (From the Limerick Corpus of Irish English)

## **PART B. WHAT ARE THE PROBLEMS FOR LEARNERS**

One of the greatest challenges for learners is that there is not always a one-to-one relationship between words. Antonyms and synonyms, while they can be very helpful in understanding the meaning of new words, they can also create problems. As we illustrated in Part A with the words concur, confab, contradictory and contrite and their synonyms agree, conversation, opposite and sorry respectively, there are a number of factors which mitigate against a one-to-one relationship. One is register; two words may have the same meaning but they may be used in different registers. If learners are not made aware of register differences, this could generate errors. Another factor is collocation.

### **Vocabulary file**

*Just because words are synonymous does not mean that they share all of the same collocates.*

If we look at the collocates of the synonyms quiet and silent in a corpus, we find very few in common in the first 15 items. Collocates of quiet and silent from Collins Corpus Concordance Sample of the Bank of English

Quite	Silent
Keep, peace, kept, room, voice, life, relatively, nice, moment, shy, keeping, man, night, lanes, street	Fell, remained, moment, long, remain, stood, night, keep, film, majority, room, fall, crowd, kept, went

The lack of one-to-one correspondence is also an issue in relation to antonyms. Because of the polysemic nature of words (when words have more than one meaning, see Chapter 2), they often have more than one antonym depending on the meaning or context. Take for example the word deep. It has a number of meanings some of which are illustrated in the following sentences. For each meaning, there is a different antonym:

1. I never swim in the deep end of the swimming pool. (antonym: shallow)
2. Uz is in deep trouble. (antonym: minor)
3. She has a very deep voice. (antonym: high-pitched)
4. Her dress was deep red velvet. (antonym: bright)

The challenge for learners is to constantly build up antonyms for all the different meanings of a new word as they encounter them. Also, learning collocational patterns will aid this process. A learner who takes note of the collocational patterns of deep (deep end, deep trouble, deep voice and deep red) is less likely to make mistakes with antonyms in different senses. Colligation, the grammatical pattern of a word (see Chapter 4), is also a concern in relation to antonymy and synonymy. For example arrive and reach can be used synonymously to mean '<get to a particular place'. However, their colligational (or grammatical) patterns are not the same:

What time did you arrive at the hotel? Pattern: arrive + at + place

What time did you reach the hotel? Pattern: reach + place

Another major challenge for learners are false cognates (or false friends), which we mentioned in Part A. These are words which look and sound similar or the same in a learner's first language and in English, but which do not have the same meaning. The assumption that they do have the same meaning can lead to transfer errors by learners. There are many common false cognate errors for learners. For example, for Portuguese learners: ..

English	Portuguese
push	puxar (means pull)
pretend	pretender intend)
terrific	terrivel (means terrible)

### PART C. HOW DO WE TEACH

The most immediate application of word relations is in the initial presentation of new vocabulary. It would be difficult to explain words without reference to their synonyms, antonym, co-hyponyms, superordinates, and so on. Write down how you would explain these words to intermediate level students. Then identify the different word relationships which you have used

tent                      plummet

stare            fortnight

As teachers, word relationships seem an obvious way to help us organise the thousands of words that our learners are faced with learning. However, we need to constantly be aware of their limitations. The less we teach words and their synonyms, antonyms and so on in isolation, the more effective sense relations will be.

### **Vocabulary file**

*If we teach collocates and colligations as well as synonyms and antonyms, we will be adding greatly to our learners depth of vocabulary knowledge. Teaching words and their relations in isolation runs the risk of generating errors of over-generalisation*

Especially at more advanced levels, overtly using sense relations in teaching, that is, making students explicitly aware of sense relationships and their terminology, will help in a number of ways. It will create a sense of enquiry when learners encounter new words:

What is its antonym?

Does it have synonyms?

Can its synonyms be used in the same way?

What is the superordinate?

What are the co-hyponyms?

In tandem with this, learners need to build up a critical awareness about these relations. So, they need to be able to ask of a new word and its relations:

Can this synonym be used in the same way?

What other antonyms does this word have and in what contexts?

Is this a true or a false cognate?

Awareness-raising tasks with texts and concordance lines can be of great benefit both in exploring relationships of meaning and in working with non-literal or metaphoric meanings. Here are some possible tasks that you could undertake with your learners using level-appropriate texts or corpora:

1 Use concordance lines of synonyms to explore:

- a. the different senses that each word has
- b. the different collocational patterns that each word has
- c. the different colligational patterns that each word has
- d. how much the two words have in common.

2 Use concordance lines of antonyms to explore:

- a. the different senses that each word has
- b. the different collocational patterns that each word has
- c. the different colligational patterns that each word has
- d. how much the two words have in common.

3 Use concordance lines to explore literal and metaphoric meanings.

4 Select a short level-appropriate text for use as in a reading lesson. As an extension task, ask learners to select three words which they would like to explore further using a dictionary, the Internet or a corpus. Student could report their findings back to the class either orally or in writing. They could address questions such as:

- a. What are the synonyms and antonyms of these words?
- b. Is this word a superordinate or subordinate?
- c. What collocational patterns does each word have?



- d. What colligational patterns does each word have?
- e. Is this word ever used metaphorically?

5 Build up a class bank of synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, homophones and homographs. This could be done on cards and posted on the wall or on a shared electronic platform (such as a virtual learning environment). These could be used as the basis for class quizzes where the students test each other. It is important that as much information about collocation and colligation is included as possible.

The important lesson to be learnt about word relations and their application to teaching meaning is 'use with care'. Word relations such as synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, cognates, and so on, can be a powerful aid to teaching meaning and an aid to memorising new words and sets of words. These relationships can help our learners make connections and help them organise their vocabulary notebooks in a very productive way.

#### Chapter review

- 1 What sense relations might you draw on when teaching the following words:  
salmon      explore      dry      open      dressing table

- 2 Organise the words below into semantic relations and identify the relationship:

bright	bare	scarf
sidewalk	shirt	footpath
dark	bear	rough
smooth	gloves	dress

- 3 Here is an explanation of a word using its synonym. Give an example of an error which this definition might cause for students.

'To chop means to cuf

- 4 What are false cognates (or false friends)? Give one example from your own language.
- 5 We can say that the relationship between carrot and vegetable is one of hyponymy. What is the reverse relationship called (for example, between vegetable and carrot)?

- 6 What is a superordinate?

- 7 What is the difference between a homophone and a homograph? Give one example of each.

- 8 Identify the words below which are used metaphorically (or non-literally).

*An extract from a report on a football match:*

*United's game against Uverpool was one nightmare after the other. Their defence were asleep for the entire second half. The forwards threw away numerous chances in front of the goal. With Keane and Rice injured, United's hopes of winning this season are destroyed.*

9. Can you think of three different meanings of the word meet. For each meaning, give an example and provide a synonym to meet in each case.

10. How can concordance lines help us teach meaning?

## LESSON 8

<b>Theme: Text based activities for guessing meaning of vocabulary from context</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of Synonymy and antonym 2. to understand how Synonymy and antonym are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 8

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students  2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?  3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions

<p><b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b></p>	<p>2.1 Introduces students</p>	<p>2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters.  2.2 They answer the teachers questions.  2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member  2.4 Do the activities.</p>
<p><b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b></p>	<p>3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?</p>	<p>3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them.  3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks.  3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.</p>

## What do you need to learn?

- 1 How many words are there in English? At least:  
a) 10,000    b) 100,000    c) 250,000    d) 500,000
- 2 Winston Churchill was famous for his particularly large vocabulary. How many words did he use in his writing?  
a) 10,000    b) 60,000    c) 100,000    d) 120,000
- 3 How many words does the average native English speaker use in his/her everyday speech?  
a) 2,500    b) 5,000    c) 7,500    d) 10,000
- 4 How many words make up 45% of everything written in English?  
a) 50    b) 250    c) 1,000    d) 2,500

To sum up, there are many words you don't need at all and there are other words that you simply need to understand when you read or hear them. Finally, there are words which you need to be able to use yourself. Clearly you need to spend most time learning this last group. In the text below mark the words you'd like to be able to use.

English vocabulary has a remarkable range, flexibility and adaptability. Thanks to the periods of contact with foreign languages and its readiness to coin new words out of old elements, English seems to have far more words in its core vocabulary than other languages. For example, alongside kingly (from Anglo-Saxon) we find royal (from French) and regal (from Latin). There are many such sets of words which add greatly to our opportunities to express subtle shades of meaning at various levels of style.

You probably marked many words that you would like to be able to use. Unless you are studying linguistics, however, you probably need only to understand, rather than to use, the verb 'coin' as used in the context above.

## What does knowing a new word mean?

- It is not enough just to know the meaning of a word. You also need to know:
  - a) what words it is usually associated with
  - b) whether it has any particular grammatical characteristics
  - c) how it is pronounced
- Try to learn new words not in isolation but in phrases.
- Write down adjectives together with nouns they are often associated with and vice versa, e.g. royal family; rich vocabulary.
- Write down verbs with the structure and nouns associated with them, e.g. to add to our knowledge of the subject; to express an opinion.
- Write down nouns in phrases, e.g. in contact with; a train set; shades of opinion.
- Write down words with their prepositions, e.g. at a high level; thanks to your help.
- Note any grammatical characteristics of the words you are studying. For example, note when a verb is irregular and when a noun is uncountable or is only used in the plural.
- Make a note of any special pronunciation problems with the words you're learning.

- How could you record the following?  
a) chilly    b) dissuade    c) king    d) up to the ears    e) independent    f) get married
- What would you record beside the following words?  
a) scissors    b) weather    c) teach    d) advice    e) lose    f) trousers
- What might you note beside the following words?  
a) comb    b) catastrophe    c) photograph/photographer

### Can you learn just by reading or listening to English?

You will certainly help yourself to learn English vocabulary not only by studying with this book but also by reading and listening to English. Give each of the items on the lists below a mark from 0 to 4 describing how important this way of learning vocabulary could be for you personally. *Example: newspapers 3*

newspapers    TV (cable / subtitled)    cinema    magazines    video  
radio (e.g. BBC World Service)    academic or professional literature    fiction  
simplified readers (with or without cassettes)  
music or other cassettes    talking to native speakers

### What should you do when you come across new words?

When you are reading something in English, don't look up every new word or expression or you will soon get fed up. Only look up something that is really important for understanding the text. When you have finished reading, look back at what you have read and then perhaps look up some extra words and write down new expressions that interest you.

Similarly when you listen to English don't panic when you hear some words or expressions that you don't know. Keep listening and the overall meaning will often become clear.

When you read or listen to English it is sometimes possible to guess the meaning of a word you don't know before you look up or ask its meaning. Decide first what part of speech the word is and then look for clues in its context or form.

Before you read the text below, check whether you know what the underlined words mean.

A tortoise is a shelled reptile famed for its slowness and longevity. The Giant Tortoise of the Galapagos may attain over 1.5 metres in length and have a lifespan of more than 150 years. Smaller tortoises from Southern Europe and North Africa make popular pets. They need to be tended carefully in cool climates and must have a warm place in which they can hibernate.



Which of the marked words can you perhaps guess from the context or from the way the word is formed? Guess and then check whether you were correct by using a dictionary. Some words are impossible to guess from context or the structure of the word. In such cases, ask someone or go to a dictionary for help.

### How are you going to plan your vocabulary learning?

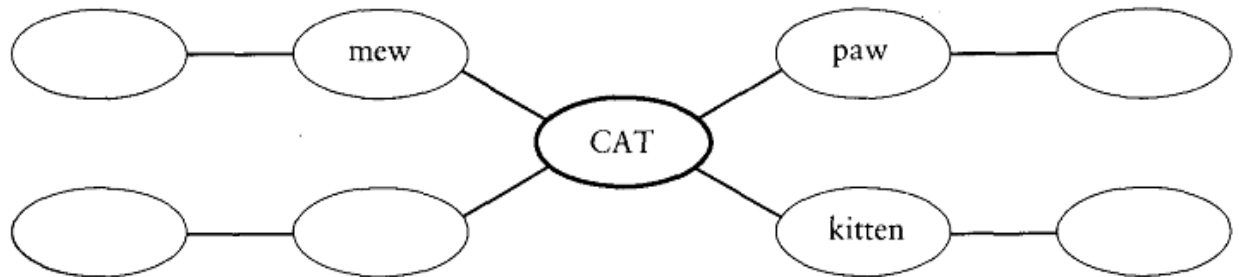
- How many words and expressions do you intend to learn each week?  
a) 5    b) 10    c) 15    d) more than 15
- Where and when are you going to learn them?  
a) on your way to school or work    b) before dinner    c) in bed    d) other
- How often are you going to revise your work?  
a) once a week    b) once a month    c) before a test    d) once a year

## Help yourself to learn by learning associated words together

Learn words with associated meanings together.

Learning words together that are associated in meaning is a popular and useful way of organising your vocabulary study.

1 Complete this network for the word CAT. Add as many other bubbles as you like.



If possible, compare your network with those done by other students. Add any of their ideas that you like to your network.

Learn words with a grammatical association together.

2 Here are some groups of words, each of which has a grammatical connection. Can you see what the connection is? What other words could you add to these groups?

- a) child tooth ox      b) cut split burst      c) information furniture food

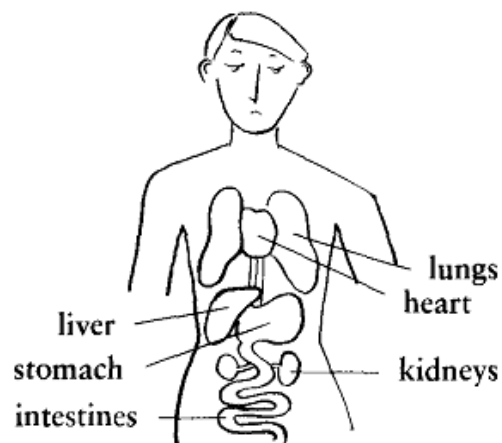
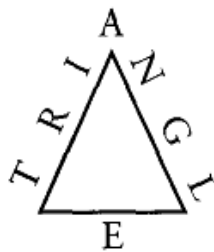
Learn together words based on the same root.

3 Can you add any words or expressions to these two groups?

- a) price priceless overpriced  
b) handy single-handed give me a hand

## Pictures and diagrams can help you learn

Here are some ways in which pictures might help you to remember vocabulary.

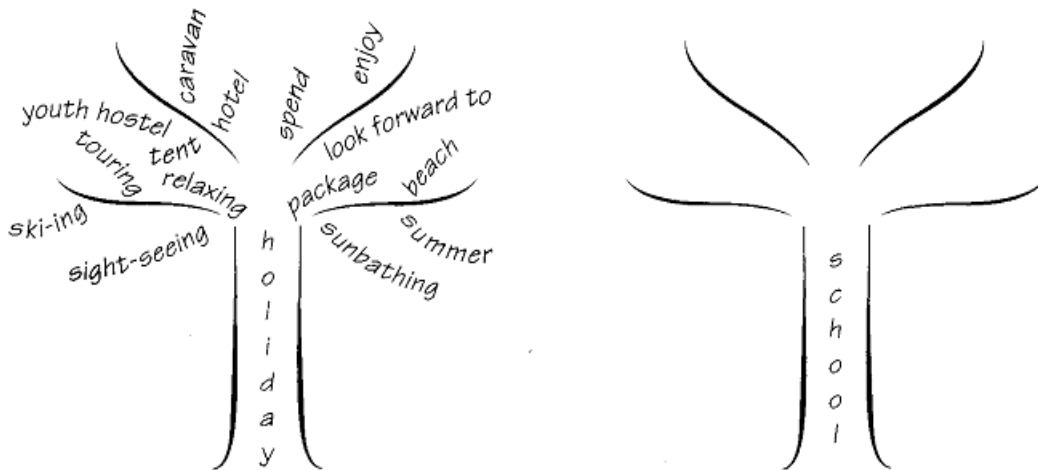


Can you draw any pictures that would help you remember the following vocabulary?

- a circle      to look a gift horse in the mouth      screwdriver

Word trees can be useful.

1 Look at the word tree for holiday. Now complete a tree for school.



Word forks are good ways of learning adjectives and verbs.

2 Look at the complete word forks below. Finish the others.

original		shoot		magnificent		kick	
brilliant		edit		brehtaking		hit	
unusual	idea	direct	a film	superb	view	bounce	a ball
great		star in					
excellent		review					

Matrices can also clarify collocations.

This book will sometimes use matrices to help to clarify word associations. Look at the following example of a matrix:

	a car	a motorbike	a train	a horse	a plane
to fly					+
to drive	+		+		
to ride		+		+	

3 Now complete the following sentences.

- She has always wanted to have the chance to ..... a train.
- Russian women are not allowed to ..... passenger aircraft.
- ..... a motorbike can be very dangerous.

You will do more practice with these and other ways of writing down vocabulary in Unit 3.

# Organising a vocabulary notebook

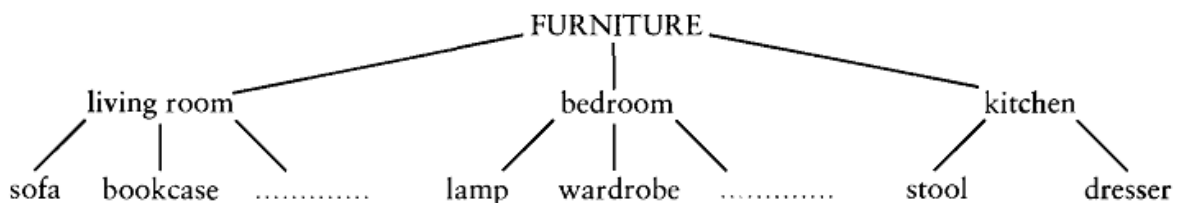
There is no one correct way to organise a vocabulary notebook, but it is a good idea to think about possible ways of doing so. Here are some possibilities and examples.

## Organising words by meaning

This book divides vocabulary into a large number of different topics, probably far too many for a notebook, but you could try dividing your book into different broad sections, with sections for words for feelings, words to describe places, words for movement, words for thinking, etc. In this way you can build families of words related in meaning.

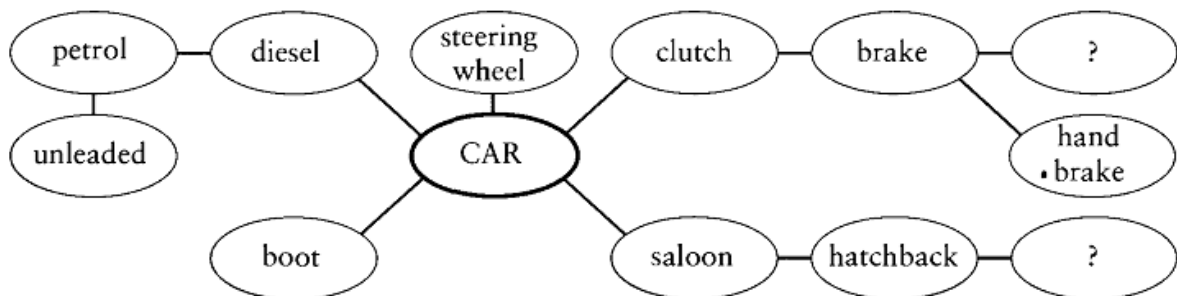
## Using various types of diagrams

Words that can be grouped under a heading or a more general word can be drawn as a tree-diagram. (See also Unit 2.)



The dotted lines mean that you can add more words to the tree as you meet them.

A bubble-network is also useful, since you can make it grow in whatever direction you want it to. (See Unit 2.)



## Organising by word-class

A Spanish learner of English, Angeles, gave us an interview on how she marks word-class in her personal notebook. This is what she said:

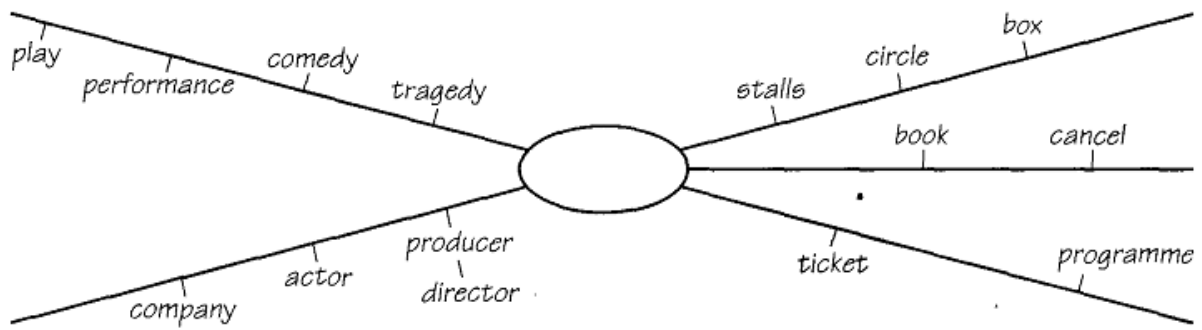
*'What I have just started doing is to write them depending on if they are verbs or nouns or adjectives or phrases. If they are phrases I write them in red and also the definition. If they are verbs, in black, and blue if they are nouns...And if I write the Spanish translation I write it in another colour, so it's easy to see...I draw some pictures too.'*

When you meet a synonym or an antonym of a word you already have in your book, enter it next to that word with a few notes:

*urban ≠ rural   stop = cease (more formal)*



Here is a word-map, a variation on the bubble-network. What word do you think should go in the middle of the diagram?



One learner we interviewed said he tested himself regularly with his notebook, covering up the word and trying to guess it from the translation he had written or from any other notes he had made. This was his system:

- 1 If the notes and/or translation were clear but he could not get the word, he made a small red mark in the margin. If any word got three red marks, then it needed extra attention and a special effort to learn it.
- 2 If the notes and/or translation could not help him guess what the word might be, then the word got a blue mark. A blue mark meant 'Write more information about this word!'

What is your testing system? Try to make one if you have not got one, or ask other people what they do. Try your system out and decide whether it needs improving.

Making tables for word-classes is a good idea, since you can fill in the gaps over time. What do you think this learner will put in the remaining gaps in the table?

<i>noun</i>	<i>verb</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>person</i>
production	produce	.....	producer
industry	.....	industrial	.....
export	.....	.....	.....

## Questions 26–35

Read the text below and choose the correct word for each space.  
For each question, mark the correct letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your answer sheet.

**Example:**

0    **A** most                      **B** more                      **C** best                      **D** better

Answer:    0    

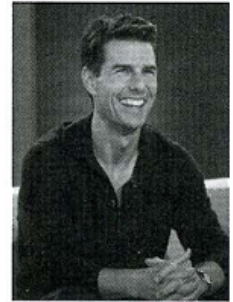
<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### Tom Cruise

Tom Cruise is one of the (0) ..... successful actors in cinema history. However, life hasn't always been that easy for him. As a young boy, Tom was shy and had (26) ..... in finding friends, although he really enjoyed (27) ..... part in school plays.

(28) ..... he had finished High School, Tom went to New York to look for work. He found employment as a porter, and at the same time he (29) ..... drama classes. In 1980, the film director Franco Zeffirelli (30) ..... Tom his first part in a film. Ten years later, he had become (31) ..... successful that he was one of the highest-paid actors in Hollywood, (32) ..... millions of dollars for (33) ..... film.

Today, Tom (34) ..... appears in films and is as (35) ..... as ever with his thousands of fans from all around the world.



- |    |                    |                    |                    |                     |
|----|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| 26 | <b>A</b> worry     | <b>B</b> problem   | <b>C</b> fear      | <b>D</b> difficulty |
| 27 | <b>A</b> making    | <b>B</b> holding   | <b>C</b> taking    | <b>D</b> finding    |
| 28 | <b>A</b> While     | <b>B</b> During    | <b>C</b> After     | <b>D</b> Until      |
| 29 | <b>A</b> prepared  | <b>B</b> waited    | <b>C</b> attended  | <b>D</b> happened   |
| 30 | <b>A</b> suggested | <b>B</b> offered   | <b>C</b> tried     | <b>D</b> advised    |
| 31 | <b>A</b> so        | <b>B</b> such      | <b>C</b> too       | <b>D</b> very       |
| 32 | <b>A</b> paying    | <b>B</b> earning   | <b>C</b> winning   | <b>D</b> reaching   |
| 33 | <b>A</b> another   | <b>B</b> all       | <b>C</b> each      | <b>D</b> some       |
| 34 | <b>A</b> yet       | <b>B</b> ever      | <b>C</b> already   | <b>D</b> still      |
| 35 | <b>A</b> popular   | <b>B</b> favourite | <b>C</b> preferred | <b>D</b> approved   |

## Part 5

### Questions 26–35

Read the text below and choose the correct word for each space.

For each question, mark the correct letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your answer sheet.

**Example:**

0    **A** keep                      **B** stay                      **C** hold                      **D** rest

Answer:    0    

<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

## ZOOS

People began to (0) ..... animals in zoos (26) ..... 3,000 years ago, when the rulers of China opened an enormous zoo called the Gardens of Intelligence. In many of the early zoos, animals (27) ..... taught to perform for the visitors. This no longer (28) ..... and it is accepted that the purpose of zoos is for people to see animals behaving naturally.

Today, most cities have a zoo or wildlife park. However, not (29) ..... approves of zoos. People who think that zoos are a good idea say they (30) ..... us with the opportunity to (31) ..... about the natural world and be close to wild animals. Both of (32) ..... would not be possible (33) ..... zoos. On the other hand, some people disapprove of zoos because they (34) ..... it is wrong to put animals in cages, and argue that in zoos which are not (35) ..... properly, animals live in dirty conditions and eat unsuitable food.

- |    |                   |                    |                   |                  |
|----|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| 26 | <b>A</b> above    | <b>B</b> over      | <b>C</b> more     | <b>D</b> beyond  |
| 27 | <b>A</b> are      | <b>B</b> have      | <b>C</b> were     | <b>D</b> had     |
| 28 | <b>A</b> appears  | <b>B</b> becomes   | <b>C</b> develops | <b>D</b> happens |
| 29 | <b>A</b> somebody | <b>B</b> everybody | <b>C</b> nobody   | <b>D</b> anybody |
| 30 | <b>A</b> produce  | <b>B</b> bring     | <b>C</b> provide  | <b>D</b> make    |
| 31 | <b>A</b> discover | <b>B</b> learn     | <b>C</b> find     | <b>D</b> realise |
| 32 | <b>A</b> that     | <b>B</b> what      | <b>C</b> whose    | <b>D</b> these   |
| 33 | <b>A</b> without  | <b>B</b> instead   | <b>C</b> except   | <b>D</b> unless  |
| 34 | <b>A</b> hope     | <b>B</b> expect    | <b>C</b> imagine  | <b>D</b> believe |
| 35 | <b>A</b> ordered  | <b>B</b> managed   | <b>C</b> decided  | <b>D</b> aimed   |

## Lesson 9

<b>Theme: Collocations (Progress test)</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of collocations 2. to understand how synonymy and antonym of collocations are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 9

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them? 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three

<b>lesson (50-min)</b>		subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

What is collocation?

Task 1.

Which combinations of words in the table sound natural, and which sound unnatural? Mark each with N (natural) or U (unnatural), as in the example.

heavy rain	N
heavy bag	
heavy sunshine	
strong wind	
strong car	
powerfull car	
blond hair	
blond jacket	

Collocation is all about how likely it is that two words will occur next to each other, or very near each another. For example, it is likely that we will find that bright and light will occur together, as will bitterly and cold. Bright light and bitterly cold are collocations. We say that the two words in each pair collocate with each other. We are not likely to find bright coffee or bitterly hot; those pairs of words do not collocate with each other. Bright coffee and bitterly hot are not impossible combinations a poet might use them to stretch our imagination and to create unusual images - but they are very unlikely indeed in ordinary English. They are not typical English collocations. Collocation is about what the most likely combinations of words are; it is about probabilities.

We would not be surprised to see the sentence The light was bright or the sentence The coffee they served was strong. Bright ... light and strong ... coffee are typical English collocations. But the words which collocate do not hay e to be next to each other. The relationship of collocation remains even if the words are separated by, for example, a verb, or

other phrases. Collocation, therefore, is a purely lexical (vocabulary) relationship, independent of grammar.

So, as well as looking at single words and compounds, as we did before, we need to look at how words attract each other, and combine to form collocations. Collocations also tell us something about the meaning of words when they are used together in context (see McCarthy, 1990: 12-15; Sinclair, 1991).

What types of words collocate with each other?

Any two words in the language can combine to form a collocation. However, the most frequent word in the language, the definite article *the*, is likely to collocate with tens of thousands of nouns; so many, in fact, that the information is not very useful for the study of vocabulary. For this reason, the definite article, and all the other most frequent words such as pronouns, prepositions, auxiliary and modal verbs and so on, are usually dealt with under the heading of grammar. They belong to the grammar class rather than the vocabulary class.

What we need to know is whether words are occurring together simply by chance or because of the way the grammar works, or whether two words are occurring with statistical significance, in other words, more than just by chance. Collocations have become established over a long period of time; they do not just happen by chance.

The less frequent a word is - if it regularly combines with another particular word - the more likely it is that this is significant and not just happening by chance. It is these combinations which are important, because they carry particular meanings that have become fixed in the language. What is more, they are difficult to predict, or to guess from intuition, and this is true for native speakers and non-native users alike. Because of this, the best way to get at the collocations of a language is to use a corpus, and let the computer do the statistical work. Biber et al (1998: 265-8), provide a useful outline of computer methods for analysing collocations.

Since we do not usually include grammar words in the study of collocations, the typical combinations will involve the major word-classes of nouns: verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Here are some nouns, adjectives and verbs, and a selection of their significant collocations. The information comes from a sample of 50 million words of texts from British magazines in the Bank of English corpus. The computer has calculated which words are most likely to occur significantly with the key words.

<i>Adjectives used with role</i>	<i>Adverbs used with disappointed</i>	<i>Nouns used as the object of create</i>
<i>important</i>	<i>bitterly</i>	<i>jobs</i>
<i>major</i>	<i>deeply</i>	<i>atmosphere</i>
<i>active</i>	<i>obviously</i>	<i>effect</i>
<i>crucial</i>	<i>extremely</i>	<i>image</i>
<i>central</i>	<i>terribly</i>	<i>problems</i>

Collocations and word frequency

### Task 2

Underline every word which typically collocates with the key word in each line, as in the example, If the combination sounds odd or unusual, do not underline it.

**Key word**

**very** noisy nice good dead easy happy cold  
**utterly** wrong stupid hard ridiculous hungry old crazy

Generally speaking, the more common a word is the more words it will collocate with. The less common a word is, the more its collocations are limited or restricted. So, very common, everyday adverbs such as *very* and *really*, which are used to strengthen or intensify an idea, will collocate with hundreds of adjectives. They will collocate more freely than adverbs with a similar intensifying function such as *utterly* or *profoundly*.

The following adjectives all occur after *very* and *really* in the Bank of English corpus, but not after *utterly* or *profoundly*:

Very / really ... hard high strong low small young large careful

We do not say *profoundly strong* or *profoundly low*, and we do not say *utterly small* or *utterly young*.

The following adjectives occur after *utterly* and *profoundly* in the Bank of English corpus. They could equally well come after *very* or *really*.

**utterly** → different reliable dependent confused

**profoundly** → different disturbing important gifted

#### Weak and strong collocations

Words which combine with only a small number of other words are called strong collocators. Words that will make a large number of collocations are called weak collocators. Words like *very* or *really* can form hundreds of collocations, (*very good*, *really difficult* and so on), but they are weak collocations. Words like *superficially* and *benignly* are far rarer; they enter into far fewer combinations and form strong collocations. Strong collocations such as *profoundly disturbing*, *superficially similar*, *benignly disposed* and *utterly reliable* are more difficult to guess or predict. Some collocations are very restricted a particular word may collocate with only a very small number of other words. Moon (1987), for example, shows that 99 per cent of occurrences of the word *torrential* in the Bank of English corpus collocate with *rain*, with only a tiny number of other collocations occurring that are also connected with *rain* (*torrential rain*, *torrential downpour*).

Because there are so many collocations in the language and because they are often difficult to predict, lexicographers (people who write dictionaries) have produced special dictionaries of collocations, especially for learners. One notable example for learners of English contains 150 000 collocations based on the 100-million-word British National Corpus (OUP, 2006). Another special dictionary of collocations focuses on 2000 essential nouns and gives a total of 50 000 collocations for the nouns, as well as dealing with the other word classes (LTP, 1997). Other, general dictionaries have special ways of showing collocations. Some choose example sentences so that they include the most common collocations for the word in question. Others have special typefaces and ways of showing collocating words. COBUILD (2009) has a feature called *Word Partnerships*, where the dictionary entry gives not only the most common collocations for a headword, but also a number showing which meaning of the headword in the main entry for the word that the collocation is used with.

The COBUILD Online website allows you to type in a word and get a list of the most frequent collocations for that word. For example, if you type in the word *explain*, you will immediately get a list which includes the following ten items (the common grammar words such as *an*, *of* and *the* have been excluded here, as discussed above):

given	plausible
simple	likely
possible	logical
offered	rational
only	satisfactory

From this list we can extract such common verb + noun collocations as to give / offer an explanation and adjective + noun combinations such as a simple /possible/ plausible explanation.

Native speakers and expert users of English know thousands of collocations and usually have a good sense of how weak or how strong a word is in terms of its ability to combine with other words. Bolinger (1976), Pawley and Sider (1983), Peters (1983) and Sinclair (1991) are among linguists who argue that native speakers know more than just single words - they also know how the words combine into collocations and longer phrases and chunks (see Chapter 5), and have thousands of these stored in memory. Native speakers and expert users also know what the collocations mean as a unit, as well as the meaning of the individual words that make them up.

### Collocations and meanings

#### Task 3

Explain briefly the different meanings of the verbs in bold, depending on the words they collocate with:

Go home - go crazy / get a new computer – get the phone / make dinner – make a noise / catch a bus – catch a cold

Some of the most frequent verbs in English have many different meanings. The dozens of different meanings for verbs like get, do, and make can cover page after page in a dictionary. For get, do and make, and for other similar verbs such as go, come and take, their meanings are often best understood by looking at the words they collocate with.

### Vocabulary file

Verbs such as **get, do, make, go** and so on, whose meaning seem to change depending on what they collocate with, are often called **de-lexical verbs** because their lexical (vocabulary) meanings are not very definite, and they pick up their meaning from their collocations.

We can learn a lot about what words mean by looking at the collocations they enter into. Often, several words may appear to mean the same or to have very similar meanings they are synonyms, or near-synonyms (see Chapters 2 and 7). In such cases, it is often how the words collocate with other words that can show up differences. Let us consider, for example, strong and powerful. Sometimes they can be used with very similar meanings:

strong/powerful leader	strong/powerful voice
strong/powerful argument	strong/powerful (wo)man
strong/powerful presence	strong/powerful ocean current



However, in the 50-million-word sample of the Bank of English corpus, which is made up of British magazines, some collocations only occur with one of the words:

**Collocations with strong but not powerful:** strong coffee, strong marriage, strong views

**Collocations with powerful but not strong:** powerful car, powerful computer, powerful engine

We can also see how different senses of the same word collocate differently when we look at the collocations of their opposites in meaning (their antonyms - see Chapters 2 and 7). Here are some examples:

Collocation	Opposite
dark hair	fair hair
dark colours	light colours
light winds	strong winds
light rain	heavy rain
happy song	sad song
happy marriage	unhappy marriage

### Collocations and register

#### Task 4.

**What types of English do you think these collocations come from? Choose from the list.**

Legal English

Computer English

Academic English

Business English

create a macro	refute a hypothesis
close a deal	balance the books
submit a paper	award damages
custodial sentence	overwrite a file

As we discussed connotation and register before. Here we will show how technical and specialist registers such as legal English, computer English, academic English or business English have developed their own sets of collocations which contribute to the character of the registers, providing a sort of 'fingerprint' of the special type of language.

Changes in society, in technology and human activity in general - in addition to producing new words and new compounds - also produce new collocations. Collocations change over time, just as single words do. Computers have brought a number of new collocations into our daily lives, such as these verb + noun ones:

*surf the Web / download a document / insert a hyper/ink / create an identity / burn a CD  
clone an image / paste a selection / unzip a file*

Thirty years ago, almost no-one would have understood what these collocations meant. New collocations often create shifts in meaning for the individual words: surfing the Web has nothing to do with beaches or the sea and does not involve a surfboard, and burning a CD does not mean setting fire to it! Dictionaries of special register collocations have been created using corpora, just as general dictionaries of collocations have. Longman (2007), for example, contains many thousands of typical business English collocations, indicated in bold typeface within the headword entries.

Collocation is a powerful organising principle in the vocabulary of English, both in general English and in special registers. It is not enough just to know the thousands of words we discussed in Chapter 1. We also have to know how they go together, and this is a problem for anyone learning English as a second or foreign language. Often, collocation is not really a question of right and wrong. Many word combinations will not be 'wrong', but they may be unusual, unnatural and very unlikely. There are no 'rules' about collocation in the way that there are grammatical rules such as how to form the present tense of verbs. This creates particular problems, both for the learner and for teachers and materials writers.

How well do learners learn and use collocations?

Task 5.

*Think of when you were learning English in school or at college or university, Did your teachers or course books ever mention collocation? If not, did you learn collocations indirectly, or by another name (such as word pairs or word combinations)?*

One obvious answer to the question posed in the title of this section is that it depends on the language level of the learners, the extent to which they are exposed to collocations, how aware they are of them, how much practice they are given in using them, and so on. This will vary greatly in syllabuses and classrooms around the world and in different course books and other materials that students use. However, there seems to be a general consensus among researchers that learners of English, even those with higher levels of proficiency, have problems with English collocations.

They either use collocations which are not typical, or they simply translate collocations from their first language, or else they under-use or over-use certain types of collocations.

Vocabulary file

*If learners use collocations that are not typical, a possible explanation is that they are translating from their first language (L1)*

A Spanish-speaking learner of English might say 'make a question' instead of 'ask a question' because the verb in the Spanish collocation *hacer una pregunta* corresponds to the English verb *make* rather than *ask*. Farghal and Obiedar (1995) suggest that learners often do indeed over-rely on translation from L1. Another possible explanation is that learners are creating phrases and sentences word-by-word, choosing correct words but not thinking of whether the words collocate or not. That is to say, learners create language bottom-up. Native speakers and expert users, because they have stored thousands of ready-made collocations, are working top-down, and simply accessing collocations from memory. This problem may be especially apparent among beginning learners, where the cognitive pressures of creating sentences in a strange new language mean that words are accessed one by one. But one reason

for bottom-up production may also be the way learners are taught; if the vocabulary lesson is always focusing on single words, and if language is taught with an overemphasis on grammar, students may see production as a question of filling empty grammatical slots (such as subject, auxiliary + main verb, object, adverb + adjective and so on) with single words.

Another way in which learners might use non-typical collocations is by over-using some collocations at the expense of others. So, for example, learners who know the adjective *big* might be tempted to use it in collocations where English would prefer *large* or *great*. In an 80-million-word sample of British news texts in the Bank of English corpus, some of the collocations of *great* can also occur with *big* (such as *great! big success*, *great/big contribution*), but many simply do not. So, we do not find *big distance*, *big amount* or *big respect*, even though those nouns collocate with *great*.

There is some evidence that learners do, in fact, over-use collocations in this way; O'Dell and McCarthy (2008), for example, identify untypical collocations such as *very delighted* (instead of *really/absolutely delighted*) and *a little decrease* (instead of *a slight decrease*), based on learner corpus evidence.

But learners may also under-use typical collocations in comparison with how native speakers use them. Howarth, for example, looked at verb + noun collocations in native-speaker and learner corpora and concluded that 'native speakers employ about 50 per cent more restricted collocations and idioms than learners do' (1998: 177). Granger (1998: 152) also concluded that learners under-use natively-like collocations in combinations such as intensifying adverbs used with adjectives. The adverbs *completely* and *totally* were more frequent in the learner data than in the native speaker data. On the other hand, *highly* was used more often by the native speakers than by the learners, possibly due to translation from the learners' L1 (French). Granger also concluded that learners' general awareness of collocations was poor.

### **Learning special registers**

The task of learning the language of special registers is a daunting one, but often learners who are aiming to become proficient in, say, academic English or business English already have a fairly large vocabulary from their profession or subject area. The collocations in their particular area may have slightly different meanings to what the same collocations mean in general English. So the collocation *going forward*, in general English, tends to mean either moving forward in space (for example, a vehicle can go forward), or making progress in some activity. However, in the 80-millionword sample of British news texts in the Bank of English corpus, in business-related texts, we often find the collocation *going forward* meaning 'from this point in time into the future', in sentences such as: *We can look forward to continued growth, going forward*. One might argue that collocations are at least as important in learning the special or technical language of a particular profession or activity as the individual words, or even more important. This is because, although individual words are often shared across subjects and disciplines, collocations involving those words may not be shared across different subjects (Ward, 2007).

A final problem concerning special registers is that learners might create untypical collocations based on their knowledge of single words within a register, thinking they will be safe in doing so because both words belong to the register. Taiwo (2004) gives examples such as *borrow a loan* (instead of *take out a loan*) and *type the keyboard* (instead of *use the keyboard*). These untypical collocations are understandable, given the relationship between the single words that make them up.

### **Part 3. How do we teach it.**

Most researchers who have looked at learners' problems with collocation agree that the best way to tackle the problems is to help learners become aware of collocations and how they work in the language. Without awareness, it would be very puzzling for learners to have to work with collocation exercises and activities. Very few learners will come to class expecting to learn collocations; for most learners their expectations are that the teachers and course books will teach them grammar, vocabulary (probably in the form of hundreds of single words), pronunciation and perhaps skills such as writing or speaking. So, the teacher's or textbook's first responsibility is to create awareness of what collocation is and how it can improve the learner's English.

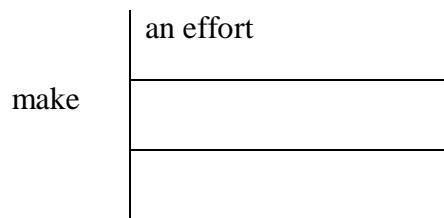
There are two basic ways of raising awareness: direct and indirect, and teachers will know best which one is more suitable for their students. The direct way means actually using the term 'collocation' in the classroom. I~xplainin,v, what it means and giving examples, then going on to various activities and exercises. This is a deductive way of teaching collocation: the teacher explains the principle, next the students apply it and work with examples, then they find more examples, and so on. This follows the principle of 'noticing' - if students can notice and find more examples for themselves, they have more chance of acquiring new language. For more on this, the Teaching English website produced by the British Council and the BBC has some useful articles on working with collocations. There is no reason to think that the word collocation is any more difficult for students to understand than a word like noun or subject or intonation. Once students are familiar with the term, collocation can become a regular and familiar feature of the vocabulary lesson. However, teachers may decide that introducing the idea of collocation by the direct method will be more suitable for higher-level learners. Every teacher knows their own learners best.

The other way of introducing collocation, the indirect way, lends itself more to an inductive approach. The idea here is that learners practice putting words into pairs through various simple activities, after which the teacher can explain what was behind the activities. In this way, the general principle of collocation comes out of the individual examples and activities, the opposite of the direct, deductive approach. An example of the indirect way would be to give out two sets of cards to the class. On one set could be verbs" on the other set, nouns. The task is for each student with a verb card to find a student with a noun card which can follow that verb. For example, verb cards might contain words like catch, make, take, while the noun cards contain words like dinner, a break, a bus. Putting the right cards together will give combinations such as make dinner, take a break, catch a bus and so on. The teacher can then talk about how important it is to get the right combinations of words, and they may or may not call these 'collocations'; they may prefer to call them 'word pairs', or 'word partners', or something that might be easier for learners to understand. The main point is to raise awareness. With easy words like those in the example above, using the indirect method, the general principle of collocation can therefore be introduced at quite low levels, from elementary onwards.

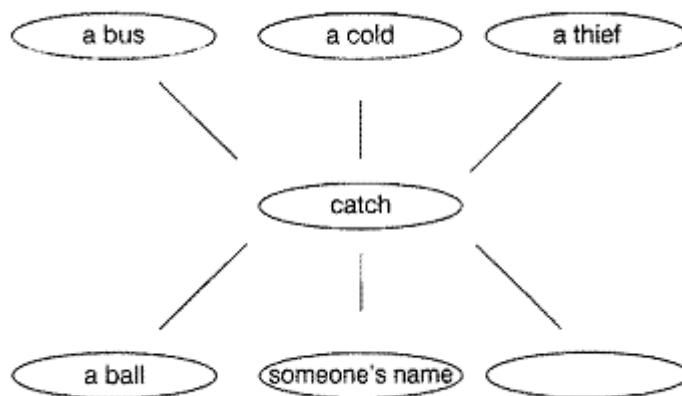
Once the principle of collocation is established, different kinds of exercises and activities can then be used to practice and consolidate it. Gap-fill exercises can be used where one word of the pair is missing; these can be done as doze tests in short texts or simply as lists of word-pairs where one word of the pair is missing. Word-forks are also a good way of practising the most common collocations of a word. For example:

Which items from the list can you put into the word-fork?

*an effort a mistake your homework a meal your duty*



Bubble-diagrams are also a good visual way of recording collocations; they appeal to learners who prefer a more visual approach to learning things:



Students can fill empty bubbles, use a dictionary to find more collocations and add more bubbles, and so on.

### Vocabulary file

*Using a dictionary in conjunction with classroom activities is important, because, although good learners' dictionaries give useful information about collocations, students often under-use their dictionaries and are not aware of the dictionary as a resource for information over and above meaning and spelling (Bejoint, 1981). Once they become aware they are likely to use their dictionaries more efficiently.*

Collocation quizzes can also be both fun and useful, especially if they can be done electronically, online or on CD-ROM, where students can get instant feedback and a score which they can try to improve over time. Several websites offer online collocation quizzes; just do a search for 'collocation quiz' in your Web browser.

Published materials focusing on collocations (usually at intermediate and advanced levels) include a variety of quizzes, games, puzzles, gap-fill exercises, re-write exercises, visual activities, and so on, which present and practise collocations in familiar, non-threatening ways to students (for example, McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005; Marks and Wooder, 2007). These materials often emphasise that learning and using collocations will improve the learner's style in writing, and make their English more natural.

Probably the most important aspect of learning collocations is recording them in a vocabulary notebook as, otherwise, they will be difficult to remember. Students very often record only single words and their L1 translations in their notebooks, so they may need training here too (see Schmitt and Schmitt, 1995). McCarthy et al. (2005-2006) stress the importance of the vocabulary notebook and have notebooks, which students can use and expand, in-built in both the books and accompanying CD-ROMs of their four-level adult English course, and which include practice in recording collocations.

Since vocabulary learning is such a huge task, and since there seem to be so many individual words and word-combinations, anything we can do to organise the learning process will almost certainly lead to better and more long-lasting learning. Getting collocation information from a corpus is the first step towards this kind of organization. Choosing collocations according to the word-classes which commonly combine with each other (adjective + noun, verb + adverb, for example) is a very useful way of organising collocations for teaching and learning, and most good materials and activities organise vocabulary according to word-class. Strong collocation, such as profoundly disturbing and utterly reliable are more difficult to guess or predict. We can therefore grade collocations, leaving the stronger ones to the more advanced levels. And exercises and activities focusing on, for example, near-synonyms, may be particularly helpful for higher-level learners who need to be able to distinguish among similar words in the large vocabularies they have already acquired (see McCarthy and O'Dell, 2008). Collocation need not be a difficult and off-putting aspect of vocabulary teaching, and, as we have shown here, can be approached at all levels, from elementary to advanced.

### Chapter review

1. Which definition of collocation is correct?
  - a. Collocation is a relationship between words based on their word-class.
  - b. Collocation is a relationship between words based on a system of rules for combining words.
  - c. Collocation is a relationship between words based on how likely it is that two words will occur together.
  - d. Collocation is a relationship between words based on how close two words are to each other in a text.
- 2 Which of these collocations are typical (write T) and which are untypical (write U) in English?

brown hair \_\_\_\_\_

a delicious house \_\_\_\_\_

to ride a car \_\_\_\_\_

beige hair \_\_\_\_\_

a delightful house \_\_\_\_\_

to ride a horse \_\_\_\_\_

- 3 Which collocation is a strong collocation, which is a weak one and which is a restricted one?

very good \_\_\_\_\_ auburn hair \_\_\_\_\_ utterly ridiculous \_\_\_\_\_

- 4 Only one of the following statements is true. Which one?
  - a. Words which are synonyms enter into exactly the same collocations.
  - b. Words which are synonyms do not have collocations in common.
  - c. Words which are synonyms may have some collocations in common, and some which are different.

- 5 Write the opposite of the words in bold.

**collocation**

**opposite**

I prefer dark colors.

I prefer \_\_\_\_\_ colors

She has dark hair

She has \_\_\_\_\_ hair

I hate strong coffee

I hate \_\_\_\_\_ coffee

There was a strong smell of petrol. There was a \_\_\_\_\_ smell of petrol

- 6 Which statements are true? Write T (true) or F (false).

- a. There are no special dictionaries just dedicated to collocation. \_\_\_\_\_
- b. An educated native speaker of English probably knows thousands of collocations. \_\_\_\_\_
- c. New collocations often show a shift in the meaning of the words which combine. \_\_\_\_\_
- d. Computers can't find collocations in a corpus. \_\_\_\_\_

7 What problem connected with collocation do you think this learner has? She is writing about her first time in London. How could she improve her text?

*"When I arrived I was very surprised to see that the streets were very crowded. It was very difficult to walk along Oxford Street because everyone was rushing and seemed very busy. I was very confused by the London Underground trains. The city is very exciting, but I was very nervous all the time,"*

8 Read (A) and (B) below and decide which is an example a deductive approach to teaching collocation and which is an example of an inductive approach.

**A:** The teacher explains how words combine to form collocations and gives one or two examples. He then asks the students to find examples of collocations in a text. The students then do a collocation gap-fill exercise. \_\_\_\_\_

**B:** In a class of 12 students, the teacher gives out cards, six with adjectives on, and six with nouns. Each student with an adjective card has to find a student with a noun card that fits the adjective. The class then discuss why the exercise is important. \_\_\_\_\_

9 How can the teacher use visual aids to teach collocation?

10 What rules can a teacher teach their students about collocation?

### Lesson 10.

<b>Theme: Lexical chunks</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of lexical chunks 2. to understand how lexical chunks are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

## The technological schedule of practical lesson 10

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them? 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

### **Part 1. What do we know about this?**

As we have already seen in Chapters 1 and 2, when we start to describe words, we see that a 'word' can be represented in any number of ways:

- single items or basic roots: table, door, lamp
- compounds where two or more words are combined: tabletop, door-handle, lampshade
- lexical chunks with relatively fixed meanings: at the end of the day, so on and so forth, to and fro
- prepositional phrases: at the moment, on the left, over and over

It is clear, then, that we cannot always talk about words as single items. Instead, we must understand how combinations of words function to produce specific meanings. One such category of fixed forms is idioms which we covered in our lessons before. Here, we will focus on compounds, prepositional phrases and lexical chunks. What characteristics do these vocabulary items have, what problems do they pose for learners and how might we go about teaching them?

### **Compounds**



As you may remember, a compound is simply a word that is made up of a root form and other 'add-ons', which may be other words or **affixes**. An affix simply refers to the additional 'bits' which we add at to the beginning or end of a word. For example, the word unproblematic is made up of the root problem, the prefix uno, and the suffix -atic. By combining these various elements, we can change both the form and meaning of a word; in this case, from the noun problem to the adjective unproblematic. Alternatively, we can combine a single root word with others to give different meanings: word+list = wordlist, check+out = checkout, and so on.

#### Affixation

English has a fairly limited number of affixes which can be used to make compounds and change a word's form or basic meaning. Some are relatively productive and allow many compounds to be generated. Most native speakers are able to work out the meanings of words from their knowledge of affixes and it is clearly worth teaching learners how affixes function so they can work out the meanings of new words.

#### Task 1.

Complete the table below. Say what the function of each affix is and add one more example for each

Affix and function	Examples
-ly (makes an adjective)	quickly
non-	non-starter
in-	inconvenient
re-	recast
-ing	reading
de-	devalue
-s	boys

#### Compounding

In addition to using affixes to change the form or meaning of a word, we can also simply combine words:

noun + noun → handlebare, window-cleaner, keypad

adjective + noun → soft-spot, hardhat

verb + noun → grindstone, pushchair

verb + verb → make-do

verb particle → get by, lean over

particle + noun → off-day, on-task, overdraw

Note that, from a learning and teaching point of view, most materials present compounds as single word items and do not 'break them down' into their constituent parts. There is strong evidence to suggest that we store and retrieve words as 'whole units' (See, for example, Lewis, 2002). The implication, then, is that this how they should be taught.

#### Task 2.

Give three examples of compounds for each combination below:

noun + noun

adjective + noun

verb + noun

verb + verb

verb + particle

Task 3.

To what extent do you feel a need to deconstruct words like the following in order to ascertain their meaning? What about learners? What strategies might be used for teaching learners how to deal with such words?

Reproduce      Irrefutable

Unforgettable      Photogenic

Unimaginable      Irresponsibility

### **Prepositional phrases**

There are many prepositional phrases in English which function as single word items. They usually comprise a preposition plus a noun phrase and often refer to place or time: at the end of the day; from time to time; from here to eternity; for ever and ever. Again, these are normally learnt as single items and are not usually broken down into their constituent parts. It is interesting to note that some of these phrases have both literal and idiomatic meanings, for example, at the end of the day, which can mean both 'as the day comes to an end' and 'in conclusion'.

### **Phrasal verbs**

When we combine verbs with other grammatical words, such as adverbs, we create phrasal verbs such as take off, put on, get out, etc. Each phrasal verb consists of a verb (take), and a particle, normally a preposition or adverb (off). Phrasal verbs pose problems for learners for a number of reasons:

- there are so many of them and they have similar forms
- their meanings are often similar
- their meanings are often difficult to work out
- they occur in informal English, making them difficult to identify and understand.

A major difficulty is deciding which of the many phrasal verbs are the most useful to teach. Using corpora, we can find out which verbs occur most frequently. For example, the most frequent particles in phrasal verbs are in, on, up, out, off, down, around, for, with, and so on. These combine with the most frequent verbs such as go, come, get, make, look, put, etc. From this we can make a list of core, useful phrasal verbs for teaching which will include items such as get on, get by, go on, look up, look around, make up, put in, put off, and so forth (McCarthy et al., 2007).

Another difficulty is that meanings may be highly transparent or more context-specific. Consider get on, for example. Depending on the context, it can mean 'board' (Mike got on the number 42 bus), 'continue' (get on with your work), 'understand' (you all need to get on together), or 'leave' (I'd better be getting on). We can say, then, that some words are more opaque or transparent than others; their meanings are more obvious whether they appear in or out of context. Some verbs can be separated from their particle, others cannot. Compare for example:

*work out: 'I worked out the answer myself' OR 'I worked the answer out myself'*

*get on: We're getting on fine now' BUT NOT We're getting fine on now'*

#### Task 4.

Which of the following phrasal verbs are separable and which are not?

look around	get up to	put on	make do
look up	get on	put off	make off with
look at	get around to	put up to	make sure
look over	get off	put through	make over

#### **Lexical chunks**

In addition to compounds and prepositional phrases, there are many other multiword units, or 'lexical chunks' which are fixed or semi-fixed, and which we can treat as single words. There are different ways of classifying these, including:

- Discourse markers: by the way, what's more, even so.
- Social formulae (used to establish and maintain relations): how's it going, see you S0011, I was wondering if.
- Sentence builders (used as 'a way into' a particular topic or subject): the thing is, what I mean is, if you ask me.

One advantage of lexical chunks for learners is that they can be learnt as single items, saving time and making recall faster. Some claim that learning and using chunks is an aid to fluency, allowing speakers and writers more time to clarify intended meaning or to seek clarification.

Vocabulary file.

*Another advantage of lexical chunks is that they can be used to generate other phrases which have similar meanings: see you later → see you soon → see you in a bit → see you next week, and so on*

Some of the most frequently found chunks are used almost exclusively in spoken English, more specifically in conversations. Take I think and you know, for example. When we look at spoken corpora, these chunks have a very high frequency because they perform specific functions. I think acts as a kind of hedge to soften what speakers are saying and to help them be less assertive, while you know creates 'shared space' between speakers, allowing greater informality and more equal roles. Consider these examples:

(1)

[Discussing a successful football team]

A: Is it the degree of talent that they have? Maybe the system that they've put in?

Is it the coaching?

B: Well, I, I think it's a combination. There's no doubt that they have outstanding talent, you know.

(2)

A: So if you just go down to the fish market or the butcher or, you know, just your local supermarket and see what's on offer that day. And cook it - grill it up, and that's your dinner.

In (1), Speaker B uses a combination of I think and you know to express an opinion, but also to soften that stance and present a more sympathetic point of view. Remove these chunks and the interaction immediately becomes less friendly, even hostile.

There are many other two-word chunks which are used in spoken language to help create successful interactions. These include I mean, you see, I see, and I know and are normally referred to as discourse markers. Clearly, learners must master these key chunks and understand how they function to help maintain the flow of a conversation.

Some of the more common words frequently occur in longer chunks. Take know for example. Know is used in four and five word chunks which have high frequencies and which are essential in spoken discourse. Consider the following examples taken from the COBUILD American spoken corpus:

- Know what I mean?
- Do you know what I mean?
- Do you know what I'm saying?
- You know what I'm saying?
- I know what you mean.

In each case, the function of the chunk is to maintain the flow of the interaction, keep the channels open and ensure that speaker and listener understand each other.

#### Task 5.

There are many examples of lexical chunks which are used to create and maintain relationships. These 'social formulae' can be quite confusing for learners and may even be misused. Which of the following would you teach to a group of adult, intermediate learners? Which would you omit and why?

- |                  |                      |
|------------------|----------------------|
| How's tricks?    | See you.             |
| Have a good one. | Long time no see.    |
| Nice to see you. | Better be going now. |
| What about you?  | Catch you later.     |

*Other high-frequency chunks include the following, again, all taken from the American spoken corpus:*

<i>WORD</i>	<i>FREQUENT CHUNKS</i>
<i>Time</i>	<i>for a time, at the time, a short a long time, most of the time</i>
<i>Way</i>	<i>the way things are the way home, change in the way, in the same way</i>
<i>End</i>	<i>at the end of, in the end, come to an end, by the end of, towards the end of</i>
<i>Thing</i>	<i>one thing that, this /that kind of thing, the same thing, the important thing is</i>
<i>Things</i>	<i>a lot of things, kinds of things, things like that, one of the things</i>

#### Why chunks are important

Including common chunks in the notion of 'vocabulary' has S Jill\:: important consequences for learning English:

- We begin to look at vocabulary as consisting of more than just single words and collocating pairs of words.
- In spoken language especially, some of the most common chunks have important interactive functions (hedging or calling on shared knowledge, for example).
- The most common chunks help to create successful communication.

- Ready-made chunks enable us to be fluent. We do not have to create them anew every time we need them (see Wray, 2000, 2002).

- If learners can learn and retrieve the most useful chunks, they will sound more fluent. (McCarthy et al., 2007)

#### *Binomials and trinomials*

English also has a number of pairs (binomials) and trios (trinomials) of words which are fixed both syntactically and that is, both the word meaning are invariable. Examples include:

#### Binomials

*to and fro*

*black and white*

*salt and pepper*

*fish and chips*

*sick and tired*

#### Trinomials

*cool, calm and collected*

*hook, line and sinker*

*left, right and centre*

*ready, willing and able*

(McCarthy, 1990)

Clearly, the implication for learners is that these have to be learnt and used as single items. Breaking such fixed phrases down into their constituent parts is only going to cause confusion and slow down the learning process. As Palmer said many years ago (1925) when giving advice about oral fluency, 'memorise perfectly the largest number of common and useful word groups'.

## **PART B What are the problems for learners?**

There are several difficulties for learners associated with multi-word items:

1 Transparency of meaning. We've already seen that the meanings of some multiword items are straightforward and literal, while others are more difficult to predict, cvca from context. For example, many phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs have to be learnt as their meaning cannot be worked out, even from context. Examples include to be out on a limb, to be on the ball.

2 Fixedness. Some items are totally fixed and cannot be changed at all, while others can generate similar expressions (as in greetings, for example, see you, see you later, see you next week and so on). For learners, it is difficult to learn the extent to which an item is fixed or variable.

3 Frequency and usefulness. Depending on the context where learning is taking place, some items will have more relevance than others. For example, the greeting What about you? is very common in Northern Ireland and learners there would find it useful. However, it is not widely used in other contexts and could therefore be ignored.

4 Pronunciation. Sentence stress and rhythm are key to correct pronunciation of multi-word units. For example, the binomial black and white has to stress 'black' and 'white' while 'and' is practically 'thrown away'. Learners need to understand this principle at an early stage if they are to master correct pronunciation. Similarly, the word stress in compounds may cause some difficulty for learners when they encounter a word for the first time. How can learners know where to place the stress on a word they come across for the first time?

5 Syntax. The word order of multi-word units is normally fixed and cannot be varied. We normally say boys and girls, not girls and boys, or {ish and chips, not chips and {ish, and so on. A learner's ability to master the exact word order is key to their ability to sound more like a native speaker.

6 Guessing meaning from context. As we've seen in the earlier part of this chapter, some fixed expressions are difficult to predict even when they are used in context. For example, what clues can learners use to guess the meanings of the following phrases?

- Long time no see
- She always has to make a scene
- I just don't know which way to turn

**Task 6.**

Why might the following items present difficulties for learners? Translate them into another language that you are familiar with. What differences do you see between the two languages in terms of words used, word order and literal meanings?

- Forever and a day
- Get on with
- Make it up
- Kinds of things
- By the end of
- At the time

**PART 3. How do we teach it?**

**Context and level**

Teaching multi-word items will obviously depend on both context and level. With advanced learners, a more inductive approach can be adopted, whereby learners are left to work things out on their own. With lower levels, teachers will need to offer more support and guidance and check form, function and pronunciation.

<b>Form</b>	What grammatical features need to be observed (for example, the use of prepositions, verb form, and so on)?
<b>Function</b>	What does the item mean and how can meaning be checked?
<b>Pronunciation</b>	What is the most natural pronunciation, which key words need to be stressed, which can be 'thrown away', unstressed?

Take the very common phrase at the end of the day, for example. Learners will have encountered all of these words individually before, but what special features do they need to notice in this phrase? First of all, the use of prepositions at and of (we don't say in the end of the day, for example) and the definite article the. Secondly, they should notice the specific meaning, 'in conclusion' or 'when all's said and done', Finally, the pronunciation: put stress on end and day; 'throwaway' at and the; and note the linking between end and of.

**Task 7**

Look at the extract below from a pre-intermediate, adult ESL class. How well does this teacher teach in a penalty shoot-out? Consider the points made above and suggest ways in which this might have been done better.

- 81 T now ... see if you can find the words that are suitable in these phrases (reading) in the world cup final of 1994 Brazil Italy 2 3 2 and in a shoot-out ... what words would you put in there? ((1))
- 82 L7 [beat]
- 83 T [what] beat Italy 3 2 yeah in?
- 84 L7: in a penalty shoot-out
- 85 T a what?
- 86 L7: in a penalty shoot-out
- 87 T in a penalty shoot-out very good in a penalty shoot-out

(Walsh, 2001)

### Task 8

In the extract below, the teacher is working with a group of upper-intermediate, adult, ESL learners. Notice how she guides them to the meaning and use of roller skating.

- (a) How does she 'scaffold' (feed in linguistic support) the word that L5 is looking for?
- (b) How does she model the correct use of the word?
- (c) How does she repair learners' contributions (correct errors)?

- 218 L5: the good news is he went to the went to
- 219 T: he went to what do we call these things the shoes with wheels
- 220 L2: ah skates
- 221 L6: roller skates
- 222 T: ROLier skates roller skates so [he went]
- 223 L5: [he went] to
- 224 L: roller SKATing
- 225 T: SKATing
- 226 L5: he went to
- 227 T: not to just he went [roller skating he went roller skating]
- 228 L5: [roller skating he went roller skating]

### Lesson 11

<b>Theme: Set phrases and lexical chunks</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of set phrases and lexical chunks 2. to understand how Synonymy and antonym of collocations are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be ablt to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender

<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 11

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greet the students 2. Ask the questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women?</li> <li>• Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?</li> </ul> 3. Ask the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

‘Twelve-inches-one-foot. Three-feet-make-a-yard. Fourteen-pounds-make-a-stone. Eight-stone-a-hundred-weight’.. . . Unhearing, unquestioning, we rocked to our chanting, hammering the gold nails home. ‘Twice-two-are-four. One-God-is-Love. One-Lord-is-King. One-King-is-George. One-George-is-Fifth . . .’ So it was always; had been, would be for ever; we asked no questions; we didn’t hear what we said; yet neither did we ever forget it.

Laurie Lee: Cider with Rosie. Penguin: 53– 4



She would go and smile and be nice and say ‘So kind of you. I’m so pleased. One is so glad to know people like one’s books’. All the stale old things. Rather as you put a hand into a box and took out some useful words already strung together like a necklace of beads.

Agatha Christie:Elephants Can Remember. Pan:12

### Introduction

In a series of advertisements run on British TV early in 1993 by the breakfast cereal manufacturer Kellogg, people were asked what they thought Rice Krispies were made of, and expressed surprise at discovering that the answer was rice. Somehow they had internalized this household brand name without ever analyzing it into its component parts. It was as if the name of the product had taken on a life of its own, and required no more reference back to its ‘meaning’ than do words of foreign origin such as chop suey(‘mixed bits’) and spaghetti(‘little cords’). But how could this come about in the case of a name which, although oddly spelled, so transparently refers to crisp rice? In actual fact, overlooking the internal composition of names is a far more common phenomenon than we might at first think. Many personal names have ‘meanings’ which we simply ignore: we do not expect someone called ‘Verity Baker’ to be a truthful bread maker, or someone called ‘Victor Cooper’ to win barrel-making competitions.

Since interpreting such names in a literal way would be a distraction,it is actually very useful that we can choose the level at which we stop breaking down a chunk of language into its constituent parts. Nor is it just names that we treat in this way. We also overlook the internal composition of a great many words. Although there is a historical reason why a ladybird is so called, there is no more sense in decomposing the word than there is in falsely breaking down carpet into ‘car’ and ‘pet’.

If this phenomenon were restricted to proper names and single words, it would be remarkable enough. But this is just the thin end of the wedge, for we are also able to treat entire phrases, clauses, and even lengthy passages of prose in this way. Just as with the name Rice Krispies, which, in effect, means both ‘crisp rice’ and ‘common breakfast cereal of indeterminate composition’, the result is often, though not always, two layers of meaning. If you break the phrase up, it means one thing, but if you treat it whole, in its accustomed way, it possesses a meaning that is something other than, or in addition to, its constituent parts. Idioms are a clear example of this. The phrase pull someone’s leg has a literal, if rather improbable, meaning, which involves a person, the person’s leg, and the action of pulling. But the phrase as a whole has the meaning ‘tease’, and it is difficult, in that interpretation, to work out why there is any reference to legs or pulling at all.

Words and word strings which appear to be processed without recourse to their lowest level of composition are termed formulaic, and they are the focus of this book. They are interesting because their widespread existence is an embarrassment for certain modern theories of linguistics, which have unashamedly pushed them aside and denied their undoubted significance. In exploring the way in which formulaicity contributes to our management of linguistic communication, we shall address such questions as:Just how common is formulaic language?

What forms can it take? What is it used for? What role does it play in our production and comprehension of normal discourse? How is it to be accommodated within linguistic theory? How do first language learners acquire it? Why is it so problematic for second language learners? What happens to it when someone loses language capabilities through brain damage? And what role might it play in the general and linguistic recovery of such individuals?

A particular grouping of words may recur frequently in a language that it comes to be seen as a fixed expression. Some examples of fixed expressions in English are:

*Once in a blue moon*

*Seeing is believing*

*The more the merrier*

*The other side of the coin*

*To throw in the towel*

Obviously, some fixed expressions are more fixed than others. In some of the above instances, for example, almost no change to either the order of the words or the actual words used is possible without the general meaning or the acceptability of the expression being affected. Thus, in *seeing is believing*, it might just be possible to insert an adverb before *is* (e.g. *really is believing*), but otherwise the expression has to be used as it is.

Similarly with *the more the merrier*; here the only admissible change is the placing of an intensifying word (usually at a bad word or a euphemism for a taboo word) before *merrier* (e.g. *the more the merrier* in 'merrier'). In other cases changes in the syntax and in the actual components of the expression can be made without the force of expression being undermined. Thus, *the other side of the coin* can be manipulated in various ways while still maintaining its essential identity:

*Moving on to the cost of the project, here we see the negative side of the coin.*

*Of the French economy it has been remarked that this is a coin that has two very different sides.*

*As for the present political situation, well, which side of the coin shall I begin with?*

Fixed expressions vary also in relation to the extent to which their overall meanings can be arrived at by simply adding together the meanings of the words out of which they are composed. For example, *seeing is believing* is interpretable simply on the basis of knowledge of the normal meanings of the individual words involved in this expression. However, in the case of *to throw in the towel*, it would not be possible to interpret this as 'to give up', 'to surrender' unless one actually knew that this meaning attached to the whole expression –or unless one knew enough about boxing (where a towel thrown into the ring has traditionally been away of conceding defeat) to be able to decode the metaphor. Expressions such as these which are 'semantically opaque' in this kind of way are generally referred to as idioms.

Lexical items which very frequently co-occur with each other often fuse together into compound words. Examples of this are *blackboard* (black+board), *keyhole* (key+hole) and *paintbrush* (paint+brush). In such instances the relationship between the meaning of the compound word and the meanings of its individual constituent words is not always a simple one. Thus, for example, *blackboard* does not denote any old board which is black, but a very specific kind of blackboard, usually found in classrooms, on which it is possible to write (and make excruciating noises!) with chalk.

The rule of thumb commonly appealed to for distinguishing between compound words and fixed expressions is based on an orthographic criterion. If two words are joined together in written form we tend to label them as a compound word; if not, we tend to treat them as participating in a fixed expression. However, this is a highly arbitrary distinction. Within a particular language a given expression may be transcribed in various ways. For example: *air bag* / *air-bag* / *airbag* / *coffee shop* / *coffee-shop* / *coffeeshop* / *goldmine* / *gold-mine* / *gold mine*

It is also worth saying that, as we saw before, some languages are written down using systems which do not mark word boundaries, and some languages are not written down at all; clearly, in these cases the orthographic approach to distinguishing between fixed expressions and compounds would be totally irrelevant.

A phonological approach to this conundrum does not get us very far either. As, again, we saw before, whereas, for example, in most English words we can identify one syllable carrying the main stress, in many multi-word expressions that on the orthographic criterion, and according to native speakers' own intuitions, would not be classed as compound words, only one main stress occurs over the whole group. Thus: *barber shop / feel good factor / skin care ointment*

We might also note that phonological usage in this regard varies within language communities. The expression New Year (as in Happy New Year!), for instance, is given just one main stress by some speakers of English (New Year), while other speakers of English place a stress on both words (New Year).

Nor does there seem to be a simple way of distinguishing between compound words and fixed expressions in semantic terms. We have seen some examples of compounds whose meanings are not straightforwardly computable from the meanings of the words which compose them. However, as we have also noted, it is equally easy to find examples of collocations with similarly peculiar semantics: heavy smoker is not typically understood as 'overweight nicotine-user'; criminal lawyer is in most contexts taken to mean something other than 'law-breaking attorney'; and artificial florist will not usually be interpreted as 'flower-seller of unnatural origin'! On the other hand, fixed expressions as well as compounds often mean exactly what they look as if they might mean. Thus, heavy vehicle uncomplicatedly denotes a vehicle which is heavy; criminal behavior denotes behavior which is criminal; and artificial additive denotes an additive beyond Mother Nature's range. Similarly, coal miner denotes someone who mines coal, sunlight denotes the sun's light, and work place denotes the place where one works.

### **Collocations and the dictionary**

Whether it is possible to differentiate rigorously between compound words and collocations, and whether the meaning generated by the co-occurrence of two or more particular lexical items is a straightforward sum of the individual meanings of the items concerned, it is clear that the combinations into which a given word may enter and the meanings that attach to the various combinations in question are important elements in that word's profile. This is recognized at a practical level by dictionary-makers, as is demonstrated by the fact that (leaving aside the very tiniest pocket dictionaries) dictionary entries have traditionally not only treated the individual words concerned but have also referred to items with which they frequently co-occur. The following entry from the 1940 edition of the Harrap's Shorter French and English Dictionary is fairly representative.

*Fatigue* [fatig], s.f.1. (a) *Fatigue, tiredness, weariness. Tomber de fatigue, to be dropping with weariness. Brise de fatigue, dog-tired; dead-beat, (b) Souliers de fatigue, strong walking shoes. Habits de fatigue, working clothes. Cheval de fatigue, cart-horse. Mec.E: Pieces de fatigue, parts subject to strains. 2. Wear and tear (of machines, clothes etc.).*

As was mentioned in before, the suggestion was made many years ago by the British linguist J.R. Firth that investigating the lexicon was essentially a language and the lexicon matter of exhaustively investigating collocations, and, in fact, he specifically referred to lexicography (i.e. dictionary-making) in this context. The idea that dictionary-making needs to be founded on collocational research is a point of view which continues to have its champions today. Indeed, it is an idea which has been gaining ground over the last 10-15 years. Moreover,

since Firth's time information technology has developed to the point where it is now possible—through the use of computerized corpora (see above, 2.2)—to undertake the kind of exhaustive investigation of collocations that Firth called for, and such corpora are indeed drawn on in the preparation of dictionaries, as well as being exploited in many other ways.

### **Corpora and collocations**

The present view of many linguists is that the investigation of collocations is inextricably (=impossible to escape from) bound up with the exploitation of computerized corpora, for the simple reason that only through the use of such corpora—with their vast amounts of authentic data and the accompanying software—is it possible to come to any reliable conclusions about which words 'keep company' with which. Collocations were certainly studied before the advent of electronic corpora; the work of J.R. Firth in the 1950s has already been mentioned in this connection, and before him, in the 1930s, another British linguist, H.E. Palmer, was already deep into collocational research; however, there is no doubt that the creation of such corpora has enabled this area of research really to come into its own.

The potentialities of electronic corpora in this regard have been dramatically demonstrated by the COBUILD project. COBUILD (Collins Birmingham University International Language Database) involves a partnership between the Collins (now Harper Collins) publishing house and the School of English of the University of Birmingham. It has assembled vast and still growing corpus of naturally occurring English data, now known as the Bank of English. Recent reports indicate that the corpus currently runs to more than 320 million words of spoken and written English text. There were, admittedly, corpora in existence before COBUILD, and other corpora were developed alongside and after COBUILD, however, the COBUILD project went further than its predecessors in showing how useful a corpus could be not only to researchers focused on language description but also in very practical domains such as the production of dictionaries and language teaching materials, and, in so doing, it blazed a trail for the many corpus based projects that followed and imitated it. It should perhaps also be noted in the present context that the director and leading light of the COBUILD project, John Sinclair, was deeply involved in collocational research long before the project was ever thought of, and that he saw one of the principal attractions of the project as being its capacity to shed light on collocational issues.

Materials and language descriptions arising out of the COBUILD project base their definitions and illustrations on the combinatorial patterns discernible in the corpus. The following is a typical COBUILD dictionary entry. The meaning it assigns reflects an exhaustive analysis of the environments in which the word in question has been found to occur in the corpus—some of which are cited in the entry.

Veritable [vɛrɪtəbəl] is used to emphasize a description of something and used to suggest that, although the description might seem exaggerated, it is really accurate. EG *The water descended like a veritable Niagara ... I'm sure the audience has a veritable host of questions... ..a veritable passion for the cinema.*

We can see the same kind of approach in the Collins COBUILD English Grammar, as the following excerpt demonstrates. Many nouns can be used after 'make'.

... There is usually a related verb which can be used followed by a reported clause.

She made a remark about the weather.

Allen remarked that at times he thought he was in America.

Now and then she makes a comment on something.

Henry Cecil commented that the ground was too firm.

Here is a list of nouns which are used after *make* and *have* a related reporting verb: arrangement / claim / comment / confession / decision / promise / protest / remark / signal / suggestion

Other nouns used with 'make' express speech actions other than reports or describe change, results, effort, and so on.

I'll make some enquiries for you.

They agreed to make a few minor changes.

McEnroe was desperate to make one last big effort to win 'Wimbledon' again.

Here is a list of other nouns which are used after 'make':

appeal	contribution	noise	sound
attempt	effort	point	speech
change	enquiry	progress	start
charge	impression	recovery	success

Theoretical/descriptive linguists drawing on the COBUILD Bank of English use it as a basis for making statements about how words are combined that go beyond syntactic generalizations. For example, faced with a sentence such as *The bushes and trees were blowing in the wind, but the rain had stopped*, a syntactician would wish to analyse it in terms of finite clauses, noun phrases and verb phrases; the collocationally oriented corpus linguist, on the other hand, would be inclined to look at the whole range of instances in the data bank in which combinations like blow-wind, rain-stop occurred in order to be able to comment on the lexical frame 'SOMETHING blowing in the wind' (which, as it turns out, is a great deal more likely to occur than the lexical frame 'the wind blowing SOMETHING') or to be able to note that rain followed by stop is much more typical than rain followed by end.

Some further electronic English-language corpora which are frequently referred to in the lexicological literature, and which to a great extent have been used in collocational research, are mentioned below. We shall be revisiting some of them, as well as the COBUILD corpus, when we return to the topic of dictionary-making.

- the Brown Corpus (Brown University Standard Corpus of Present-Day American English), started in 1961, comprising one million words of written American English;

- the LOB Corpus (London, Oslo, Bergen Corpus), compiled between 1970 and 1978, involving the collaboration of the University of Lancaster, the University of Oslo and the Norwegian Computing Centre for the Humanities at Bergen, comprising one million words of written British English;

- the London-Lund Corpus, available since 1987, based mostly on the University of Lund's Survey of Spoken English (1975), which in turn was mostly based on the (non-computerized) Survey of English Usage compiled at University College London (1959), comprising approximately half a million words of spoken English;

- the Longman-Lancaster Corpus, dating from 1996, comprising 30 million words of spoken and written English from British and American sources;

- the JBNC (British National Corpus], compiled between 1991 and 1995, involving collaboration between Oxford University Press, Longman Chambers Harrap, the University of Lancaster, the British Library and Oxford University Computing Service, comprising 90 million words of written British English and 10 million words of spoken British English;

- the CIC (Cambridge International Corpus-formerly known as the Cambridge Language Survey), available since 1996, an initiative of Cambridge University Press, comprising 95 million words of written English (the spoken language annexe of CIC, compiled in collaboration with the University of Nottingham and comprising five million words, is known as the CANCODE-Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English).

### **Creativity and prefabrication in language use**

Linguists have put a good deal of emphasis in the last three or four decades on what Noam Chomsky calls the 'creative' dimension of language use – on the fact that knowledge of a language enables one to 'understand an indefinite number of expressions that are new to one's experience ... and ... to produce such expressions'. While it is undoubtedly true that we can and do use language innovatively and open-endedly in precisely the way Chomsky suggests, it certainly is not the case that our use of language is exclusively 'creative' in this sense. Large numbers of these sequences of words that we deploy and encounter in every day speech and writing are clearly combinations that we have available to us as more or less prefabricated chunks such combinations ranging from fixed idiomatic expressions like cats and dogs (= 'hard' as in It's raining cats and dogs) to 'semi-fixed' combinations such as to know one's onions/stuff and to know/be up to all the tricks. An analysis of authentic data in preparation for the Oxford Dictionary of current idiomatic English, for example, yielded literally thousands of such stable multi-word units. Similarly, it has been estimated that the Oxford Dictionary of phrasal verbs and the Oxford Dictionary of English idioms between them contain some 15,000 multi-word expressions. There is also psycholinguistic evidence to suggest that fixed expressions and formulas have an important economizing role in speech production; that is to say that they enable us to produce speech which is very much more fluent than it would be if we had to start from scratch and build up piece by piece every expression and every structure we use.

This notion has been taken a stage further by Sinclair, on the basis of his experience with the COBUILD data, and developed into the so-called 'idiom principle'. (The term idiom is used here with a much broader application than in 4.3, where mention was made of its more usual usage as a label for fixed expressions with meanings that cannot be deduced from the meanings of their component parts). The idiom principle states that, when we are putting together phrases in a language we know, although it may look as if we are operating on the basis of open choice at every stage (the only constraints being that what we produce has to be broadly grammatical and make sense), what we are doing most of the time is drawing on our knowledge of pre-constructed or semi-preconstructed phrases that constitute single choices, varying lexical content within the chosen patterns to a fairly limited extent. Why we do this, rather than going through the process of constructing new phrases out of individual words every time, may, says Sinclair, have to do with our capitalization on the fact that similar situations recur in life and tend to be referred to in similar ways; it may have to do with the fact that we in any case prefer to economize on effort whenever possible; and/or it may have to do with the fact that the demands made on us by the extreme rapidity of speech production are such that we have to exploit every opportunity to make savings on processing time. Some examples of the kind of thing Sinclair has in mind are:

•the phrase *set eyes on*, which usually has a pronoun subject and which is usually associated with either never or an expression such as *the moment*, *the first time* - as in *I've never set eyes on him*; The first time he set eyes on her he knew he would always love her etc.;

•the phrasal verb *set about*, which (in the sense of 'begin') tends to be associated with a following (usually transitive) verb in the *-ing* form - as in *We set about packing our bags*; *Bill finally set about earning some real money* etc.;

•the verb *happen*, which tends to occur in a particular kind of semantic environment - one where unpleasant occurrences, such as accidents, are being referred to - as in *No one knew how the catastrophe has happened*; *Such appalling events can never be allowed to happen again* etc.

What are the implications of collocational patterning for our conception of the lexicon and in particular for our understanding of what constitutes a lexical unit? If the lexicon represents that part of our knowledge of language that revolves around words, then, clearly, collocations have to be seen as included in the lexicon. It is obvious from all that has been said that we need to know about collocational patterns in order to function smoothly in lexical terms in either our mother tongue or any other language we may know. Anyone listening to news reports in English about recent military conflicts, for example, who did not know the terrible meanings that emerge when ethnic '*keeps company*' with cleansing, collateral with damage or friendly with fire would be deeply mystified by what they heard. Similarly, and on a lighter note, anyone trying to express great excitement and pleasure in English who used a combination such as *I'm on top of the moon* (rather than *I'm on top of the world* or *I'm over the moon*) would certainly run the risk of incomprehension.

With regard to defining the lexical unit, one approach is to take the word as the typical lexical unit and to say that a group of words can be considered as a lexical unit only if its meaning is associated with the group as a whole rather than a sum of the individual meanings of the constituent words. According to this view *black* is a lexical unit; so is *black bird* (as opposed to *black bird*), since *black bird* denotes a particular species of bird (*turdusmerula*) rather than just a bird of a particular colour; and so is *in black and white* (as in *He wants it in black and white*), since the meaning of this whole expression ('written', 'in writing') can not be arrived at simply by combining the normal meanings of the individual items out of which it is formed. There are at least two possible objections to this approach. On the one hand, the issue of semantic transparency or opacity in relation to multi-word expressions (i.e. whether or not the meaning of an expression can or cannot be seen as a straightforward composite of its component words) is somewhat problematic. It is not the case that multi-word expressions are either self-evidently transparent or self-evidently opaque. There are degrees of opacity. Thus, *black bird* is less opaque than *ladybird* (which in many varieties of English is the word used for the insect that in American English is called *lady bug*); and *ladybird* (given that ladybirds do at least fly like birds!) is less opaque than *strictly for the birds* (= 'trivial', 'uninteresting'). Even many apparently transparent examples like *fish and chips* turn out on closer inspection to have opaque aspects; thus, in order to qualify to be described as *fish and chips* a culinary product has to involve one of a particular range of types of fish (*sardine*, *trout* or *tuna* will not do) and has to have been cooked and presented in a particular way.

Another problem is that using a purely semantic criterion is a rather narrow way of looking at the matter. It leaves out of account the question of whether in the use of a particular expression - whatever its degree of semantic opacity - the individual words are selected and are perceived to function singly or together. For example, the following expressions are all relatively

transparent, but there is little doubt that they are selected and understood as wholes rather than being processed in a word by word manner.

*Midnight / good-natured / diesel engine / bread and butter / say it with flowers*

As we have seen, it has been suggested that most of our use of language relies on the exploitation of collections of words that to a greater or lesser extent function together as entire packages. Whether or not this is true, it does seem clear that groups of words which are transparent in their meaning may nevertheless operate as units. To sum up, even a conservative approach to the question of what counts as a lexical unit based on a criterion of semantic unitariness has to concede that there are lexical units which consist of more than one word. An approach which makes reference to the broader issue of the selection and perception of multi-word expressions as wholes (whatever their degree of semantic transparency/opacity) yields the conclusion that many multi-word expressions which are semantically transparent are none the less to be seen as lexical units.

#### Summary

This lesson looked at the commonly observed fact that certain words habitually 'keep company with certain other words. It showed that a particular word may have a wider or more restricted collocational range, that is, enter into frequent partnership with a greater or lesser quantity and variety of other words; it explored the relationship between compound words and fixed expressions, concluding that there was no hard and fast way of distinguishing between these two categories of collocation; it touched on collocational description in traditional lexicography; it discussed the way in which collocational research has been enhanced by the advent of electronic corpora; it reported on evidence from corpus-based research that language users incorporate very large numbers of preconstructed and semi-preconstructed multi-word expressions into their speech, and noted a suggestion that most language use relies on sequences of words that are to a greater or lesser extent prefabricated; and, finally, it examined the implications of the results of collocational research for our understanding of the nature of lexical units.

#### Focusing questions / topics for discussion

1. At the beginning of the lesson some clichés commonly used in journalism were mentioned (breaking news, law and order etc.). Try to think of five more such clichés in English and also try to think of one or two in any other language you know.

2. In 4.2 we looked at the notion of collocational range, comparing the very wide collocational ranges of nice with the very restricted collocational range of addled. Consider the following words and try to categorize them likewise according to their collocational range—that is to say, into items with very wide collocational ranges and items with much more restricted ranges. In each case give examples of collocations in which they occur.

<i>big</i>	<i>bright</i>	<i>centrifugal</i>	<i>improper</i>
<i>loud</i>	<i>premeditated</i>	<i>rancid</i>	<i>right</i>
<i>sad</i>	<i>short</i>	<i>trenchant</i>	<i>unwarranted</i>

3. In our discussion of fixed expressions and compound words in 4.3 we noted that some compounds and fixed expressions are semantically transparent (i.e. have meanings which are essentially combinations of the meanings of their component parts) and that others are semantically opaque (i.e. have meanings which are not simply sums of the meanings of their component parts). Consider the following compounds and fixed expressions and try to decide which are semantically transparent and which are semantically opaque. In the case of those



which are semantically opaque demonstrate their opacity by providing definitions of their meanings.

Air circulation system	eye strain	to pop off
Airhead	to see eye to eye	to pop the question
Blue skies	foxglove	to look on the sunny side
Blue language	to go fox-hunting	sun-dried
A weekend in the country	Good grief!	To sing out of tune
Country music grievous	bodily harm	he who pays the piper calls the tune

4. In 4.4 we saw some examples of the way in which information about collocational patterns have been incorporated into traditional dictionary entries. Imagine you are writing dictionary entries for the following words and decide what kind of collocational information and examples you would include in these cases.

*day all fire high middle rat spirit tell twist way*

5. It seems that some kinds of writing are full of well-worn expressions and phrases, while others are characterized by a relative absence of frequent collocations. Horoscopes tend to fall into the former category and poetry into the latter. Have a look at some horoscopes and some poems and try to decide why the writers of these texts took the approach they did in relation to the use of collocations.

## Lesson 12

<b>Theme: Lexical varieties (e.g. autumn (BrE) – fall (AmE))</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of collocations 2. to understand how Synonymy and antonym of collocations are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be ablt to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques

<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 12

<b>Activities and time management</b>	<b>The plot of the action</b>	
	<b>Teacher</b>	<b>student</b>
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women?</li> <li>• Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them?</li> </ul> 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

English in the USA differs considerably from British English. Pronunciation is the most striking difference but there are also a number of differences in vocabulary and spelling as well as slight differences in grammar. On the whole, British people are exposed to a lot of American English on TV, in films and so on and so they will usually understand most American vocabulary.

American spelling is usually simpler. For example, British English words ending in *-our* and *-re*, end in *-or* and *-er* in American English, e.g. colour/color, centre/center. There are differences in individual words too, e.g. British 'plough' becomes 'plow'. The American spelling usually tries to correspond more closely to pronunciation.

Here are some common US words with their British equivalents.

Travel and on the street		In the home	
<i>American English</i>	<i>British English</i>	<i>American English</i>	<i>British English</i>
gasoline	petrol	antenna	aerial
truck	lorry	elevator	lift
baggage	luggage	eraser	rubber
blow-out	puncture	apartment	flat
sidewalk	pavement	closet	wardrobe
line	queue	drapes	curtains
vacation	holiday	faucet	tap
trunk (of car)	boot	kerosene	paraffin
hood (of car)	bonnet	Scotch tape	sellotape
cab	taxi	yard	garden
freeway	motorway	cookie	biscuit
round trip	return	candy	sweets
railway car	railway carriage	garbage	rubbish
engineer (on train)	engine driver	diaper	nappy
baby carriage	pram	panti-hose	tights

*Note also: the fall = autumn semester = term [semester is becoming common in Britain.]*

Here are some words and phrases which can cause confusion when used by Brits and Americans talking together because they mean something different in each 'language'.

<i>when they say:</i>	<i>an American means what a Brit calls:</i>	<i>and a Brit means what an American calls:</i>
a bill	a (bank) note	a check (in a café)
the first floor	the ground floor	the second floor
pants	trousers	underpants
potato chips	potato crisps	french fries
purse	a handbag	a wallet
subway	an underground railway	an underpass
vest	a waistcoat	an undershirt
wash up	wash your hands	wash the dishes

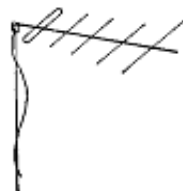
## Exercises

If you saw words spelt in the following way would you expect the writer in each case to be British or American? Why?

1 labor 2 centre 3 hospitalized 4 movie theater 5 favour 6 thru

What are (a) the American and (b) the British words for the following things?

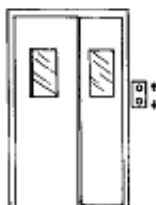
1



2



3



4



5



6



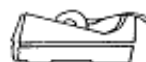
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8



9



10



You are going on holiday to the States. Which of the words listed in B and C opposite do you think it would be most important for you to know? Which of the words would a person travelling with a baby might well need to know?

Translate the following into British English.

- |                         |                              |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1 I had a blow-out.     | 6 It's in the trunk.         |
| 2 Pass me the cookies.  | 7 One-way or round trip?     |
| 3 It's in the closet.   | 8 He left the faucet on.     |
| 4 Open the drapes.      | 9 We're leaving in the fall. |
| 5 We've run out of gas. | 10 I hate waiting in line.   |

Can you avoid some of the most common confusions arising between British and American speakers? Try the following quiz.

- 1 Where would you take (a) an American visitor (b) a British visitor who said they wanted to wash up – the kitchen or the bathroom?
- 2 Would (a) an American (b) a Brit be expected to get something hot or something cold if they asked for some potato chips?
- 3 Which would surprise you more – an American or a British man telling you that he wanted to go and change his pants?
- 4 You have just come into an unknown office block. If (a) an American (b) a Brit says that the office you need is on the second floor, how many flights of stairs do you need to climb?
- 5 If (a) an American (b) a Brit asks for a bill, is he or she more likely to be in a bank or a café?

Do you know any other examples of American English? Make a list at an appropriate place in your vocabulary notebook or file.

## Other Englishes

US or American English (see Unit 93) is not the only special variety of English. Each area of the English-speaking world has developed its own special characteristics. This is usually mainly a matter of vocabulary and pronunciation. This unit just gives you a small taste of some of the different varieties of English by drawing your attention to vocabulary used in various English-speaking regions. All the words covered in this unit would be understood by educated native speakers of British English although they might not choose to use them themselves. They are all words which you may come across in your own reading, listening or viewing.

Australian English is particularly interesting for its rich store of highly colloquial words and expressions. Australian colloquialisms often involve shortening a word. Sometimes the ending '-ie' or '-o' is then added, e.g. a **smoko** (from smoking), is a 'tea or coffee break' and a **milko** delivers the milk; **beaut**, short for 'beautiful' means 'great'. Because of the current popularity of Australian TV programmes and films, some of these words are now being used by British people too.

Indian English, on the other hand, is characterised by sounding more formal than British English. It has retained in everyday usage words that are found more in the classics of nineteenth century literature than in contemporary TV programmes from London, e.g. The bereaved are **condoled** and the Prime Minister is **felicitated** on his or her birthday. An Indian might complain of a pain in his **bosom** (rather than his chest) and an Indian bandit is referred to as a **miscreant**.

Scottish English uses a number of special dialect words. Some of the more common of these are worth learning.

<b>aye</b> : yes	<b>loch</b> : lake	<b>dreich</b> : dull
<b>ben</b> : mountain	<b>to mind</b> : to remember	<b>janitor</b> : caretaker
<b>brae</b> : bank (of river)	<b>bairn</b> : child	<b>lassie</b> : girl
<b>dram</b> : drink (usually whisky)	<b>bonny</b> : beautiful	<b>outwith</b> : outside
<b>glen</b> : valley	<b>burn</b> : stream	<b>wee</b> : small
<b>kirk</b> : church	<b>stay</b> : live	<b>ken</b> : know

Black English is the term used to refer to the English which originated in the Caribbean islands and has now spread to many parts of the UK, Canada and the USA. Listed below are some words which are characteristic of Black English but are also now used in other varieties of English. Many are particularly associated with the music world.

<b>dreadlocks</b> : Rastafarian hairstyle	<b>beat</b> : exhausted
<b>chick</b> : girl	<b>dig</b> : understand
<b>jam</b> : improvise	<b>pad</b> : bed
<b>rap</b> : street-talk	<b>square</b> : dull

## Exercises

What do you think these examples of Australian colloquialisms mean? They are all formed by abbreviating an English word which you probably know.

- 1 Where did you go when you were in Oz?
- 2 She wants to be a journo when she leaves uni.
- 3 We got terribly bitten by mozzies at yesterday's barbie.
- 4 He's planning to do a bit of farming bizzo while he's in the States.
- 5 What are you doing this arvo?
- 6 We decided to have a party as the oldies had gone away for the weekend.

The words on the left are more common in Indian English than British English. The words on the right are the equivalent words more frequently used in British English. Match the Indian word with its British English equivalent.

- |                                    |                        |
|------------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 abscond                          | catch (e.g. by police) |
| 2 nab                              | man who annoys girls   |
| 3 bag (i.e. a seat in an election) | plimsolls, sneakers    |
| 4 Eve-teaser                       | underwear              |
| 5 the common man                   | flee                   |
| 6 fleetfoots                       | people awaiting trial  |
| 7 undertrials                      | the general public     |
| 8 wearunders                       | capture/obtain         |

Below you have some statements made by a Scot. Answer the questions about them.

- 1 Mary had a bonny wee lassie last night.  
What happened to Mary yesterday?
- 2 They stay next to the kirk.  
What noise is likely to wake them on Sunday mornings?
- 3 It's a bit dreich today.  
Is it good weather for a picnic?
- 4 He's got a new job as janitor at the school.  
What kind of duties will he have?
- 5 Would you like a wee dram?  
If you say 'yes', what will you get?
- 6 'Are you coming, Jim?' 'Aye'.  
Is Jim coming or isn't he?
- 7 They have a wonderful view of the loch from their window.  
What can they see from the window?

Answer the following questions relating to Black English.

- 1 Would you be pleased to be called square?
- 2 What does hair that is in dreads look like?
- 3 When might you feel dead beat?
- 4 If musicians have a jam session, what do they do?

### Lesson 13

<b>Theme: Use of resources for exploring use of vocabulary in context</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of exploring use of vocabulary in context 2. to understand how Synonymy and antonym of collocations are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 13

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them? 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions.

<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>		2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

It is quite obvious to any user of any language that there is an intimate connection between the lexicon and meaning. A brief glance at the following two brief passages – which are identical but for one word – will persuade anyone who needs convincing just how much difference to the meaning of an entire stretch of language a single word can make.

*The interrogating officer moved closer to the prisoner.*

*'Let's see how you like this', he said.*

*He then hit the prisoner with a truly vicious question.*

*The interrogating officer moved closer to the prisoner.*

*'Let's see how you like this', he said.*

*He then hit the prisoner with a truly vicious truncheon.*

Of course, the use of different sequences of words does not always yield vastly different overall meanings. Indeed, the English expression in other words normally introduces a phrase or a sentence which is differently formulated from but similar in meaning to what went before it, for example:

*I worship the ground you stand on, dearest Patricia. I bless the day that you were born, and I rejoice in every breath you take. In other words, sweet Patty, I love you.*

Usually, in such cases, as in the above example, some kind of summary of the preceding material is involved. There is also the fact that individual words may resemble each other semantically to the point where they are synonymous, i.e. can replace each other in some contexts without any noticeable change in meaning being involved, for example:

*They stumbled into the sitting room and collapsed onto the couch.*

*They stumbled into the sitting room and collapsed onto the sofa.*

*The questions on this paper were too hard for us to answer.*

*The questions on this paper were too difficult for us to answer.*

*Josie and I are the best of pals now.*

*Josie and I are the best of friends now.*

However, it is generally true to say that the meaning of what we say or write is carried to a very large extent by the words that we choose, and that changing words more often than not changes meanings, for example:



*Sue lives up North, well in the Midlands really, not too far from Leicester.  
It says here in the paper that he lived off 'immortal earnings'. I suppose they mean  
'immoral'.  
I used to jog around the park, but now I just walk!*

In what follows we shall explore some of the ways in which linguists have tried to come to grips with the relationship between words and meaning. We shall start by looking at the notion that lexical meaning is essentially about expressions being applied to objects, places, people, attributes, states, actions, processes etc. in the 'real world'. We shall then consider that dimension of meaning which has to do with relations between words. Our next port of call will be the suggestion that the meaning of any given word can be analysed in to a set of sense components. Finally, we shall examine some 'cognitive' approaches to word meaning-that is, approaches which are based on the idea that the ways in which linguistic meanings are constructed and organized come out of our experience of the world and our perception and processing of that experience.

### **Meaning seen as reference or denotation**

It is self-evident that language conveys meaning partly by as it were pointing to various kinds of phenomena in the 'real world'. In fact, physically pointing to something can often perform the same function as naming it. For example, if I am in the queue for lunch in the university canteen, and, on reaching the servery, I am asked for my order, I may say 'The egg curry please', or I may point to the steaming concoction in question, or I may do both. When a linguistic expression 'points' in this way in a particular context to a specific entity, attribute, state, process etc., linguists talk about an act of reference, the phenomenon thus identified being labelled as the referent.

There is another way in which linguistic expressions can be applied to 'real world' phenomena. Instead of picking out a specific phenomenon in a particular context, an expression may identify a whole class of phenomena.

For instance, in the following sentence the expression the wolf does not refer to one particular wolf but to an entire category of mammals.

*The wolf is a much misunderstood animal.*

Similarly with baked beans and Sunday night in the sentences below.

*Even though they taste nice, baked beans are actually quite good for you.*

*Sunday night is as quiet as the grave around these parts.*

Many linguists call this kind of meaning denotation, labelling the class of entities to which an expression is applied as its denotatum (plural:denotata). (However, it should be noted that the terms refer, reference and referent are often used in a broad sense to cover both reference as defined earlier and denotation.)

Traditionally, language has been seen as communicating meanings via concepts constructed out of our experience of the relevant denotata. On this view, each linguistic form is associated with a concept, and each concept is the mental representation of a phenomenon in the 'real world'. This notion is sometimes represented diagrammatically as shown in Figure 1.

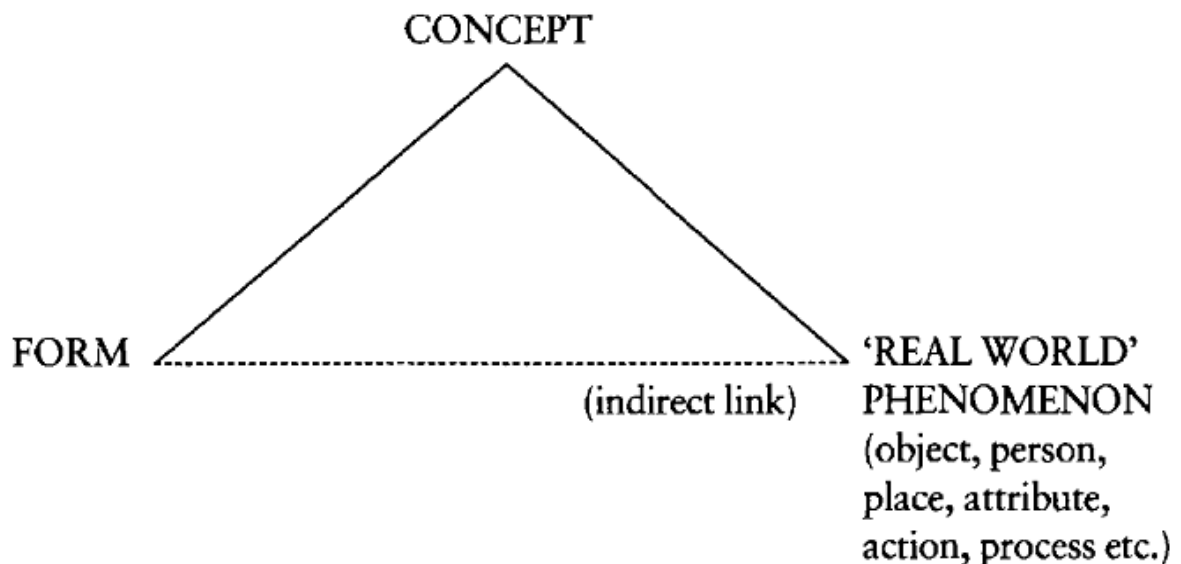


Figure 1. Linguistic forms associated with 'real world' phenomena

One difficulty with this kind of representation is that, in implying that each particular form is uniquely associated with a single particular concept, it fails to provide any account of cases where more than one expression is associated with a single meaning or of cases where a single expression is associated with a more than one meaning (see below) and there is also the problem that this whole approach leads to an 'atomistic' view of semantics which treats each form and its meaning as isolated and self-contained.

There are other reasons too for taking away approach to the notion that meaning is only about expressions being applied to 'real world' phenomena, whether referentially or denotatively. For one thing, there are words whose meanings imply cannot be accounted for in this way – words like *if*, *and*, *should*, *nevertheless*. All of these items have meaning, but certainly not by virtue of identifying observable phenomena or classes of phenomena in the 'real world'. There are also expressions that relate to phenomena which do not exist – *mermaid*, *tooth-fairy*, *unicorn* etc. Can we say that such expressions have no meaning just because they have no corresponding denotata in the 'real world'? Certainly not.

Also worth noting is that two (or more) expressions may be applied to exactly the same phenomenon and yet have different meanings. The classic example of this is the designation of the planet Venus as both the *Morning Star* and the *Evening Star* (because – owing to its brightness – Venus is still visible at dawn and already visible at dusk). The expressions *Morning Star* and *Evening Star* clearly have different meanings, and yet they are applied to precisely the same object. Some further illustrations of expressions with different meanings being applied to the same phenomenon follow.

*The Lion heart* → *half-empty* → *to tell lies*

*King Richard I of England* → *half-full* → *to be economical with the truth*

### **Structuralist perspectives on meaning**

Much of the discussion in previous chapters has been concerned with structure of various kinds – sentence - structure, the internal structure of words, sound – structure etc. This is very much the hallmark of the whole approach to language taken by modern linguistics, which is usually taken to date from the work of the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, the generally

recognized 'founding father' of what became known as structuralism. According to the structuralist conception, in the words of the British linguist John Lyons, 'every language is cut to a unique pattern', and the units of a given language' can be identified only in terms of the irrelationships with other units in the same language'. What this view implies in respect of lexical meanings is that it has to be seen in the light of relations between expressions in the same language system.

This is not to say that structuralism denies the relationship between linguistic forms and phenomena in the 'real world'. It does, however, insist that this relationship is only part of the story. Saussure draws an analogy in this connection with monetary systems. Just as the value of a given coin (e.g. five francs) is based, he says, both on the kinds of goods it will buy and on its relationship with other coins in the same system (e.g. one franc), so, says Saussure, the 'value' of a linguistic unit derives both from the concepts for which it may be 'exchanged' and from its set of relationships with other words in the language.

The first manifestation of structuralist semantics was lexical field theory. This is an approach based on the idea that it is possible to identify within the vocabulary of a language particular sets of expressions (lexical fields) covering particular areas of meaning (semantic fields) where the lexical organization is such that the relevant lexical units precisely mark out each other's territory, so to speak. One of the early exponents of lexical field theory, Jost Trier, wrote in terms of 'a net of words' cast over meaning 'in order to capture and organize it and have it in demarcated concepts'. A much-cited example of a semantic field is that of colour. Colour is an undifferentiated continuum in nature; it is organized into red, orange, yellow, green etc. by the words which are used to identify particular areas of the spectrum. Moreover, different languages divide up colour differently. For example, Russian recognizes two colours in the blue range where English recognizes only one; the words Russian *goluboj* and *sinij* – which are customarily translated as 'light blue' and 'dark blue' respectively – are in fact understood as identifying quite distinct colours, not different varieties of the same colour.

The fact that lexical field theory talked so much about concepts was, however, off-putting for some structuralist linguists, especially North American structuralists who took their inspiration from the work of the American linguist Leonard Bloomfield. Bloomfield was determined to see linguistics recognized as a fully-fledged science and so he and his followers were interested only in those areas of language which were amenable to rigorous objective analysis. Meaning, defined in terms of unobservable concepts, did not come into that category as far as the Bloomfieldians were concerned, and they saw the scientifically accurate definition of meaning in terms of the 'real world' phenomena to which words were applied as being possible for only a minority of expressions. Bloomfield claimed, for example, that defining the names of minerals was relatively straightforward thanks to the resources made available by chemistry and mineralogy; the problems arose in the cases of words like love or hate, 'which concern situations that have not been accurately classified', these latter being 'in the great majority'.

This is a very limited and naïve view of meaning. On the other hand, the dependence of lexical field theory on the notion of conceptually defined semantic fields is undoubtedly a weakness. There are certainly some areas of meaning-like colour, the human body etc. – which have a clearly identifiable objective reality which can be detached from other areas of meaning, but what about a semantic field such as the 'intellectual domain of meaning', on which Jost Trier did his pioneering work? For Trier the 'intellectual domain' covers a whole range of types of knowledge – scholarly, social, mystical, technical, aesthetic – but his definition of the domain is

essentially arbitrary; for some researchers the 'intellectual domain of meaning' might be much more narrowly defined, and for others it might be more broadly defined.

It was the above – mentioned British linguist, John Lyons, who found a widely acceptable way forward for a structuralist approach to lexical meaning. He acknowledges that aspect of meaning which derives from some expressions 'relationship with the world beyond language – their application in terms of reference and denotation as defined earlier. However, in common with Saussure and the lexical field theorists, Lyons also recognizes that the meaning of an individual expression crucially depends on the network of relations with other expressions into which it enters. This latter aspect of meaning Lyons labels sense, and his approach to the analysis of senses is such that it does not require the prior identification of a conceptual area or semantic field; the lexical field or subsystem in this perspective is defined in terms of the observable relations between lexical expressions with in particular contexts.

This last point about context needs emphasizing because of the fact that a given expression may have more than one meaning. For example, the word mouth may refer to a facial feature in some contexts (e.g. He has rather a small mouth) and to a geographical feature in other (e.g. The mouth of this river is difficult to navigate). Where the meanings attached to a given form are clearly connected in this kind of way, linguists are happy to regard them as meanings of the same word and to talk about multiple meaning or polysemy. There are, however, other cases where a particular form is associated with more than one meaning and the meanings in question are totally unrelated (e.g. bank denoting a financial institution and bank denoting the edge of a river, canal etc.). In this sort of instance, linguists consider that two distinct words are involved which simply happen to coincide formally, the term used to signify this situation being homonymy. Homonyms may be completely identical – as in bank -bank; they may be identical only at the phonological level – as in meet – meat (in which case they are called homophones); or they may be identical only at the orthographic level – as in row /rau/ = 'propel a boat using oars' and row /rau / = 'quarrel' - (in which case they are called homographs). Unfortunately, it is not necessarily always crystal – clear in specific instances whether polysemy or homonymy is involved.

With regard to the kinds of relations Lyons has in mind, he distinguishes between those which are paradigmatic (or substitutional) in nature and those which are syntagmatic (or combinatorial). Paradigmatic relations are defined as those which hold 'between intersubstitutable members of the same grammatical category', and syntagmatic relations are defined as those which hold 'typically, though not necessarily, between expressions of different grammatical categories (e.g. between nouns and adjectives, between verbs and adverbs etc.), which can be put together in grammatically well formed combinations (or constructions)'. Syntagmatic sense – relations are clearly one aspect of the colligational and collocational dimensions of the lexicon, which have already been discussed. For example, the fact that the adjective rancid combines with only a limited range of nouns (butter, lard, oil etc.) can be seen as a set of semantic relationships, since the meanings of the nouns in question are clearly the determining factor. As far as paradigmatic relations are concerned, Lyons focuses on synonymy, hyponymy and incompatibility, which he defines and demonstrates in terms of logical relations between sentences, or meaning postulates. The two important logical notions that Lyons uses in his approach are those of entailment and negation. One sentence entails another sentence in a given context if the one necessarily implies the other (e.g. I am a man entails I am a human being where the two I's refer to the same individual. One sentence negates another in a given context if

the one necessarily denies the truth of the other (e.g. I am a man negates I am a centipede where the two Is refer to the same individual).

### Lesson 14.

<b>Theme: Word fields (words relating to the topic)</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of collocations 2. to understand how Synonymy and antonym of collocations are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms; To get information from the texts;	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 14

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them? 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three

<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>		subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.
<b>The end of the lesson (15-min)</b>	3.1 Read the extracts and say if the particular speech act has beginning, middle and end, if it has identify them all? What type of speech acts it refers to? Can you guess the context where the exchanges happen and who are the participants? What clues did it help you to predict correctly?	3.1 Students make examples for each new items and reads them. 3.2. Students listen and write homework tasks. 3.3 Students get marks and may ask some questions about their marks and express complaints.

### Synonymy

There lation of synonymy has already been briefly mentioned in 5.1. It is defined by Lyons in terms of minimally different sentences entailing each other. Where two or more sentences entail each other and differ by only one expression, the distinguishing expressions are taken to be synonymous. For example, the following sentences all entail each other.

- Ethelred the Unready died in 1016.
- Ethelred the Unready expired in 1016.
- Ethelred the Unready passed a way in 1016.
- Ethelred the Unready popped off in 1016.
- Ethelred the Unready kicked the bucket in 1016.
- Ethelred the Unready snuffed it in 1016.
- Ethelred the Unready went to barry picking in 1016.

They differ by only the expressions underlined, and so, according to the terms of the above definition, all of the seexpressions are synonymous. The above examples illustrate two further points which are relevant to the rest of the discussion of lexical relations. The first is that such relations can hold between individual words (e.g. die, expire), between individual words and multi-word expressions (e.g. die, snuff it) and between multi-word expressions (pass away, kick the bucket). The second point is that it is not a condition for the establishment of a particular semantic relation that it should hold in all contexts. For example, there are instances where the expression kick the bucket is interpreted literally, as in: *The window –cleaner tripped and kicked the bucket which was standing at the bottom of his ladder, spilling water all over the pavement.* Obviously, this last sentence does not entail The window-cleaner tripped and expired which was standing at the bottom of his ladder, spilling water all over the pavement; accordingly, in this contex tkick the bucket is not synonymous with expire, die, pass away etc.

Issues of contextual appropriacy also arise: the contexts in which we might use snuff it in the above sense would tend not to be the same as those in which we would use expire. For these reasons, statements about semantic relations between lexical expressions always have to take context into consideration.

Two further examples of sets of synonyms are set out and illustrated below. Aid, assistance, help

*The crisis can not be solved without the **aid** of the international community.*

*The crisis can not be solved without the **assistance** of the international community.*

*The crisis can not be solved without the **help** of the international community.*

Fast, quickly, speedily, swiftly

*He was travelling so **fast** that everything around him became a blur.*

*He was travelling so **quickly** that everything around him became a blur.*

*He was travelling so **speedily** that everything around him became a blur.*

*He was travelling so **swiftly** that everything around him became a blur.*

### Hyponymy

Hyponymy, the relation between more specific (hyponymous) terms (e.g. spaniel) and less specific (superordinate) terms (e.g. dog) is defined in terms of one-way rather than two-way entailment. Thus I own a spaniel entails I own a dog, but I own a dog does not entail I own a spaniel. Hyponymous relations can be represented as inverted tree diagrams in which the lower inter sections or nodes represent terms which are hyponymous to the ones above them, and these latter in turn are hyponymous to the ones above them. Thus in the (incomplete) Figure 2 below cocker spaniel is hyponymous to spaniel, which is in turn hyponymous to dog, which is in turn hyponymous to mammal, which is in turn hyponymous to animal. Another characteristic of hyponymy is that it is what semanticists call transitive, in the sense that the relation can be seen as 'intransit' all the way along the line, so that if X is hyponymous to Y and Y is hyponymous to Z then X is hyponymous to Z. Thus, cocker spaniel is hyponymous not only to spaniel but also to dog, mammal and animal. Further examples of expressions in hyponymous-superordinate relationships are given below.

*Claret, wine, drink*

You'll find some **claret** on the table.

You'll find some **wine** on the table.

You'll find some **drink** on the table.

Claret is hyponymous to wine; wine is hyponymous to drink; and claret is also hyponymous to drink.

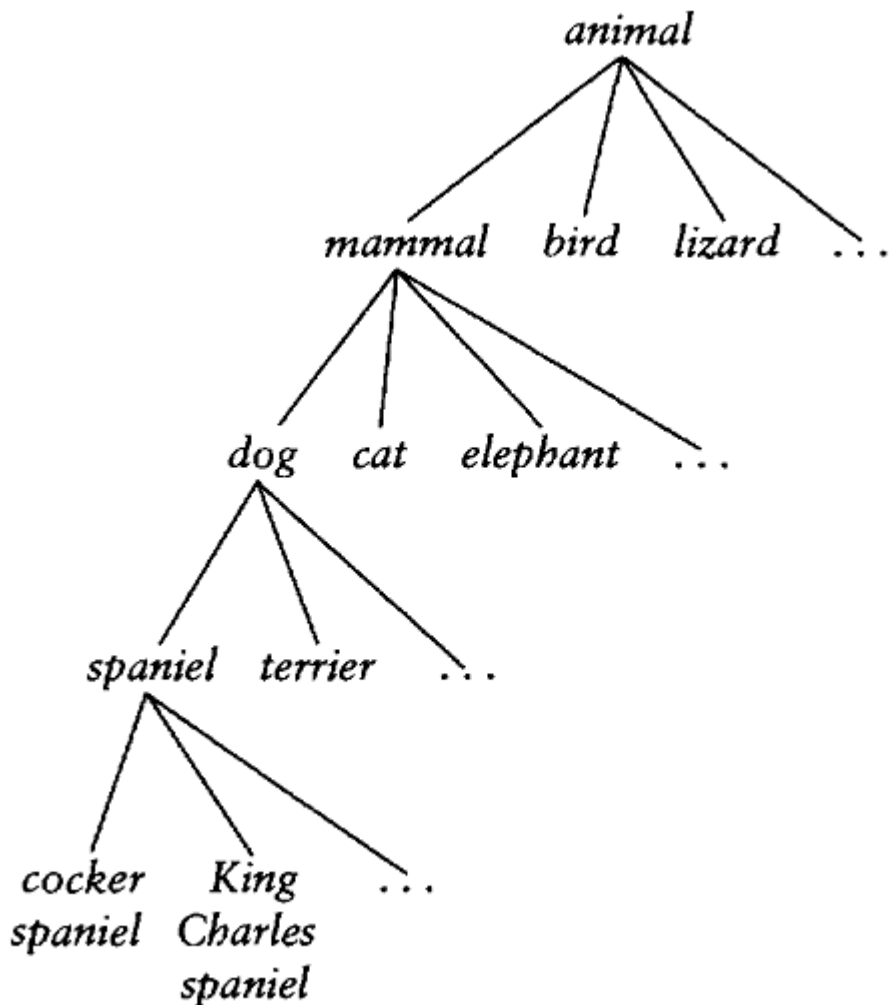
*Hatchback, car, vehicle*

*The firm bought him a new **hatchback**.*

*The firm bought him a new **car**.*

*The firm bought him a new **vehicle**.*

Hatchback is hyponymous to car; car is hyponymous to vehicle; and hatchback is also hyponymous to vehicle.



### Incompatibility

With regard to incompatibility, this can be defined in general terms, and also more specifically for particular types of incompatibility, namely, complementarity, polar antonymy and converseness. Incompatibility in general is simply defined in terms of negative entailment: *Johnny's shirt is pink* entails *Johnny's shirt is not green*; *Johnny's shirt is green* entails *Johnny's shirt is not pink*; and so pink and green can be taken to be incompatible. Similarly with:

Metal, wood	Plain, striped
The chair is entirely made of metal.	The tie I was wearing was plain.
The chair is entirely made of wood.	The tie I was wearing was striped.

### Complementarity

Turning now to particular subcategories of incompatibility, let us begin with the relation of complementarity (also known as simple antonymy or binary antonymy), which is a sort of 'one or the other' relation. In the case of complementarity not only does the assertion of one lexical item in a complementary pair (such as a live and dead) imply the denial of the other but the denial of the one implies the assertion of the other. Thus *Nessie is alive* entails *Nessie is not dead*, and *Nessie is not dead* entails *Nessie is alive*. Some further examples follow.

Pass, fail



Janet passed the exam.	Janet failed the exam.
Janet did not pass the exam.	Janet did not fail the exam.

Janet passed the exam entails Janet did not fail the exam; Janet failed the exam entails Janet did not pass the exam; Janet did not pass the exam entails Janet failed the exam; Janet did not fail the exam entails

Janet passed the exam.

True, false

What he says is true.

What he says is false.

What he says is not true.

What he says is not false.

What he says is true entails What he says is not false; What he says is false entails What he says is not true; What he says is not true entails What he says is false; What he says is not false entails What he says is true.

Polar antonymy

Polar antonymy (also known as gradable antonymy) differs from complementarity by virtue of the fact that the items in question are not in a 'one or the other' relationship but imply the possibility of gradations between them. The assertion of one of a pair of polar antonyms (e.g. rich and poor) implies the denial of the other, but the denial of the one does not necessarily imply the assertion of the other. Liz is rich entails Liz is not poor, and Liz is poor entails Liz is not rich. However, Liz is not poor does not entail Liz is rich, and Liz is not rich does not entail Liz is poor, since it is fairly easy to think of expressions identifying states somewhere between being rich and being poor (e.g. comfortably off) -, rich and poor are therefore said to be polar antonyms with respect to each other. Where polar antonyms are used there is always some kind of implicit or explicit standard or norm involved against which judgments are made and in the light of which qualities are attributed. For instance, the same person, let us say a teacher by the name of Rothschild, may be described as rich when compared with other members of his /her profession but poor when compared with other members of the Rothschild family. Whenever we use the terms rich, poor, comfortably off etc. we always have some kind of yardstick in mind on the basis of which we make the evaluations signaled by the words used. Similarly with the following examples.

Big, small

Tom's house is big.

Tom's house is not big.

Tom's house is small.

Tom's house is not small.

Tom's house is big entails Tom's house is not small, but Tom's house is not small does not entail Tom's house is big. Tom's house is small entails Tom's house is not big, but Tom's house is not big does not entail Tom's house is small. Intermediate terms between big and small exist, e.g. middle-sized.

Hot, cold

The water is hot.

The water is not hot.

The water is cold.

The water is not cold.

The water is hot entails The water is not cold, but The water is not cold does not entail The water is hot. The water is cold entails The water is not hot, but The water is not hot does not entail The water is cold. Intermediate terms between hot and cold exist, e.g. tepid.

#### Converseness

Finally under the heading of incompatibility, we come to converseness (otherwise known as relational oppositeness). This is the relation that holds between expressions in sentences (differing only in respect of the converse expressions in question) which imply the denial of each other but which, after particular kinds of syntactic permutation have been effected, actually entail each other: Fred lent the flat to Michael entails the denial of Fred borrowed the flat from Michael (an *adviceversa*), but Fred lent the flat to Michael entails and is entailed by Michael borrowed the flat from Fred, and so lend and borrow are taken to be converses of each other. Converseness is further exemplified below.

#### Buy, sell

Rick bought the car from Sarah.      Sarah bought the car from Rick.

Rick sold the car to Sarah.              Sarah sold the car to Rick.

Rick bought the car from Sarah entails the denial of Rick sold the car to Sarah (and vice versa). Sarah bought the car from Rick entails the denial of Sarah sold the car to Rick (and vice versa). Rick bought the car from Sarah entails Sarah sold the car to Rick (and vice versa). Rick sold the car to Sarah entails Sarah bought the car from Rick (and vice versa).

#### Husband, wife

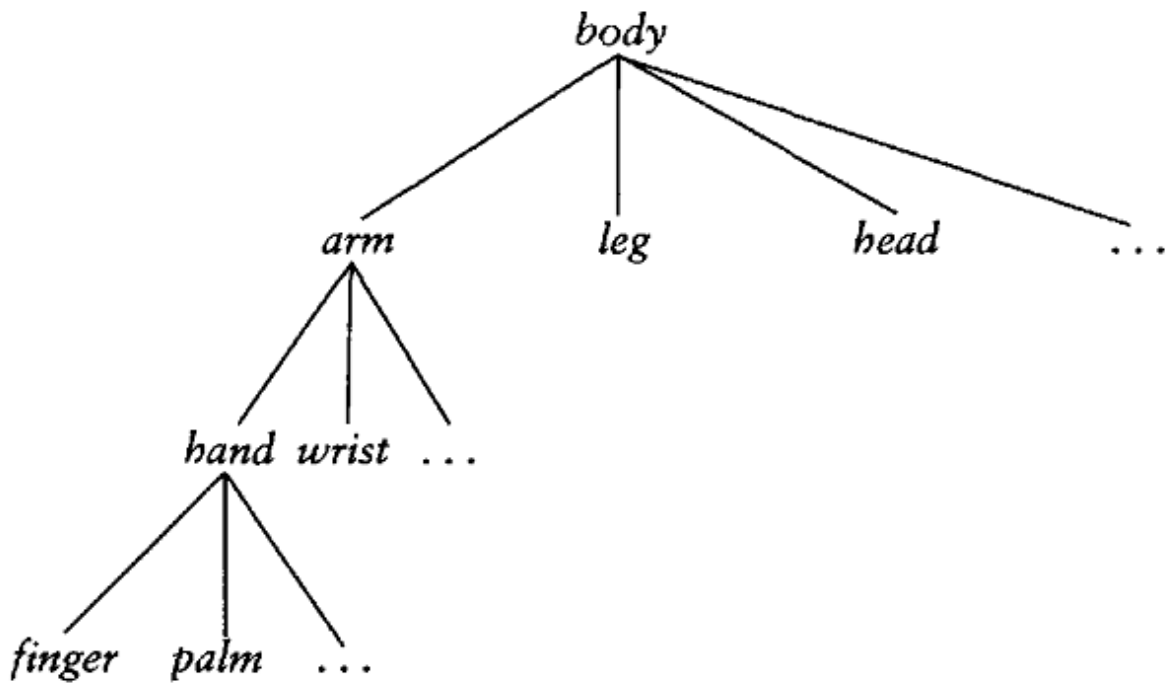
Hilary is Vivian's husband.      Hilary is Vivian's wife.

Vivian is Hilary's husband.      Vivian is Hilary's wife.

Hilary is Vivian's husband entails the denial of Hilary is Vivian's wife (and vice versa). Vivian is Hilary's husband entails the denial of Vivian is Hilary's wife (and vice versa). Hilary is Vivian's husband entails Vivian is Hilary's wife (and vice versa). Hilary is Vivian's wife entails Vivian is Hilary's husband (and vice versa).

#### Meronymy

A lexical relation not focused on particularly by Lyons but discussed at length by other lexical semanticists is that of meronymy. This relation covers part-whole connections. X is a meronym of Y if it can form the subject of the sentence An X is a part of a Y. Y in such a case is labelled a holonym of X. For example, finger is a meronym of hand, and hand is a holonym of finger on the basis of the way in which the two words feature in the sentence: A finger is a part of a hand. As in the case of hyponymy, it is possible to represent meronym-holonym relations in inverted tree diagrams, where meronymy is represented as the relationship between a lower node and a higher node. Thus, in the diagram on the next page (Figure 3), finger is a meronym of hand, which in turn is a meronym of arm, which in turn is a meronym of body. However, meronymy is not consistently transitive in the way that hyponymy is. For example, despite the fact that finger is a meronym of hand and hand is a meronym of arm, we might have some hesitation about the sentence A finger is a part of an arm.



**Figure 3. Meronymy**

Two further examples of meronym – holonym pairs follow.

Petal, flower

A petal is a part of a flower.

Petal is a meronym of flower. Flower is a holonym of petal.

Roof, house

A roof is a part of a house.

Roof is a meronym of house. House is a holonym of roof.

### Componential analysis

Some linguists have tried to take structuralist semantics a stage further by trying to analyse lexical meaning into components, otherwise labelled semantic markers or semantic features, which might underlie sense - relations. For example, in a componential analysis the relations between humanbeing, man, woman, boy, girl and lad might be accounted for in terms of plus or minus values attaching to the components HUMAN, MALE and ADULT. Thus:

Human being	man	woman	boy	girl	lad
+ HUMAN	+ HUMAN	+ HUMAN	+ HUMAN	+ HUMAN	+ HUMAN
	+ MALE	- MALE	+ MALE	- MALE	+ MALE
	+ADULT	+ADULT	-ADULT	-ADULT	-ADULT

In this perspective the synonymy between boy and lad would, for example, be seen as explicable in terms of the fact that their features and their feature values totally match (+HUMAN,+MALE,-ADULT); the hyponymy between man and human being would be seen as explicable in terms of the fact that man shares a feature and feature value (+HUMAN) with human being and, despite being endowed with other features besides, exhibits no feature-values

which are a touds with the componential profile of human being; and the incompatibility between man and woman would be seen as explicable in terms of the fact that the two words differ in terms of the respective values attached to the feature MALE. This approach to lexical meaning obviously has strong similarities to the traditional dictionary definition. For example, a typical dictionary definition of girl would be 'female child' (i.e.-MALE,-ADULT, in the above terms). Componential analysis has long been used in anthropological linguistics in, for example, studies of kinship terms, and it has also been associated with broadly Chomskyan perspectives, but it has also been favoured by semanticists without any specific research task preoccupations or theoretical predispositions.

Despite its apparently wide appeal, componential analysis has been subject to a fair amount of criticism. Perhaps most controversial has been the claim made by some linguists that the semantic components on which componential analysis is based are universal-in other words that they underlie the expression of meaning in all languages and cultures. This claim is undermined by the fact that even concepts which in common sense terms look as if they might be independent of particular cultures turn out on closer inspection not to be. For example, the feature MALE, which, in view of its association with a clear biological category, looks as if it might well be a candidate for universality, appears distinctly less universal when one considers the fact that-at least as far as human maleness is concerned – the concept of maleness is also a product of socio-cultural traditions and perceptions which diverge widely from society to society. For example, males are involved to vastly differing degrees in nurturing and rearing children from culture to culture; the extent to which and manner in which they 'beautify' themselves is also highly culture-dependent, as is their role in courtship and in the sexual arena generally.

Componential analysts insist that the labels are language-neutral and indeed that they could be replaced by arbitrary symbols. However, in practice, real words from natural languages are used (human, male, adult etc.) which inevitably carry the particular cultural baggage of the language communities with which they are associated. Moreover, because in the binary system of values (+ or -) often adopted by componentialists just one term is chosen to carry either value, componential analysis constantly runs the risk of seeming to be sexist, ageist and indeed many other 'ists'. How many women, for instance, are content to see the meaning of the word woman being characterized as including the feature-MALE?

A further frequent charge levelled at componential analysis is that it treats meaning in too 'cut and dried' a manner, and that it cannot therefore deal with contextual and metaphorical effects. For example, we know that there are circumstances where the words boy and lad are frequently used for adult males, in other words as synonyms of man. Thus, in the context of social interaction in the dressing-room in the aftermath of a rugby match between two teams of males of mature years the following sentences are entirely equivalent:

Are we going for a pint, men?

Are we going for a pint, boys?

Are we going for a pint, lads?

How does an analysis of boy and lads [+HUMAN,+MALE,-ADULT] sit with this? Similarly, the word girlfriend is applied by males and females alike to female companions of any age from nine to ninety, which casts more than a modicum of doubt on the analysis of girl as simply [+HUMAN,-MALE, -ADULT]. These and other points have not gone without response from those who advocate a componentialist approach, although at least some componentialists are prepared to admit that componential analysis is not the whole story. On the other hand, non-

componentialists like Lyons are perfectly happy to recognize that, because it is based on structural notions of sense, componential analysis, 'at least in principle, fully compatible with [other approaches to structural semantics]'.

#### Cognitive approaches to meaning

One version of the componential approach which appears to meet some of the above criticisms is that which starts from the notion of prototypical sense (otherwise labelled stereotypical, focal or nuclear). The notion of prototype arises from the work of psycholinguists and cognitive linguists – in other words from research which is interested in how language relates to the mind. According to advocates of prototype theory, on the basis of our experience of the world we construct in our minds 'ideal exemplars' of particular categories of 'real world' phenomena with ideal sets of characteristics. These 'ideal exemplars' are the prototypes postulated by prototype theorists, who suggest that when we come across further candidates for inclusion in the same category, we judge them against the prototypes we have established.

However, the matching process is envisaged as flexible. There does not have to be a complete match. Thus, for example, our prototype of a bird would undoubtedly include features such as 'HAS WINGS', 'FLIES', but this would not prevent us from recognizing a penguin as a bird, even though penguins have flippers rather than wings and swim rather than fly.

Similarly, our prototype of chair would probably include the feature 'HAS FOUR LEGS', but that would not lead us to reject as chairs the kinds of seats that have appeared in offices and around round tables in modern times items with single tubular steel stems attached to wide, heavy bases. On the other hand, in some instances it is unclear where a particular item fits in terms of prototypical categories. For example, there are drinking vessels on the market these days which are large and have no saucers – and to that extent resemble the mug prototype, but which on the other hand have an elegantly curved cup – like shape – and to that extent resemble the cup prototype. In other words, prototypes have 'fuzzy' boundaries. The prototypical view of lexical meaning obviously takes us a way from what Lyons calls a 'check list theory of definition' which allows for absolutely no indeterminacy of meaning. Clearly, prototype theory can cope far better than classic 'check list' componential analysis with the fact that – in particular contexts – terms like boy and girl may be applied to adults and that terms like beast, rat, shark, snake may be applied to human beings. On the other hand, prototype theory is not without its drawbacks either. It appears to relate more to a traditional denotational view of meaning than to recent structuralist perspectives. In consequence, the prototypical approach may not be able to cope equally well with all types of words; words which do not identify concrete 'real world' phenomena with observable characteristics – alas, albeit, become etc. – would seem to pose some problems in this connection. In any case, prototype theory has very little to say about sense, that important dimension of meaning – explored before and also (in its collocational aspects) in the upcoming lesson which derives from relations holding between lexical expressions.

Another approach to meaning which can be characterized as cognitive in nature is that proposed by linguists working within the 'conceptual semantics' framework. Conceptual semantics, whose best-known proponent is Ray Jackendoff, essentially says that semantic structure exactly coincides with conceptual structure and that, therefore, any semantic analysis is also an analysis of mental representations. Jackendoff claims that we human beings come into the world equipped with (a) some very basic concepts ('primitives'-such as spatial concepts, concepts of time, even some social concepts like possession and dominance) which are applicable to the interpretation and categorization of a whole variety of experiences, and (b) some principles of concept-combination. Lexical meanings, on this view, are constructed on the basis of interaction

among: our inborn conceptual primitives, our inborn concept – combining principles, our experience of the world and our experience of language.

### Lesson 15.

<b>Theme: International words or popular daily words</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of international words or popular daily words 2. to understand how international words or popular daily words are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 15

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them? 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family

		member 2.4 Do the activities.
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## Everyday expressions

Everyday spoken language is full of fixed expressions that are not necessarily difficult to understand (their meaning may be quite 'transparent') but which have a fixed form which does not change. These have to be learnt as whole expressions. These expressions are often hard to find in dictionaries, so listen out for them.

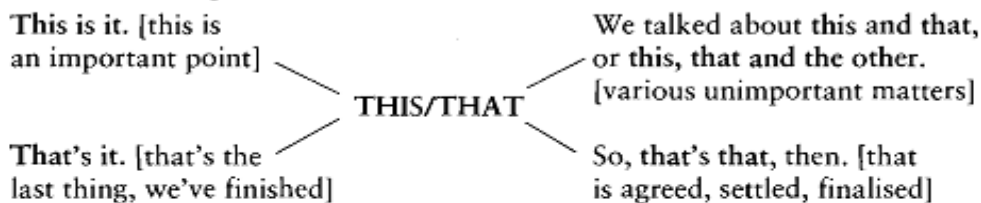
### Conversation-building expressions

These are some common expressions that help to modify or organise what we are saying. There are many more expressions like these. (See also Unit 100.)

<i>expression</i>		<i>meaning/function</i>
As I was saying, I haven't seen her for years.	→	takes the conversation back to an earlier point
As I/you say, we'll have to get there early to get a seat.	→	repeats and confirms something someone has already said
Talking of skiing, whatever happened to Bill Jakes?	→	starting a new topic but linking it to the present one
If you ask me, she's heading for trouble.	→	if you want my opinion (even if no-one has asked for it)
That reminds me, I haven't rung George yet.	→	something in the conversation reminds you of something important
Come to think of it, did he give me his number after all? I think he may have forgotten.	→	something in the conversation makes you realise there may be a problem/query about something

### Key words

Some everyday expressions can be grouped around key words. This and that, for example, occur in several expressions:



### Common expressions for modifying statements

- If the worst comes to the worst, we'll have to cancel the holiday. [if the situation gets very bad indeed]
- If all else fails, we could fax them. [if nothing else succeeds]
- What with one thing and another, I haven't had time to reply to her letter. [because of a lot of different circumstances]
- When it comes to restaurants, this town's not that good. [in the matter of restaurants]
- As far as I'm concerned, we can eat at any time. [as far as it affects me / from my point of view]
- As luck would have it, she was out when we called. [as a result of bad luck]





## Exercises

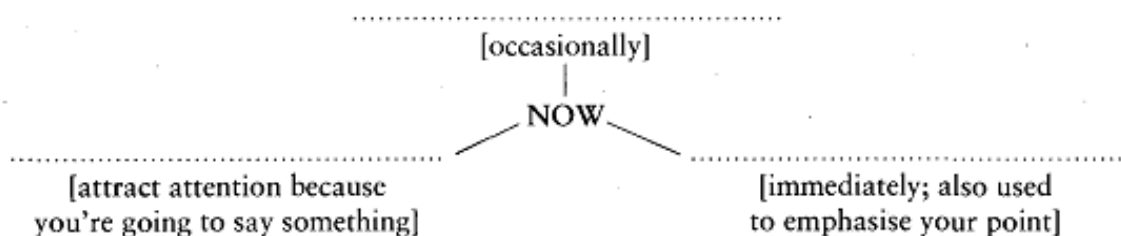
Complete the fixed expressions in these sentences, as far as possible without looking at the left-hand page.

- 1 Come ....., I don't remember giving her the key. I'd better ring her and check, just in case.
- 2 If you ....., the economy's going to get much worse before it gets any better.
- 3 ..... holidays, have you got any plans for next year?
- 4 A: It's going to be expensive.  
B: Yes, it'll be fun, and a great opportunity, but, as ....., it will be expensive.
- 5 That ....., I have a message for you from Sid.
- 6 As ....., before the postwoman interrupted us, we plan to extend the house next spring.

Which of the expressions with *this/that* opposite would be most suitable for the second parts of these mini-dialogues?

- 1 A: What were you and Lindsay talking about?  
B: Oh, .....
- 2 A: How many more?  
B: No more, actually, .....
- 3 A: The most important thing is that nobody's happy.  
B: Yes, well, .....
- 4 A: Okay, I'll take our decisions to the committee.  
B: Right, so ....., then. Thanks.

See if you can complete this network of everyday expressions with *now*, as with the *this/that* network opposite. Use a dictionary if necessary.



Use the expressions with *now* to rewrite these sentences.

- 1 Do you want me to do it straight away, or can it wait?
- 2 So, everybody, listen carefully. I have news for you.
- 3 I bump into her in town occasionally, but not that often.

Which expressions contain the following key words?

- 1 comes    2 luck    3 fails    4 worst    5 far    6 thing

**Follow-up:** Make a list of common expressions like the ones in this unit in your language. How do you say them in English?

### Lesson 16.

<b>Theme: Word and word formation</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of collocations 2. to understand how Synonymy and antonym of collocations are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work
<b>Conditions of teaching</b>	Computer class, linguo phone class, projector (DVD, cassette recorder)

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 16

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them? 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.

# Suffixes

Suffixes can change the word-class and the meaning of the word.

## Common noun suffixes

-er /ə/ is used for the person who does an activity, e.g. writer, worker, shopper, teacher.

You can use -er with a wide range of verbs to make them into nouns.

Sometimes, the /ə/ suffix is written as -or instead of -er. It is worth making a special list of these as you meet them, e.g. actor, operator, sailor, supervisor.

-er/-or are also used for things which do a particular job, e.g. pencil-sharpener, bottle-opener, grater, projector.

-er and -ee can contrast with each other meaning 'person who does something.' (-er) and 'person who receives or experiences the action' (-ee), e.g. employer/employee, sender/addressee, payee (e.g. of a cheque).

-(t)ion /f(ə)n/ is used to make nouns from verbs.

complication    pollution    reduction    alteration    donation    admission

-ist [person] and -ism [activity or ideology]: used for people's politics, beliefs and ideologies, and sometimes their profession (compare with -er/-or professions above), e.g. Marxism, Buddhism, journalism, anarchist, physicist, terrorist.

-ist is also often used for people who play musical instruments, e.g. pianist, violinist, cellist.

-ness is used to make nouns from adjectives. Note what happens to adjectives that end in -y: goodness, readiness, forgetfulness, happiness, sadness, weakness.

## Adjective suffix

-able/-ible /əbl/ with verbs, means 'can be done'.

drinkable    washable    readable    recognizable    countable    forgivable

Examples with -ible: edible (can be eaten)    flexible (can be bent)

## Verbs

-ise (or -ize) makes verbs from adjectives, e.g. modernise, commercialise, industrialise.

## Other suffixes that can help you recognise the word class

-ment: (nouns) excitement    enjoyment    replacement

-ity: (nouns) flexibility    productivity    scarcity

-hood: (abstract nouns especially family terms) childhood    motherhood

-ship: (abstract nouns especially status) friendship    partnership    membership

-ive: (adjectives) passive    productive    active

-al: (adjectives) brutal    legal    (nouns) refusal    arrival

-ous: (adjectives) delicious    outrageous    furious

-ful: (adjectives) forgetful    hopeful    useful

-less: (adjectives) useless    harmless    cloudless

-ify: (verbs) beautify    purify    terrify

*Note:* the informal suffix -ish, which can be added to most common adjectives, ages and times to make them less precise, e.g. She's thirtyish. He has reddish hair. Come about eightish.

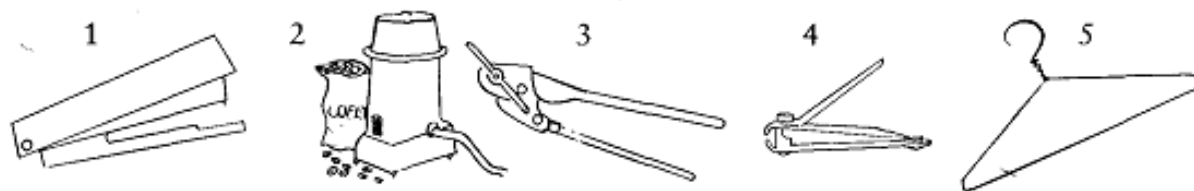
## Exercises

The *-er/-or*, *-ee* and *-ist* suffixes. Use the suffixes to give the names of the following.

Example: A person who plays jazz on the piano. *a jazz pianist*

- 1 The thing that wipes rain off your car windscreen.
- 2 A person who plays classical violin.
- 3 A person who takes professional photographs. (N.B. pronunciation)
- 4 A person who acts in amateur theatre.
- 5 The person to whom a cheque is made out.
- 6 A machine for washing dishes.
- 7 A person who donates their kidneys upon their death.
- 8 The person to whom a letter is addressed.

Each picture is of an object ending in *-er*. Can you name them?



List six jobs you would like to have in order of preference. How many different suffixes are there in your list? Do any of the job names not have a suffix? (e.g. pilot, film star)

Do these words mean a thing, a person, or both?

- |                |                   |                          |                          |
|----------------|-------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 a cooker     | 3 a ticket-holder | 5 a cleaner <sup>b</sup> | 7 a drinker <sup>p</sup> |
| 2 a typewriter | 4 a record player | 6 a smoker               |                          |

Spelling changes. Rewrite each sentence by changing the underlined words, using a suffix from the left-hand page. Make any spelling changes needed.

- 1 Most of his crimes can be forgiven.  
Most of his crimes are .....
- 2 The Club refuses to admit anyone not wearing a tie.  
The Club refuses ..... to anyone not wearing a tie.
- 3 Her only fault is that she is lazy.  
Her only fault is .....
- 4 This firm has produced a lot in recent years.  
This firm has been very ..... in recent years.
- 5 I found the book very easy and pleasant to read.  
I found the book very .....

Can you think of anything in your country which should be *nationalised* (e.g. banks, steel works), *standardised*, *modernised*, *computerised* or *centralised*?

Which word is the odd one out in each group and why?

- 1 brotherhood neighbourhood manhood priesthood
- 2 hair-restorer plant-holder step-ladder oven-cleaner
- 3 appointment involvement compliment arrangement
- 4 tearful spiteful dreadful handful
- 5 worship kinship friendship partnership

## Prefixes

Prefixes are often used to give adjectives a negative meaning. The opposite of 'comfortable' is 'uncomfortable', the opposite of 'convenient' is 'inconvenient' and the opposite of 'similar' is 'dissimilar'. Other examples are 'unjust', 'inedible', 'disloyal'. Unfortunately, there is no easy way of knowing which prefix any adjective will use to form its opposite. When you learn a new adjective note down whether it has an opposite formed with a prefix and, if so, what it is.

*Note:*

- **in-** becomes **im-** before a root beginning with 'm' or 'p', e.g. **immature**, **impatient**, **impartial**, **improbable**. Similarly **in-** becomes **ir-** before a word beginning with 'r', and **il-** before a word beginning with 'l', e.g. **irreplaceable**, **irreversible**, **illegal**, **illegible**, **illiterate**.
- The prefix **in-** does not always have a negative meaning – often it gives the idea of inside or into, e.g. **internal**, **import**, **insert**, **income**.

Although it is mainly adjectives which are made negative by prefixes, **un-** and **dis-** can also form the opposites of verbs too, e.g. appear **disappear**. The prefix is used here to reverse the action of the verb. Here are some more examples: **disagree**, **disapprove**, **disbelieve**, **disconnect**, **discredit**, **dislike**, **dismount**, **disprove**, **disqualify**, **unbend**, **undo**, **undress**, **unfold**, **unload**, **unlock**, **unveil**, **unwrap**, **unzip**.

Many other prefixes are used in English. Here is a list of prefixes which are useful in helping you to understand unfamiliar words. Some of these words are used with a hyphen. Check in a dictionary if you're not sure.

<i>prefix</i>	<i>meaning</i>	<i>examples</i>
anti	against	anti-war    antisocial    antibiotic
auto	of or by oneself	autograph    auto-pilot    autobiography
bi	two, twice	bicycle    bi-monthly    biannual    bilingual
ex	former	ex-wife    ex-student    ex-president
ex	out of	extract    exhale    excommunicate
micro	small	micro-computer    microwave    microscopic
mis	badly/wrongly	misunderstand    mistranslate    misinform
mono	one/single	monotonous    monologue    monogamous
multi	many	multi-national    multi-purpose    multi-racial
over	too much	overdo    overtired    oversleep    overeat
post	after	postwar    postgraduate    post-revolutionary
pro	in favour of	pro-government    pro-revolutionary
pseudo	false	pseudo-scientific    pseudo-intellectual
re	again or back	retype    reread    replace    rewind
semi	half	semicircular    semi-final    semi-detached
sub	under	subway    submarine    subdivision
under	not enough	underworked    underused    undercooked

## Exercises

Practise using words with negative prefixes. Contradict the following statements in the same way as the example. Not all the words you need are on the left-hand page.

*Example:* He's a very honest man. *I don't agree. I think he's dishonest.*

- |                                     |                                     |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1 I'm sure she's discreet.          | 6 He's very efficient.              |
| 2 I always find him very sensitive. | 7 I always find her responsible.    |
| 3 It's a convincing argument.       | 8 He seems grateful for our help.   |
| 4 That's a very relevant point.     | 9 I'm sure she's loyal to the firm. |
| 5 She's always obedient.            | 10 He's a tolerant person.          |

Which negative adjective fits each of the following definitions?

- ..... means not having a husband or wife.
- ..... means impossible to eat.
- ..... means unable to read or write.
- ..... means not having a job.
- ..... means fair in giving judgement, not favouring one side.
- ..... means unable to be replaced.

Choose a negative verb from B to fit each of the sentences below. Put it in the correct form.

*Example:* The runner was *disqualified* after a blood test.

- Children (and adults) love ..... parcels at Christmas time.
- I almost always find that I ..... with his opinion.
- I'm sure he's lying but it's going to be hard to ..... his story.
- After a brief speech the Queen ..... the new statue.
- It took the removal men an hour ..... our things from the van.
- His phone was ..... because he didn't pay his last bill.

Answer the following questions. The answers are all in the table opposite.

- What kind of oven cooks things particularly fast?
- What kind of drug can help somebody with an infection?
- What kind of company has branches in many countries?
- How does a passenger aeroplane normally fly?
- What is a student who is studying for a second degree?
- What means 'underground railway' in the US and 'underground passage' in the UK?

Using the table opposite construct words or phrases to replace the underlined words.

*Example:* He's in favour of the American approach. *He's pro-American.*

- The BBC tries to avoid pronouncing foreign words incorrectly.
- Most people say they have to work too hard but are paid too little.
- He dated his cheque with a date that was later than the real date.
- She's still on good terms with the man who used to be her husband.
- He made so many mistakes in the letter that he had to write it again.

Think of two more examples for each prefix in C opposite.

# Roots

Many words in English are formed from a set of Latin roots with different prefixes and suffixes. Knowing the roots of such words may help you to remember or guess their meaning when you see them in context. These words are usually fairly formal. In their formation, they can perhaps be seen as the Latinate, formal, equivalent of phrasal verbs.

Here are some examples of the more common Latin roots, with some of the verbs derived from them. In each case an example sentence is given with the meaning of the verb in brackets at the end. You'll find some easier to understand than others.

**spect:** see, look

You should **respect** your parents / the laws of a country. [look up to]

The police **suspected** he was guilty but they had no proof. [had a feeling]

Many pioneers travelled west in America to **prospect** for gold. [search]

**vert:** turn

I tried a word-processor but I soon **reverted** to my old typewriter. [went back]

Missionaries went to Africa to **convert** people to Christianity. [change beliefs]

The royal scandal **diverted** attention from the political crisis. [took attention away]

**port:** carry, take

How are you going to **transport** your things to the States? [send across]

Britain **imports** cotton and **exports** wool. [buys in, sells out]

The roof is **supported** by the old beams. [held up]

**duc, duct:** lead

She was **educated** abroad. [went to school]

He **conducted** the orchestra with great vigour. [led]

Japan **produces** a lot of electronic equipment. [makes]

**press:** press, push

She was **impressed** by his presentation. [full of admiration and respect]

This weather **depresses** me. [makes me feel miserable]

She always **expresses** herself very articulately. [puts her thoughts into words]

**pose, pone:** place, put

The meeting has been **postponed** until next week. [changed to a later date]

The king was **deposed** by his own son. [put off the throne]

I don't want to **impose** my views on you. [force]

Above you only have examples of verbs. Note that for all the verbs listed, there is usually at least one noun and at least one adjective as well. Here are some examples.

<i>verb</i>	<i>person noun</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>abstract noun</i>
inspect	inspector	inspecting	inspection
advertise	advertiser	advertising	advertisement
deport	deportee	deported	deportation
introduce	introducer	introductory	introduction
oppress	oppressor	oppressive	oppression
compose	composer	composite	composition

## Exercises

Complete as much as possible of the table with other forms of some of the words presented in B. Use a dictionary to help you if necessary.

<i>verb</i>	<i>person noun</i>	<i>adjective</i>	<i>abstract noun</i>
convert	.....	.....	.....
produce	.....	.....	.....
conduct	.....	.....	.....
impress	.....	.....	.....
support	.....	.....	.....
impose	.....	.....	.....

Fill in the gaps in the sentences below using words from the table in C.

- 1 We stayed in a town surrounded by high mountains. I found it very .....
- 2 He ..... from the USA for having a forged passport.
- 3 The magazine seems to have nothing in it but ..... for cosmetics.
- 4 May I ..... you to my boss?
- 5 The tax ..... decided I owed a lot of money.
- 6 The new take-away pizza service has a very good ..... offer.
- 7 Business people always say that it pays .....
- 8 Tchaikovsky ..... some wonderful ballet music.

Can you work out the meanings of the underlined words in the sentences below?

To help you, here are the meanings of the main Latin prefixes:

intro: within, inward    o, ob: against    in, im: in, into    re: again, back  
de: down, from    ex: out    sub: under    trans: across

- 1 She's a very introspective person and he's also very introverted.
- 2 He always seems to oppose everything I suggest.
- 3 They have a very good induction programme for new staff in that company.
- 4 I don't think it is healthy to repress one's emotions too much.
- 5 Perhaps you can deduce what the word means from the way it is formed.
- 6 The documentary exposed corruption in high places.
- 7 She tried hard to suppress a laugh.
- 8 She transposed the music for the flute.

Think of three other words based on each of the roots listed in B opposite. Put each into an appropriate phrase.

Pair the formal verbs below with their phrasal verb equivalents.

support    put off    oppose    look at    cut down    deposit    hold up  
postpone    turn away    inspect    go against    divert    reduce    put down



## Lesson 17.

<b>Theme: Abbreviations (e.g. TOEFL, CEFR)</b>	
<b>Time: 2 hours</b>	<b>The number of students: 15-16</b>
<b>The form of the lesson</b>	Practical
<b>The aim of the lesson:</b>	1. to explore the role of abbreviations 2. to understand how abbreviations are shaped by gender, culture and society.
<b>Pedagogical tasks:</b> To introduce with the theme of the lesson ; To give information concerning the topic, making students warm-up. To work with the vocabulary of topic; To give definition to the terms	<i>The results of teaching activity</i> The student will: 1. be able to explain and demonstrate how language use is related to communicative goals and social contexts; 2. be able to apply this ability to the analysis of language and gender; 3. be able to demonstrate a working knowledge of different approaches to the description and analysis of language and gender
<b>The method and technology of teaching</b>	Brainstorming, clustering, giving definitions, associations, yes/no question techniques
<b>Teaching resources and materials</b>	Books, visual aids, handouts, a chart, markers, paper, pencils, envelopes, scissors, crayons, glue, different colors of construction paper
<b>The form of teaching</b>	Pair work, group work, mini group work, individual work

### The technological schedule of practical lesson 17

Activities and time management	The plot of the action	
	Teacher	student
<b>The introductory part of the lesson (15- min)</b>	1. Greets the students 2. Asks the questions • Do we use language differently when we are talking about men and women? • Might repeatedly hearing certain words and phrases about boys and girls affect the way we think about them? 3. Asks the questions	1. Students get information about the course and answer the questions
<b>Main part of the lesson (50-min)</b>	2.1 Introduces students	2.1 Students get information about the art of writing letters and different types of letters. 2.2 They answer the teachers questions. 2.3 Choose one of the three subjects and write a letter to a teacher, a friend or family member 2.4 Do the activities.

# Abbreviations

Some abbreviations are read as individual letters:

<b>WHO</b> (W-H-O) World Health Organisation	<b>IRA</b> Irish Republican Army
<b>PLO</b> Palestine Liberation Organisation	<b>UN</b> United Nations
<b>BBC</b> British Broadcasting Corporation	<b>PM</b> Prime Minister
<b>ANC</b> African National Congress	<b>MP</b> Member of Parliament

In the following three cases, the name of each country and the name of its secret police are pronounced as individual letters/numbers.

**CIA** (USA)    **MI5** (UK)    **KGB** (former USSR, now CIS)

*Note:* When these abbreviations are stressed words in the sentence, the stress falls on the last letter, e.g. She works for the CIA. I heard it on the BBC.

Some abbreviations are read as words; we call them **acronyms**.

<b>NATO</b> /'neɪtəʊ/	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
<b>OPEC</b> /'əʊpek/	Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries
<b>AIDS</b> /eɪdz/	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

Some acronyms have become so normal as words that people do not think of them as abbreviations any longer, and so they are not written all in capital letters.

laser    radar    yuppy    Esso

Some abbreviations are only written forms; they are still pronounced as the full word.

Mr (Mister)    Dr (Doctor)    St (Saint or Street)

Abbreviations are used in the organisation of language.

**etc.** /et'setrə/ and so on [Latin: et cetera]  
**i.e.** (I-E): that is to say [Latin: id est]  
**PTO** (P-T-O) please turn over  
**NB** (N-B) please note [Latin: nota bene]  
**RSVP** (R-S-V-P) please reply [French: répondez s'il vous plaît]  
**e.g.** (E-G) for example [Latin: exempli gratia]

**Clippings:** some words are normally used in an abbreviated form in informal situations. (See also Unit 7.)

**lab** (laboratory)    **phone** (telephone)    **fridge** (refrigerator)  
**TV** or **telly** (television)    **board** (blackboard)    **bike** (bicycle)    **case** (suitcase)  
**exam** (examination)    **plane** (aeroplane)    **rep** (business representative)  
**ad/advert** (advertisement)    **fax** (telefax)

Some abbreviations you might see on a letter/fax/envelope.

**c/o** care of [e.g. T. Smith, c/o J. Brown; the letter goes to J. Brown's address]  
**enc.** enclosed [e.g. enc. application form]  
**PS** postscript [extra message after the letter has been ended]  
**asap** as soon as possible [e.g. ring me asap]



## ILOVALAR

### MUSTAQIL ISHLARNI TASHKIL ETISHNING SHAKLI VA MAZMUNI

Asosiy o'rganilayotgan chet til fanidan mustaqil ishlar talabalarining mustaqil ishlashlarini shakllantiradi, rivojlantiradi. Talabalar mustaqil ishlar orqali til ko'nikmalari: tinglash va gapirish, o'qish, yozishni rivojlantirish hamda so'z boyliklarini oshirish, adabiyot bilan ishlash, konspekt qilish, mavzularni ma'ruza qilish, presentastiyalar tayyorlash va taqdimot o'tkazish, referat yozish, rejalar tuzish malakalariga ega bo'ladi. Mustaqil ishlar amaliy mashg'ulotlaridan tashqari holatda bajariladi.

Talabalarining mustaqil ishlarni bajarish bo'yicha to'plagan ballari har bir fan bo'yicha auditoriya o'quv ishlariga berilgan reyting ballariga qo'shib xisoblanadi, ya'ni har bir joriy nazorat balining 2 bali mustaqil ish uchun xisob buladi (10/2).

#### Diskurs matn taxlili modulidan talabalar mustaqil ta'limining mazmuni va hajmi

№	Mustaqil ta'lim Mazmuni	Mustaqil ta'limga oid topshiriq turi	Bajarish vaqti	Hajmi (soatda)
1	Analaysing text: Rhyme and theme	Handouts	1 JN davomida	6
2	Analaysing text: Register words	Handouts	2 JN davomida	6
3	Analaysing text: Cohesion and coherence	Handouts	3 JN davomida	8
4	Analaysing text: types of discourse markers	Handouts	4 JN davomida	6
	<b>JAMI:</b>			<b>26</b>
1	Analaysing text:	Handouts	1 JN davomida	6
2	Spoken discourse	Handouts	2 JN davomida	8
3	Analaysing text: Cohesion and coherence	Handouts	3 JN davomida	6
4	Types of discourse markers	Mini-lecture	4 JN davomida	6
	<b>JAMI:</b>			<b>26</b>

#### Kommunikativ leksika modulidan talabalar mustaqil ta'limining mazmuni va hajmi

№	Mustaqil ta'lim Mazmuni	Mustaqil ta'limga oid topshiriq turi	Hajmi (soatda)
1	Collocations: BE and HAVE	Handouts	2
2	Collocations: DO and MAKE	Handouts	4
3	Collocations: KEEP and LOSE	Handouts	4
4	Collocations: SET and BREAK	Handouts	6
5	Socializing in different situations	flyer tayyorlash.	4
6	How to prepare for job interview	Poster tayyorlash	6
	<b>JAMI:</b>		<b>24</b>

1	Phrasal verbs: type 1	Handouts	2
2	Phrasal verbs: type 2-3	Handouts	4
3	Phrasal verbs: type 4	Handouts	6
4	Types of dictionary	Mini-lecture	6
5	Presentations and talks	PPP tayyorlash	6
6	Making polite requests	O'quv adabiyotlar yordamida mustaqil o'zlashtirish	4
	<b>JAMI:</b>		<b>26</b>

## GLOSSARY

**Adjective** - Adjectives are words that give additional information about the noun. They can be used before a noun or after a verb.

Before a noun: *Stubborn teenagers will not heed sensible advice.*

After a verb: *Teenagers can be stubborn.*

**Adverb** - Adverbs give additional information about verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. They tell how,

when and where something happens, e.g. *he walked slowly; I'll see you tomorrow; the dog ran away, he arrived extremely late, the animal grew increasingly restless.* The final two examples show adverbial phrases.

**Adverbial clause** - An adverbial clause is a subordinate or dependent clause that provides optional information about time, place, condition, concession, reason, purpose or result.

Time: After studying so hard during the week, all students want to do on the weekend is relax.

Concession: Children may still get hurt, even if the climbing equipment is removed.

Condition: If the cage is too small, the animals cannot move around.

Reason: The ban should be lifted because it discriminates against teenagers.

**Accent:** the ways in which words are pronounced. Accent can vary according to the region or social class of a speaker.

**Adjacency pairs:** parallel expressions used across the boundaries of individual speaking turns. They are usually ritualistic and formulaic socially. For example: 'How are you?'/ 'Fine thanks'

**Anaphoric reference** – A word that refers back to a word earlier in the sentence or text

**Back-channel features:** words, phrases and non-verbal utterances [e.g. 'I see', 'oh', 'uh huh', 'really'] used by a listener to give feedback to a speaker that the message is being followed and understood

**Brackets** - Round brackets, or parentheses, enclose information or comment within an otherwise complete sentence. Brackets are used for adding information, giving explanations, clarification, providing examples, and afterthoughts, comments and asides.

**Colons** - Colons are normally used to signal the following:

a list: *The children do the same things every day: climb, jump, play on the swings and build build sandcastles.*

an explanation: *One consequence is inevitable: people will get hurt.*

a subtitle: *School Safety: Can Cameras Combat Crime?*

**Commas** - Commas are used within sentences to separate information into readable units and guide the

reader as to the relationship between phrases and clauses. Commas act as markers to help the reader voice the meaning of long sentences, e.g. when a sentence begins with a phrase or a subordinate clause, the comma indicates where the main clause begins. Commas are also used to separate items in a list.

**Contraction:** a reduced form often marked by an apostrophe in writing – e.g. can't = cannot; she'll = she will. See also ELISION

**Cohesive devices** – Features of discourse that help texts hang together.

**Grammatical Cohesion** – Connections such as: Reference, Substitution and Ellipsis.

**Cataphoric reference** – A word that refers forward to a word later in the sentence or text.

**Content and organization** – How the ideas are placed in order, how the paragraphs divided. What types of cohesive devices are used/

**Cohesion** is about linking ideas or concepts and controlling threads and relationships over the whole text. Cohesion in a text is achieved through use of various devices.

**Conjunctions** – Devices which are used to show logical relationships between and with sentences and also between paragraphs. However, firstly, if, for example...

**Consistency of Register** – Using the distinctive lexis from the same group of people, usually sharing the same occupation.

#### **Connectives (signal words or discourse markers)**

Connectives are used to link ideas to one another across paragraphs and sentences to show logical

relationships of time, cause and effect, comparison or addition. They can be placed at various positions within a sentence.

The logical relationships can be grouped as follows:

– **Temporal** (to indicate time or sequence ideas)

first, second, next, meanwhile, till, while, then, later, previously, finally, to conclude

– **Causal** (to show cause and effect)

because, for, so, consequently, due to, hence, since, accordingly

– **Additive** (to add information)

also, moreover, above all, equally, besides, furthermore, as well as, or, nor, additionally

– **Comparative**

rather, elsewhere, instead, alternatively, on the other hand

– **Conditional/concessive** (to make conditions or concessions)

yet, still, although, unless, however, otherwise, still, despite, nevertheless

– **Clarifying**

in fact, for example, in support of this, to refute

**Conjunctions** are a form of connective and are used to join ideas within one sentence. They are placed at the beginning of a clause. Some conjunctions are and, but, by, or, if, since, although, though.

**Ellipsis** - Ellipsis is the omission of words that repeat what has gone before; these items are simply understood.

*The project will be innovative. To be involved will be exciting.* In the second sentence, *in the project* is ellipsed.

**Details of context** – Context > Genre / Text type > Function of the text > Style / Register > Language chosen > Text.

**Discourse Marker** – In spoken language, language items used to either indicate some kind of change of direction in the discourse.

**Discourse Analysis** – A field of study focused on stretches of authentic language produced in context and used for real communication, rather than decontextualised single sentences.

**Deixis / deictics:** words such as ‘this’, ‘that’, ‘here’, ‘there’ which refer backwards or forwards or outside a text – a sort of verbal pointing. Very much a context dependent feature of talk.

**Dialect:** the distinctive grammar and vocabulary which is associated with a regional or social use of a language.

**Discourse markers:** words and phrases which are used to signal the relationship and connections between utterances and to signpost that what is said can be followed by the listener or reader. E.g. ‘first’, ‘on the other hand’, ‘now’, ‘what’s more’, ‘so anyway’, etc.

**Elision:** the omission or slurring [eliding] of one or more sounds or syllables – e.g. gonna = going to; wannabe = want to be; wassup = what is up

**Ellipsis:** the omission of part of a grammatical structure. For example, in the dialogue: “You going to the party?” / “Might be.” – the verb ‘are’ and the pronoun ‘I’ are missed out. The resulting ellipsis conveys a more casual and informal tone.

**Exophoric reference** – A reference to something outside the discourse

**Ellipsis** – A device to shorten words or phrases by omitting them.

### **Emphasis**

- Punctuation (e.g. underlining, bolding, exclamation mark, capitalisation, quotation marks)
- Overstatement
- Understatement
- Repetition for effect
- Single words
- Words or phrases at the beginning or end of successive clauses or statements e.g. *the grasslands of Africa and the grasslands of Taronga zoo ...*
- Repetitions and parallel constructions in threes (e.g. tricolon, lists) to build to a culmination.
- Anecdote (see Figurative language, below)

**Emphatic statements** - Emphatic statements are forcible statements that are used to give emphasis.

- *I should see no point in how it may be cruel.*
- *It will never be the same.*

### **Figurative language**

Figurative language refers to the techniques of language which help construct images in the reader’s mind and includes alliteration, imagery, similes and metaphors, personification, idioms and word play (pun). Anecdote may also be used to illustrate or emphasise an issue (e.g. see the script *The lion’s glorious hair*).

**False start:** this is when the speaker begins an utterance, then stops and either repeats or reformulates it. Sometimes called selfcorrection. See also REPAIRS



**Fillers:** items which do not carry conventional meaning but which are inserted in speech to allow time to think, to create a pause or to hold a turn in conversation. Examples are ‘er’, ‘um’, ‘ah’. Also called voiced pause.

**Features of written discourse** – Purpose / Content and organization / Status / Style / Grammar / Lexis / Layout

**Grammar** – Particular tenses / structures used.

**Grice’s Maxims:** Grice proposed 4 basic conversational ‘rules’ [maxims] as criteria for successful conversation: quantity [don’t say too much or too little]; relevance [keep to the point]; manner [speak in a clear, coherent and orderly way]; quality [be truthful]

**Hedge:** words and phrases which soften or weaken the force with which something is said – e.g. ‘perhaps’, ‘maybe’, ‘sort of’, ‘possibly’, ‘I think’.

### ***Humour, irony and sarcasm***

Humour is shown where the amusing or comical is expressed.

Irony occurs when the literal meaning is the opposite of that intended. It may be expressed as an understatement, be used in a playful manner or to ridicule.

Sarcasm is scornful or derisory comment. It may be employed through irony (to ridicule).

**Hyperbole** - Hyperbole is a figure of speech in which statements are exaggerated. It may be used to evoke strong feelings or to create a strong impression, but is rarely meant to be taken literally.

**Imperative mood** - The imperative mood is present in statements of high modality that are used to express direct requests and commands, either positively or negatively, for the effect of excluding argument. It addresses either the second person (you) or first person plural (we), e.g. *Don’t let it happen again!* or *We must stop caging animals now!*

**Idiolect:** an individually distinctive style of speaking

**Interactional talk:** language in conversation used for interpersonal reasons and/or socialising

**Hyphen** - The hyphen is a small dash that is used to:

- link two words to form a single word: *one-way street; like-minded friend; button-like nose.*
- clarify meaning and avoid ambiguity: *Man-eating tiger seen at zoo; Her grandmother owned a walking-stick.*
- avoid letter collision: *shell-like; re-establish, co-worker.*

**Lexis** – The kinds of words that are used e.g. adjectives, any fixed lexical expression for the genre.

**Layout** – How the text look on the page.

**Lexical cohesion** – Connections such as repetition, consistency of register and parallelism.

**Modality** - Modality covers expressions of how the world might be and should be and includes expressions of necessity, permissibility and probability, and negations of these.

- Modal verbs of permissibility and probability: would/wouldn't, should/shouldn't, could/couldn't, may/may not, might/might not
- Modal verbs with high modality (necessity): must, will, need to, have to
- Modal adjectives: possible, probable, certain
- Modal adverbs: possibly, probably, certainly
- Modal nouns: possibility, probability, certainty

**Metaphor** - A metaphor is a figure of speech where one thing is said to be another. They do not use *like* or *as*, e.g. *The work done by volunteers is the glue that holds a community together. My fingers are ice*

**Non-fluency features:** typical and normal characteristics of spoken language that interrupt the 'flow' of talk. Some examples: hesitations, false starts, fillers, repetitions [though can be used for emphasis], overlaps and interruptions.

**Noun** - Nouns are known as naming words. There are two main classifications of nouns: common nouns and proper nouns. Common nouns name people, places or things and are said to be either

concrete (e.g. *boy, city, sheep, chair, family, sunshine*), collective (*flock, army, crowd, band*) or abstract (*hope, frustration, liberty*). Proper nouns name specific people, places or things and should always start with a capital letter, e.g. *James, Canberra, Dubbo Zoo*.

### Overview of Persuasive Rhetorical Discourse

Following the classical philosophers, persuasive rhetorical discourse is constituted by:

- the selection of ideas (invention)
- the arrangement of the ideas into arguments or proofs (disposition)
- the choice of language (style)

Ethos, Logos and Pathos are the means by which persuasion to a point of view on an issue can occur.

**Ethos:** persuading by appealing to the readers' values

**Logos:** persuading by the means of logical reasoning

**Pathos:** persuading by appealing to the reader's emotion

The following table lists some features of arguments that draw on Ethos, Logos and Pathos.

<b>Ethos - appeal to values</b>	<b>Logos - appeal to reason</b>	<b>Pathos - appeal to emotion</b>
Value of relationships	Dispassionate language	Emphatic statements
Appeal to truth	Objective author stance	Emotive language
Duty of care	Citing of a relevant authority	Direct appeal to the reader
Creation of a just society	Objective view of opposition	Appeal to spurious authority
Community responsibility	Qualified measured statements	Disparagement of opposition

### Persuasive Devices

#### **Authoritative statement**

Statements that are irrefutable in the context of the argument e.g. *Dogs love human attention.*

#### **Conditional mood**

The conditional mood is recognised by subordinate clauses beginning with words or phrases such

as *if, unless, as long as, even if, even though, on the condition that.*

#### **Direct address of the reader**

A direct address of the reader, recognised by the use of *you/us/we*, has the effect of drawing the reader to identify with the writer's position.

- *You may have noticed that over the last couple of years the issue of animals ...*

– *We need them to supply us with food.*

### ***Rhetorical questions***

Rhetorical questions implicitly contain their own answer.

– *This is a lion in captivity. Is this cruel?*

### ***Value statements***

– *I believe that if an animal is in a good habitat but treated unfairly it is wrong.*

– *Animals can be kept in small cages for weeks and starved, forced to live upon unethical conditions.*

**Preposition** - Prepositions (from the Latin meaning *placed before*) express a time or space relationship between two people or things. They are words such as *below, for, down, above, to, near, under, since, between, with, before, after, into, from, beside, without, out, during, past, over, until, through, off, on, across, by, in, around, onto*. Prepositions are always followed by a noun or pronoun.

**Prepositional phrases**, e.g. *in the wild; with tears in her eyes*, can be used as a device to enhance description.

**Pronoun** - A pronoun stands in place of a noun or noun group. A pronoun refers to something that has been named and has already been written about, e.g. *The harbour is a popular place. It is mostly used by fishermen*. Pronouns work only if they are not ambiguous (that is, there is a clear line of reference) and are not used too repetitively. Examples of common pronouns are: I, you, she, it, we, they, mine, ours, yourself, himself *You can't keep all the apples yourself!* this, that, these, those *These are mine*.

each, any, some, all, much, many *Some will be given to Peter.*

who, which, what, whose, whom *Who is visiting tomorrow?*

**Punctuation** - Punctuation is used to aid the smooth reading of a text.

**Points of ellipsis** - Points of ellipsis ( ... ) are used to indicate the omission of text, suspense or a time lapse.

**Parallelism** – Related to the repetition of form, style, rhythm or sound. Used to reinforce a message. Speech: I have a dream.

**Purpose** – What the point of the text is. Advice, persuade, inform etc..

**Paralinguistic features**: related to body language – it is the use of gestures, facial expressions + other non-verbal elements [such as laughter] to add meaning to the speakers message beyond the words being spoken

### ***Personal opinion***

– *I think it is cruel to put animals in cages.*

– *In my opinion only certain animals should be locked up.*

**Phatic talk**: conversational utterances that have no concrete purpose other than to establish or maintain personal relationships. It's related to small talk – and follows traditional patterns, with stock responses and formulaic expressions: 'How are you?' / 'Fine'; 'Cold, isn't it?' / 'Freezing'

**Pragmatics:** an approach to discourse analysis which focuses less on structures and more on contexts and purposes of people talking to each other. Crystal: 'Pragmatics studies the factors that govern our choice of language in social interaction and the effects of our choice on others.'

**Prosodic features:** includes features such as stress, rhythm, pitch, tempo and intonation – which are used by speakers to mark out key meanings in a message. Essentially, how something is said.

**Repairs:** an alteration that is suggested or made by a speaker, the addressee, or audience in order to correct or clarify a previous conversational contribution.

**Quotation marks** - Quotation marks (or inverted commas) identify words that are spoken by a character (direct speech) or written words that belong to people other than the writer. There is an increasing trend for single quotation marks ('...') to be used in place of double quotation marks although this is a matter of style.

**Repetition** – Key words are used continuously throughout the text, especially when we wish to emphasise something.

**Reference statements** - Reference statements are those where a source is cited. They may lend authority to an argument. In the context of the NAPLAN writing test, allowances are made for the test conditions where students do not have access to research material.

**Referring words** - Referring words maintain continuity and avoid repetition.

- **Noun-pronoun chains:** *You should not put animals in cages because they would want to be in the wild with their family.*

- **Articles (e.g. a, an, the):** *My idea of a perfect zoo is the one in Dubbo*

- **Demonstratives (e.g. this, that, there, these):** *That bicycle was very expensive. John had owned mice before but this mouse was different.*

- **Quantifying determiners (e.g. every, much, many, most, numbers):** *There is much interest being shown. Many children went to the zoo. The rule applies to every person. I have one car.*

**Semicolons** - Semicolons are used to separate two independent clauses containing different though related pieces of information: the use of a semicolon strengthens the link between ideas, e.g. *the installation of closed circuit television cameras will make teachers and students more self*

*conscious; schools will no longer be a comfortable place.* This could be written as two separate sentences. The use of a comma in this example would make the sentence incorrect.

Semicolons are also used to separate complex items in a list, e.g. *In the event of a fire, all students must: leave the building immediately; not attempt to take any materials with them; assemble in the main quadrangle with their roll class.*

**Using semicolons with conjunctive adverbs**

A semicolon should be used to join two independent clauses when the second clause begins with a conjunctive adverb that relates to (ties in with) the idea of the first clause or it is of equal emphasis. The conjunctive adverb and the clause that follows must stand alone, i.e. it can be written as one sentence.

A full stop is used where more emphasis is required for the second clause. In the following examples, both versions are correct.

*We would like to go Morocco for the holidays; accordingly, we will have to apply for visas.*

*We would like to go Morocco for the holidays. Accordingly, we will have to apply for visas.*

*They wanted to go to the concert; however, it was impossible to get a ticket.*

*They wanted to go to the concert. However, it was impossible to get a ticket.*

Some conjunctive adverbs are: *accordingly, furthermore, moreover, nevertheless similarly, however, therefore, otherwise, instead namely, still, finally, consequently, indeed, certainly.*

**Substitution** - Substitution refers to words that replace noun groups or verb groups: such, one: *There was a lot of swearing and abuse. Such language is simply not acceptable.*

**SENTENCES** - A sentence is a group of words that makes complete sense. It is marked in writing by beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark. There are four functions for sentences:

Making statements: *The girl shot a goal.*

Asking questions: *Did the girl shoot a goal?*

Uttering commands: *Shoot the goal!*

Voicing exclamations: *What a great goal!*

## **SENTENCE AND CLAUSE TYPES**

### ***Simple sentence***

A simple sentence is one that contains a single clause. Birds should be let free.

### ***Compound sentence***

In compound sentences there are two or more clauses which are coordinated, or linked, so that each clause has equal status. Clauses in compound sentences are usually joined by the conjunctions *and, but, or, and so* and *then*.

Birds should be released and allowed back in the wild.

### ***Complex sentence***

A complex sentence contains embedded and/or subordinate clauses. The feature of embedded clauses is that the clause is part of the structure of another clause and therefore does not have a coordinating relationship with the main clause.

Subordinating clause: When the birds are let free, they will be able to catch their own food.

Embedded clause: When the birds that have been locked up are let free, they will be able to catch their own food.

### ***Adjectival clause***

An adjectival (or relative) is a clause that gives additional information about a noun or noun group. It is embedded if the information it provides is located within the subject or object of another clause. An adjectival clause generally (but not always) begins with a relative pronoun such as *who, which* or *that*.

Subject: The play equipment that children love is not necessarily the safest equipment in the playground.

Object: Children love playing with equipment which allows them to use their imagination.

### ***Noun clause***

A noun clause is a clause that acts as the subject or object of another clause.

Subject: What he had been ordered to do weighed heavily on his mind.

Object: Some studies show that crimes committed by teenagers are rising.

Subject with adjectival clause: Conserving endangered animal species that are threatened by habitat destruction should be the priority of all zoos.

**Simile** - A simile is a figure of speech which compares one thing with another by using *like* or *as*, e.g. *Without the business that teenagers bring, the shopping centre would be like a wasteland.* The

two things being compared must be different, e.g. the example *The distant building looked like a castle* would not be a simile if the building was in fact a castle.

**Substitution** – A device used to avoid repetition or shorten phrases. Determiners are often used for this.

**Status** – The relationship the writer has with his or her audience.

**Style** – Informal, neutral or formal

**Sociolect:** a social dialect or variety of speech used by a particular group, such as working-class or upper-class speech

**Tag question:** strings of words normally added to a declarative sentence to turn the statement into a question. E.g. “It’s a bit expensive round here, isn’t it?”

**Transactional talk:** language to get things done or to transmit content or information [used when the participants are exchanging goods and/or services]

**Turn taking:** a turn is a time during which a single participant speaks, within a typical, orderly arrangement in which participants speak with minimal overlap and gap between them. The principal unit of description in conversational structure.

**Utterance:** an utterance is a complete unit of talk, bounded by the speaker's silence.

**Vague language:** statements that sound imprecise and unassertive. E.g. – ‘and so on’, ‘or whatever’, ‘thingummy’, ‘whatsit’

**Verb** - Verbs are the basis of any message communicated. They are the engine of the sentence or clause and provide movement or action, or a sense of what is happening. Different types of verbs are used, depending on the purpose of the text. The writing could feature:

– action verbs (‘doing’ words): *The animals are fed every day.*

– saying verbs: *I have explained why animals should not be kept in cages; scientists report better outcomes for the animals in open sanctuaries.*

– thinking verbs: *I believe that ... , I agree with ... , I think my idea is ... , it is thought that ....*

– relational verbs: *We have the right. They will not be free.*

Extended verb groups indicate many sentence features, such as tense and modality, e.g. *They have*

*been working on it for a long time.* (tense); *Animals should not be kept in captivity.* (modality).

#### **Word associations (or lexical cohesion)**

– **Repetition:** *They have to work for dinner ... they have to work for visitors.*

– **Synonyms:** *The weather had been hot. It was another boiling day.*

– **Antonyms:** *Wild animals should not be kept in captivity. They need open spaces.*

– **Word sets: class and sub-class, or whole and part clusters of words:** *Wild animals/lions, tigers, hippos; food/eggs, meat.*

– **Collocation:** words which typically go together, making the text flow well. *cages/bars/locked; river/bank/water.*

**Written genre** – A term which is used to distinguish one piece of writing with another. Conforms to the expectations of the reader.

## FAN DASTURI

### ЎЗБЕКИСТОН RESPUBLIKASI ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

Рўйхатга олинди:  
№ БД – 5111400 – 2.07  
2018 йил “27” 06



Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари  
университети

2018 йил “5” 07

### ТИЛ АСПЕКТЛАРИ АМАЛИЁТИ ФАН ДАСТУРИ

Билим соҳаси: 100000 – Гуманитар соҳа

Таълим соҳаси: 110000 – Педагогика

Таълим  
йўналиши: 5111400 – Хорижий тил ва адабиёти (тиллар бўйича)

Тошкент – 2018

Фан дастури 2018 йилда ишлаб чиқилган ва белгиланган тартибда тасдиқланган ўқув режа асосида тузилган.

Фан дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университетида ишлаб чиқилди.

**Тузувчилар:**

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- К.Алимова – ЎзДЖТУ, катта ўқитувчи.
- Я.Абдураимова – ЎзДЖТУ, катта ўқитувчи.
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**Бош маслаҳатчи:**

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Фан дастури Ўзбекистон давлат жаҳон тиллари университети Кенгашида кўриб чиқилган ва тавсия қилинган (2018 йил “27” июндаги “6” - сонли баённома).



## I. Ўқув фанининг долзарблиги ва олий касбий таълимдаги ўрни

Тил аспекти амалиёти фани талабаларнинг тил моделлари ва структуралари ҳақидаги билимларини ошириш билан бирга мулоқот жараёнида грамматик ва лексик формаларни тўғри ишлатишни ўргатади. Шунингдек, ўрганилаётган чет тилидаги матнларни таҳлил қилиш йўллари ва усулларини, матнларни таҳлил қилиш борасидаги турли нуқтаи назарларни ва матн таҳлилида эътиборга олинishi лозим жиҳатларни ўргатишни назарда тутди. Ушбу фан “Коммуникатив грамматика”, “Коммуникатив лексика” ва “Дискурс таҳлили” модулларини ўз ичига олади. Тил аспекти амалиёти фани умумкасбий фанлар блокига киритилган курс ҳисобланиб, 1-4 семестрлар давомида ўқитилиши мақсадга мувофиқ..

## II. Ўқув фанининг мақсади ва вазифаси

Мазкур фаннинг мақсади талабаларга тилнинг уч муҳим аспекти: грамматика, лексика ва дискурс таҳлилини ўргатиш, уларни мулоқотда тўғри қўллаш малакаларини ривожлантириш ва тил аспекти тўғрисидаги амалий ва назарий билимларини такомиллаштириш ҳамда эгалланган билим, кўникма, малакаларини касбий ва илмий фаолиятда эркин қўллаш олишларини таъминлашдир. Фаннинг асосий вазифаси умумэътироф этилган халқаро меъёрларга кўра талабаларнинг ўрганилаётган чет тилини C1 даражада эгаллашлари учун зарурий тил аспектиларини ўргатиш ва мулоқот малакаларини ривожлантиришдир.

Фан бўйича талабаларнинг билим, кўникма ва малакаларига қўйидаги талаблар қўйилади. **Талаба:**

- чет тилини Умум Европа стандартларига кўра C1 даражада ўзлаштириши;
- грамматик ва лексик структураларни мулоқотда қўллаш, фарқлай олиш ва уларни оғзаки ва ёзма нутқда тўғри ишлатиши;
- касбий йўналиш ва ижтимоий-маданий мавзулардаги сўзларнинг маъносини билиши ва контекста тўғри қўллаш олиши;
- оғзаки нутқ ва ёзма матнларга хос хусусиятларни фарқлай олиши ва мулоқотда тўғри қўллаши;
- грамматика, лексика ва дискурс таҳлили бўйича тасаввур, билим, малака ва кўникмаларга, компетенцияларга эга бўлиши талаб этилади.

### **III. Асосий қисм (амалий машғулотлар)**

#### **1-Модул. Коммуникатив грамматика модули**

Коммуникатив грамматика модули талабаларга 1-2 семестрлар давомида ўқитилади. Мазкур модул талабаларнинг тил моделлари ва структуралари ҳақидаги билимларини ошириш билан бирга ўрганилаётган тил грамматикасини мулоқотда тўғри қўллашни, мулоқот жараёнида грамматик формаларни тўғри ишлатишни ўргатиш орқали лингвистик компетенцияни ривожлантиришга қаратилган. Барча мавзулар коммуникатив ёндашувни қўллаш орқали тақдим этилиши муҳим аҳамиятга эга.

#### **Модул мазмуни**

- артиклар ва аниқловчилар;
- от (қўшма отлар, санокли/саноксиз отлар);
- олмошлар;
- сон;
- феъл (м.н.: феъл замонлари, феъл майллари, нисбатлари, модал феъллар, феълли бирикмалар, феълнинг ноаниқшакллари: инфинитив, ҳозирги/ўтган замон равишдошлари, ҳ.к.);
- сифат (қиёсий даража, орттирма даража);
- равиш (равиш ясалиши);
- боғловчилар;
- синтаксис: содда, мураккаб ва қўшма гаплар: эргашган қўшма гаплар;
- грамматик категориялар: ўзлаштира гаплар, фараз маъносини ифодалаш;
- грамматик формалар/функциялар;
- сўроқ сўзлар, савол/жавоб ва инкор;
- ўзлаштира гаплар.

#### **2-Модул. Коммуникатив лексика (сўз бойлигини ошириш) модули**

Коммуникатив лексика модули 1-4 семестрлар давомида ўқитилади. Мазкур модулнинг мақсади талабаларнинг луғат бойлигини ошириш ва луғат бойлигини бойитиб боришнинг мақбул усулларида фойдаланишни ўргатиш ҳамда ўрганилаётган чет тили лексикасининг мулоқотдаги хусусиятларини фарқлаш ва мулоқотда қўллай олиш қобилиятларини ривожлантиришдир. Барча мавзулар коммуникатив ёндашувни қўллаш орқали тақдим этилиши муҳим аҳамиятга эга.

#### **Модул мазмуни**

##### **1- курс давомида:**

- синонимлар, антонимлар, омонимлар;

- сўз оилалари (мас., ҳайвонот оламига оид сўзлар);
- турғун бирикмалар;
- идиоматик тил бирликлари;
- адабий тил ва шева (диалект) ўртасидаги фарқлар;
- лексик тизим;
- сўз ясалиши хусусиятлари;
- қисқартмалар;
- предлоглар.

## **2 курс давомида:**

- услубларни бир-биридан фарқлашга йўналтирилган қатор идиоматик тил бирликлар ва оғзаки сўзлашувдаги сўзлар;
- жаргон ва идиомаларни қўллаш;
- ибора ва ифодаларни мулоқотнинг турли вазиятларида ишлата олиш (мулоқотга киришиш учун сўз навбати олиш, вақтдан ютиш мақсадида муқаддима ва хулоса ибораларини ишлатиш каби);
- тингловчини чалғитмаган ҳолда сўзларга эквивалент бўлган терминларни қўллаш;
- лексик боғлиқлик - синоним, антоним, омонимларни ўринли қўллаш олиш;
- лексик бирликлар;
- маълум мавзуга доир сўзлар йиғиндиси (*атроф-муҳит, инсон характери ва б.*);
- ўзгармас иборалар ва лексик бирликлар;
- маълум бир сўзнинг диалектларда турлича қўлланилиши;
- фразеологик бирликлар, феъллар;
- сўз ясалишининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари;
- қисқартма сўзлар;
- сўз бирикмалари;
- генетик жиҳатдан бир оилга мансуб сўзлар;
- профессионал ва академик терминология
- контекстга мос бўлган ҳамда корпус-анализ базасидаги сўзларни тўғри ишлатиш;
- луғат билан ишлай олиш (бир ва икки тилли, китоб/электрон/онлайн луғатлар);
- нотаниш сўз маносини контекстдаги маъносига кўра тахминан аниқлай олиши;
- ўрганишнинг турли усуллари (ёдлаш, кунлик режа, ассоциация орқали ўрганиш ва ҳоказо) дан тўғри фойдалана олиши лозим.

### 3- Модул. Дискурс (матн) таҳлили

Мазкур модул 3-4 семестрларда ўқитилади. Модулнинг асосий мақсади ўрганилаётган чет тилидаги матнларни (ёзма ва оғзаки) таҳлил қилиш йўллари ва усулларини, матнларни таҳлил қилиш борасидаги турли нуктаи назарларни ва матн таҳлилида эътиборга олинishi лозим жиҳатларни ўргатишдан иборат.

#### Модул мазмунини:

##### Ёзма дискурс (матн):

- турли жанрларнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари (масалан, илмий-оммабоп асарлар, газета мақолалари, бадиий адабиёт ва б.)
- ўзаро лексик муносабат (лингвистик омилларнинг қўлланилиши);
- матнда сўзлар мутаносиблиги;
- расмий, норасмий, махсус матнлар;
- грамматика ва дискурс; (матнда грамматик категорияларнинг қўлланилиши)
- ёзма нутқда грамматика ва лексикани қўллаш ( матн тузишда сўз ва грамматик категорияларни танлашга таъсир курсатувчи асосий омиллар (масалан: аудитенция, матннинг қандай аудитория ва ким учун мўлжалланганлиги, ёзма матннинг мақсади ва ҳ.к.);

##### Оғзаки дискурс (матн):

нутқ ва унинг функциялари ҳамда уларнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари:

- *оғзаки мулоқот* - телефон суҳбатлари (бизнес ёки шахсий масалаларда), хизмат кўрсатиш шаҳобчалари (дўконлар, кассалар ва ҳ.к.), интервьюлар (ишга жойлашишда, журналист сифатида, расмий вазиятларда), кундалик мулоқотлар (нотаниш кишилар, дўстлар, қариндошлар билан), кишиларга йўл кўрсатиш, маслаҳат бериш (ишда, уйда, кўчада);
- *оғзаки нутқ* - *монологлар (нутқлар, ҳикоялар, ҳазил-мутуйибалар)*, иш-ҳаракатни ифодаловчи тил бирликлари (иш- ҳаракат бажарилаётгандаги нутқ: бирор нарсани тузатиш жараёнида, овқат тайёрлаётганда, бирон нарса ясаётганда ҳ.к), аудиторияда (мактаб синфхонасида) қўлланадиган нутқ ( дарсда, семинар машғулотларида, маърузаларда, қўшимча дарсларда);
- грамматика ва оғзаки дискурс(олдиндан тайёрланмаган нутқда грамматиканинг ўрни);
- оғзаки нутқнинг фонологик хусусиятлари: урғу, интонация, пауза.
- мулоқотнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари: мулойим сўзлашиш, сўзларда боғлиқликни таъминлаш: иккиланиш ва прагматик стратегиялар (гапни тўлдириш ёки изоҳ бериш);

## **Социолингвистик омиллар**

- мулоқот таҳлили: мулоқот жараёнида бошқа мавзуга йўналтириш стратегиялари (усуллари);
- тил ва жинс: хотин қизлар нутқи ва эркак киши нутқи ўртасидаги фарқ ва уларнинг ўзига хосликлари;
- новербал мулоқот: мимика ва жестлар тили, кўз орқали мулоқот, имо-ишоралар.

## **IV. Амалий машғулотлар бўйича кўрсатма ва тавсиялар**

Фанни ўқитишда шахсга йўналтирилган таълим методи ва чет тилини ўқитишга коммуникатив ёндашувдан максимал даражада фойдаланиш талаб этилади. Машғулотларда дарслик ва ўқув қўлланмалардан ташқари аутентик материаллар: аудио, видео, газета ва журналлар, интернет манбаларидан, интерактив усулларни қўллаган ҳолда ақлий ҳужум, кейс-стади, лойиҳалар тайёрлаш, роли ўйин, дебатлар, презентация методларидан кенг фойдаланилади.

Амалий машғулотларда ақлий ҳужум, кластер, блиц-сўров, кичик гуруҳларда ишлаш, инсерт, презентация, кейс стади каби усуллардан кенг фойдаланилади. Модуллар 100% ўрганилаётган тилда ўқитилади.

## **V. Мустақил таълим ва мустақил ишлар**

Мустақил таълим учун тавсия этиладиган мавзулар ва фаолият турлари:

- Грамматик структуралар (содда, мураккаб ва қўшма гаплар ва ҳ.к.) ни мулоқотда қўллаш
- Структураларни фарқлай олиш, уларни оғзаки ва ёзма нутқда тўғри ишлатиш
- Ўрганилаётган тил грамматикаси модел ва структураларининг ўзига хос хусусиятларини ажрата олиш ва уларни ўзлаштириш учун ўз она тили тизими билан таққослаш
- Ибора ҳамда оғзаки нутқда қўлланиладиган сўзларнинг кўчма ва тўғри маносини билиши ва тўғри қўллаш
- Луғат бойлигини ошириш учун манбалар (луғатлар, регистрлар, сўз кўрсаткичлари ва бошқалар)
- Фразеологик бирликлар, феъллар
- Сўз ясалишининг ўзига хос хусусиятлари
- Қисқартма сўзлар
- Сўз бирикмалари
- Қариндош ва бир оилага мансуб сўзлар
- Профессионал ва академик терминология
- Контекстга мос бўлган ҳамда корпус-анализ базасидаги сўзлар
- Турли жанрларнинг ўзига хос хусусиятлари (масалан, илмий-оммабоп асарлар, газета мақолалари, бадий адабиёт ва б.)

- Ўзаро лексик муносабат (лингвистик омилларнинг қўлланилиши).
- Матнда сўзлар мутаносиблиги
- Расмий, норасмий, махсус матнлар

## **VI. Асосий ва қўшимча ўқув адабиётлар ҳамда ахборот манбалари<sup>1</sup>**

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<sup>1</sup> Адабиётлар рўйхатига ОТМ ахборот-ресурс марказлари имкониятлари, соҳага оид замонавий манбалар ва ҳар бир тил хусусиятлари инобатга олинган ҳолда қўшимчалар киритилиши мумкин. Киритилган қўшимчалар ишчи дастурларда келтирилади.

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4. <http://www.daf-links.de/linksammlung/uebungen.html>
5. <http://www.german-course-vienna.com/de/uebungen,20810.html>

#### **Француз тили**

1. <http://www.bonjourdefrance.com/>
2. [www.francaisfacile.com](http://www.francaisfacile.com)
3. <http://www.aidenet.eu/grammaire07.htm>

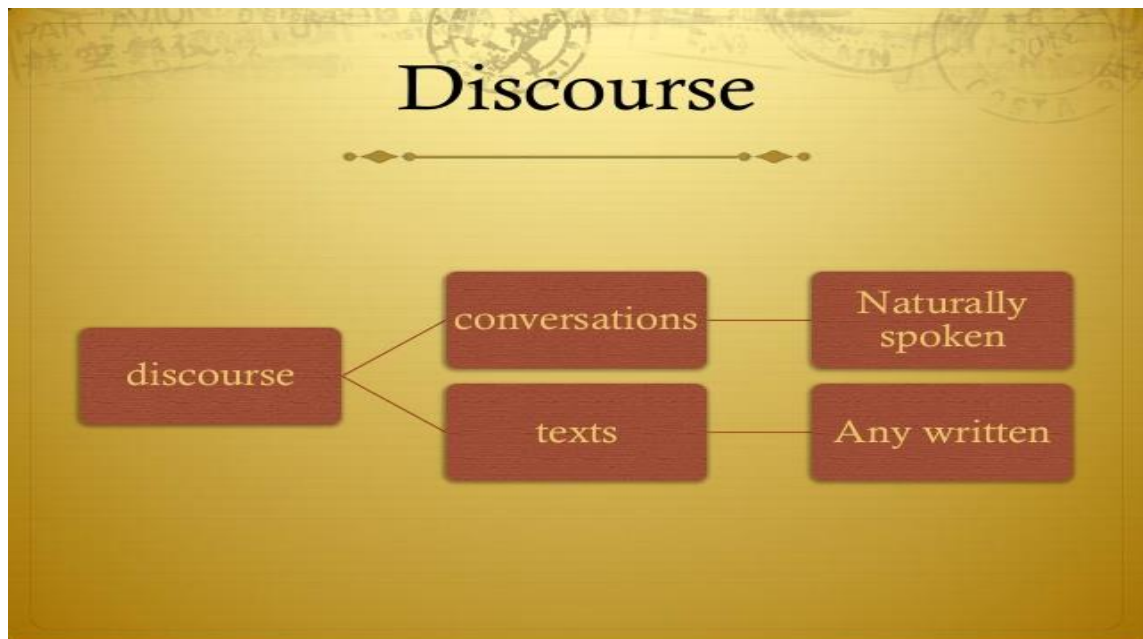


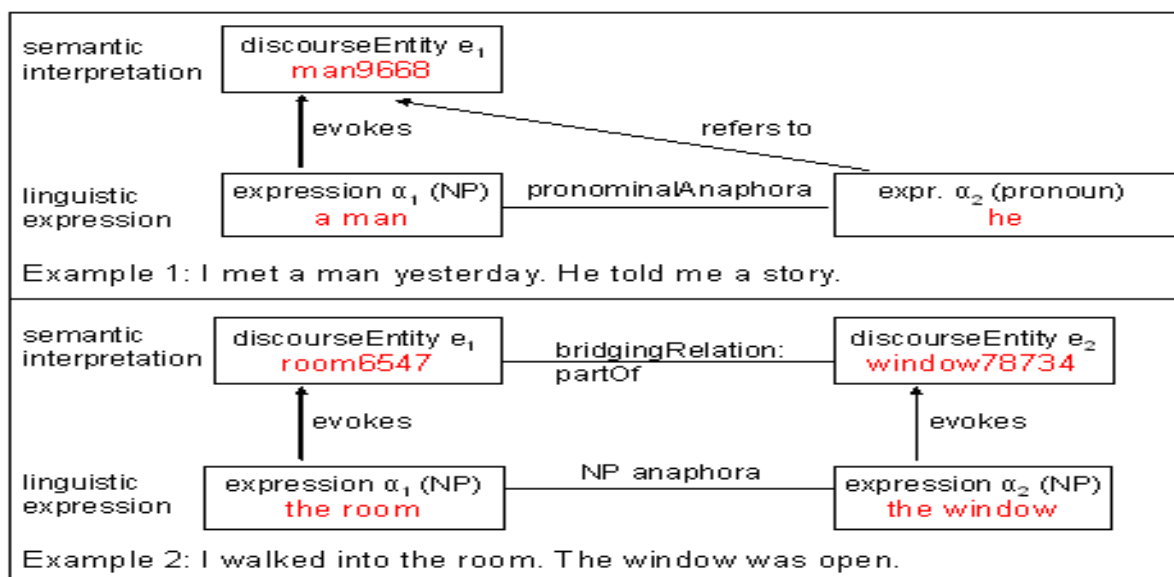
4. [http://www.lefrancaispourtous.com/ex\\_noms\\_composes.htm](http://www.lefrancaispourtous.com/ex_noms_composes.htm)
5. <http://www.lefrancaispourtous.com/concession1.htm>
6. <https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anglicisme>
7. <http://test.psychologies.com>
8. <http://www.aidenet.eu/grammaire07.htm>

# TARQATMA MATERIALLAR VA KEYSLAR TO‘PLAMI

## Lesson 1. What is discourse analysis

- Discourse analysis is also called *discourse linguistics* and *discourse studies*, or *text analysis*. **pragmatics is more concerned with meaning**, discourse is more concerned with the formal and information structure.
- **Discourse analysis** is the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews, etc.
- (1) **a. Pick up a handful of soil in your garden. Ordinary, unexciting earth. Yet it is one of Nature’s miracles, and one of her most complex products. Your success as a gardener will largely depend upon its condition, so take the first bold step in gardening—get to know your soil. (text)**
- **b. Fertilizers put back what the rain and plants take away. Plastic pots are not just substitutes for clay ones. Pears are a little more temperamental than apples. Supporting and training are not quite the same thing. (nontext)**
- **tasks in discourse analysis** is to explore the linguistic features which characterize discourses.
- **The goal of discourse analysis** is to examine how the reader or user of a discourse recognizes that the words/phrases/sentences in a discourse must be co-interpreted—that parts of a discourse are dependent on others.
- **One of the most important features of discourse** is that they have *cohesion*. Besides, some other topics of discourse analysis include *information structure*, *coherence*, *discourse markers*, *conversational analysis*.








## Lesson 2. Text analysis

### Text and Discourse

- Text as a unit of the highest level manifests itself as discourse in verbal communication. Therefore actual text in use may be defined as discourse.
- Discourses are formed by sequence of utterances. It is obvious that many utterances taken by themselves are ambiguous. They can become clear only within a discourse.

### Collocations with HAVE & BREAK

	fun		the news to someone
	lunch		someone's heart
	dinner		a promise
	a fight		a record
	a baby		the rules
	a party		a habit
	a meeting		the ice
	a headache		the law
	an interview		a leg
	an argument		free



## Cohesion

1. A: I'm going camping next week. Do you have a two person tent I could borrow?

2. B: Sure. I have a two-person backpacking tent.

3. A: The last trip I was on there was a huge storm.

4. A: It poured for two hours.

5. A: I had a tent, but I got soaked anyway.

6. B: What kind of tent was it?

7. A: A tube tent.

8. B: Tube tents don't stand up well in a real storm.

9. A: True.

10.B: Where are you going on this trip?

11.A: Up in the Minarets.

12.B: Do you need any other equipment?

13.A: No.

14.B: Okay. I'll bring the tent tomorrow.

### *The function*

- The major function of cohesion is text formation
- Distinguishes a text from something, which is not a text.

#### **Two ways to establish cohesion in a text:**

##### **1-Grammatical cohesion.**

**2-Lexical cohesion:** the cohesive effect, achieved by the selection of vocabulary (repetition, synonymy, hyponymy (SUPERORDINATE-SUBORDINATE), metonymy (PART-WHOLE), antonymy.

•Lexical cohesion COMPLEMENTS grammatical cohesion

# Cohesion in English

- The various kinds of cohesion had been outlined by MAK Halliday in his writings on stylistics and the concept was developed by Ruqaiya Hasan in her University of Edinburgh doctoral thesis.
- Cohesive relations are relations between two or more elements in a text that are independent of the structure: for example between a personal pronoun and an antecedent proper name, such as John ....he. A semantic relation of this kind may be set up either within a sentence with the consequence that when it crosses a sentence boundary it has the effect of making the two sentences cohere with one another.
- The major function of cohesion is text formation. As defined: text is a unified whole of linguistic items, this unity of text as a semantic whole is source for the concept of cohesion.



## Introduction:

- **Cohension** and **coherence** are terms used in discourse analysis and text linguistics to describe the properties of written texts.
- Advertising language tends not to use clear markers of **cohesion**, but is interpreted as being **coherent**.

## What is Anaphora?

- Reference to an entity that has been previously introduced in the discourse.

# Discourse

- Anaphora
  - John arrived late. He always does **that**.
  - My car didn't start this morning. There was some problem with the engine fan.
- Discourse relations:
  - My car didn't start this morning BECAUSE there was some problem with the engine fan.

NLE

21

His father, Nick Begich, **won an election** posthumously, only they didn't know for sure that **it** was posthumous because **his plane** just disappeared. **It** still hasn't turned up. **It's** why locators are now required in all US planes.

Reference: the process of mentioning mental entities (referents) in discourse by means of referential expressions

The Victorian house that Ms. Johnson is inspecting has been deemed unsafe by town officials. But she asks a workman toting the bricks from the lawn to give her a boost through an open first-floor window. Once inside, she spends nearly four hours measuring and diagramming each room in the 80-year-old house, gathering enough information to estimate what it would cost to rebuild it. She snaps photos of the buckled floors and the plaster that has fallen away from the walls.

PPT4WEB.ru

## Syntactic anaphora?

- Reference and referential choice are fundamentally discourse-based, cognitively-driven processes
- Is there something like syntactic anaphora?
  - A mother and her child NP
  - I gave John his ticket Clause
  - I promised John to give him his ticket Closely connected clauses
- To account for such syntactic usages, one can still employ a full-scale cognitively based explanation
- But it may be sometimes more economical to account for syntactic usages with the help of simple and automatic rules
- Including in terms of formal control from the antecedent
- Antecedent functions as a placeholder, formal representative of the usual cognitive controller
- Syntactic anaphora is grammaticalization or routinization of the more general process of discourse-based reduced reference

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### Lesson 4. Ellipsis and substitution

#### Ellipsis , Substitution ,and Reference

- Halliday& Hassan define *ellipsis* in relation to another important cohesive device, i.e. *substitution*, since they embody the same fundamental relation between parts of the text. **Ellipsis is substitution by zero.**
- a. This is a fine hall you have here. I'm proud to be lecturing in it (R).
- b. This is a fine hall you have here. I've never lectured in a finer one (S).
- c. This is a fine hall you have here. I've never lectured in a finer (E).

3

#### Ellipsis: Anaphoric ,Cataphoric , and Exophoric

- Ellipsis is normally an **anaphoric** relation.
- Ellipsis is also **cataphoric**:  
- *Because Alice won't ( dust the furniture ); Mary has to dust the furniture.*
- Occasionally the presupposition in an elliptical structure may be it **exophoric** .  
✓ If a housewife on seeing the milkman approach calls out  
✓ **Two please!**  
She is using exophoric ellipsis ;it is the context of situation that provides the information needed to interpret this (p.144).

4

Conjunctions	Examples
'And' is used to join words or sentences that show a similar idea.	a) I have a pencil <b>and</b> an eraser. b) Patricia <b>and</b> Siti are neighbours.
'But' is used to join two ideas that are opposites.	a) Param is poor <b>but</b> he is happy. b) He fell into the drain <b>but</b> was not hurt.
'Because' is used to show reason.	a) I did not go swimming <b>because</b> it was raining. b) We could not sleep <b>because</b> it was too hot.
'So' is used to show result.	a) It was raining, <b>so</b> the game was cancelled. b) She studied hard, <b>so</b> she passed the test.
'Or' is used to show a choice.	a) Do you prefer tea <b>or</b> coffee? b) You can order pizza <b>or</b> fried chicken.
'If' is used to show condition.	a) I will not go <b>if</b> Cindy goes. b) <b>If</b> you see Darus, tell him that Mrs Tan wants to see him.
'Although' is used to show two opposite statements.	a) <b>Although</b> she was sick, she still went to school. b) <b>Although</b> he is tired, he continues working.

<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>ADDITION</u></b></p> <p>further furthermore moreover in addition additionally then also too besides again equally important first, second finally, last</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>COMPARISON</u></b></p> <p>similarly comparable in the same way likewise as with equally just as ... so too a similar x another x like</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>CONTRAST</u></b></p> <p>however nevertheless on the other hand on the contrary even so notwithstanding alternatively at the same time though otherwise instead nonetheless conversely</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>TIME</u></b></p> <p>meanwhile presently at last finally immediately thereafter at that time subsequently eventually currently in the meantime in the past</p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>RESULT</u></b></p> <p>hence therefore accordingly consequently thus thereupon as a result in consequence so then</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>SUMMARY</u></b></p> <p>in short on the whole in other words to be sure clearly anyway on the whole in sum after all in general it seems in brief</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>EXAMPLE</u></b></p> <p>for example for instance that is such as as revealed by illustrated by specifically in particular for one thing this can be seen in an instance of this</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>PLACE</u></b></p> <p>there here beyond nearby next to at that point opposite to adjacent to on the other side in the front in the back</p>



## Approaches to the Study of the Synonymy (2)

- ▣ **Discourse analysis:** Synonymy enhances one of the most essential qualities of discourse – lexical cohesion (Cutting 2002):
  - When we arrived in the **New World**, there was no instruction manual teaching us how to deal with the conditions. ...Learning from our mistakes not only allowed us to survive, but also helped us to grow into a powerful and hugely **successful country**. ...Trying, failing, learning from our mistakes, and coming back stronger than ever is an essential part of the American archetype (Rapaille 2006: 134-135).

Re-thinking Synonymy, Helsinki 2010

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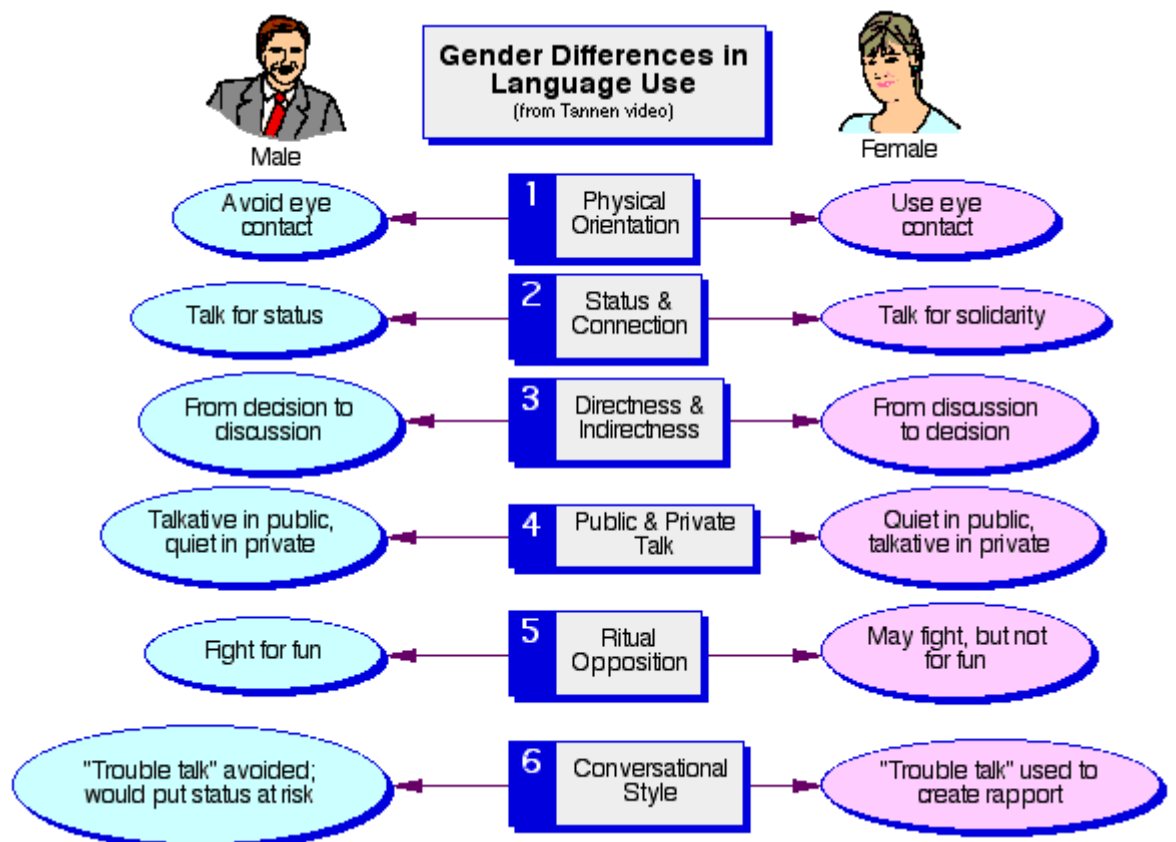
### LEXICAL COHESION

- Lexical Cohesion is a linguistic device which helps to create unity of text and discourse.
- Lexical cohesion deals with the meaning in text. "This is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

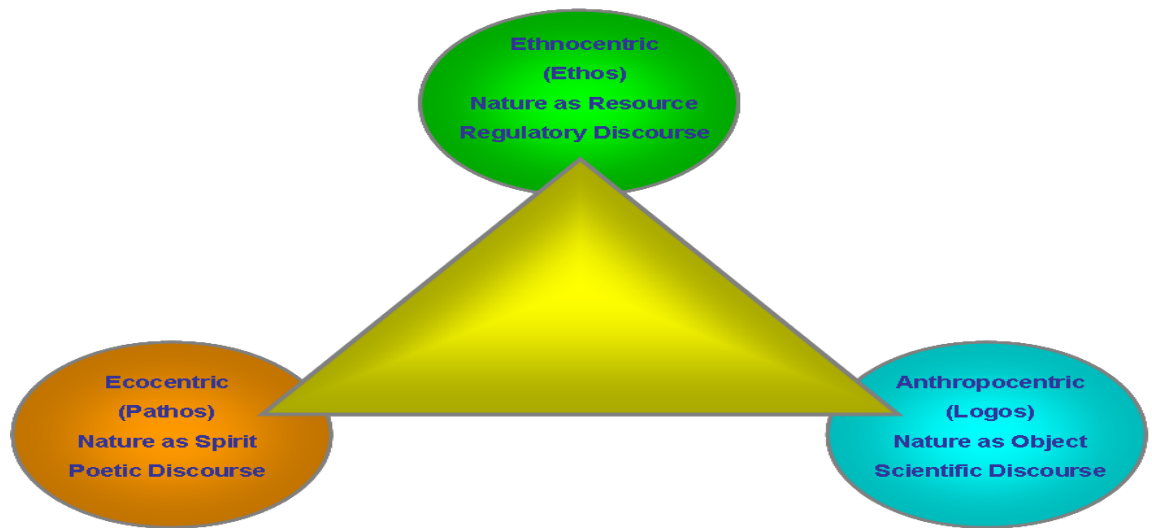
**Table 1: Types of discourse analysis (DA) viewed in terms of the three primary contextual parameters of field, tenor and mode**

Contextual parameter	contextual system in focus	example of special-purpose approaches to DA
tenor	power (status): control, dominance, inequality	Critical Linguistics (CL); Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)
	familiarity: inclusion, solidarity	Positive Discourse Analysis (PDA)
	institutional role: professional roles	professional DA
mode	turn: dialogic	CA (Conversation Analysis)
	"modality": multimodal	MDA (multimodal Discourse Analysis)
field	socio-semiotic process: recreating	stylistics, literary analysis, narrative analysis
	socio-semiotic process: (various)	media discourse analysis, medical discourse analysis, academic discourse analysis

Medium I	Medium II(?) or Interaction Type(?)	Super-genre or Function	Genres or Sub-genres
SPOKEN (300)	Dialogue (180)	Private (100)	face-to-face conversations (90) phone calls (10)
		Public (80)	classroom lessons (20) broadcast discussions (20) broadcast interviews (10) parliamentary debates (10) legal cross-examinations (10) business transactions (10)
	Monologue (100)	Unscripted (70)	spontaneous commentaries (20) unscripted speeches (30) demonstrations (10) legal presentations (10)
		Scripted (30)	broadcast talks (20) non-broadcast speeches (10)
	Mixed (20)		broadcast news (20)
WRITTEN (200)	Non-Printed (50)	Non-professional writing (20)	student essays (10) student examination scripts (10)
		Correspondence (30)	social letters (15) business letters (15)
	Printed (150)	Academic writing (40)	humanities (10) social sciences (10) natural sciences (10) technology (10)
		Non-academic writing (40)	humanities (10) social sciences (10) natural sciences (10) technology (10)
		Reportage (20)	press news reports (20)
		Instructional writing (20)	administrative/regulatory (10) skills/hobbies (10)
		Persuasive writing (10)	press editorials (10)
		Creative writing (20)	novels/stories (20)



# A Rhetorical model for environmental discourse



## American English



Apartment  
Candy  
Cookie  
Angry  
Diaper  
Elevator  
French fries  
Garbage/Trash  
Gas  
Movie  
Sidewalk  
Sneakers  
Vacation

## British English



Flat  
Sweets  
Biscuit  
Mad  
Nappy  
Lift  
Chips  
Rubbish  
Petrol  
Film  
Pavement  
Trainers  
Holiday(s)

## TESTLAR

(Joriy nazorat uchun) (*Semester Three*)

1. The analysis of discourse is seen to have been necessarily identified identically serving as the analysis of language in ....  
a. use            b. usage            c. both a, and b            d. either a, or b
2. Discourse analysis is said to have been assigned to describe the linguistic ...  
a. forms            b. forms and functions            c. forms, functions and purposes  
d. forms, functions, purposes and procedures
3. Discourse analysis is assigned to describe the linguistic forms as have been associated with ...  
a. purposes            b. functions            c. both a, and b            d. either a, or b
4. Discourse analysis is seen to have been scholastically capitalized on in the characterization of linguistic forms independent of ... which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs .  
a. purposes            b. functions            c. both a, and b            d. neither a, nor b
5. Discourse analysts are seen to have been reported primarily engaging themselves with the assignment of ...  
a. investigating what language is used for determining  
b. the formal properties of a language  
c. both a, and b  
d. neither a, or b
6. Brown and Yule (1983/9:1) are seen to have claimed that the .... approach is more well documented.  
a. formal            b. functional            c. interactional            d. transactional
7. Attempts to provide a general set of labels for the principal functions of language are seen to have often resulted in ... terminology.  
a. vague            b. confusing            c. both a, and b            d. neither a, nor b
8. A natural language utterance is seen to have been justifiably qualified to fulfill no more than ... function(s).  
a. one            b. two            c. three            d. None of the above
9. The function which language serves in the expression of 'content' is seen to have been inherently rendered ...  
a. interactional            b. instrumental            c. transactional            d. interpersonal
10. The function manipulated in expressing social relations and personal attitudes is documented to have been rendered ... in category.  
a. ideational            b. referential            c. descriptive            d. None of the above
11. The dichotomy of *transactional/interactional* is seen to have been distinguished generally standing in correspondence to Halliday's (1970b) functional dichotomy of ...  
a. emotive/referential            b. ideational/interpersonal  
c. expressive/representative            d. social-expressive/descriptive
12. Jakobson (1960) is reported to have technically introduced the functional dichotomy of ...  
a. referential / emotive            b. ideational /interpersonal  
c. representative /expressive            d. descriptive / social-expressive
13. Linguists and linguistic philosophers are reported to have nonetheless generally assumed that the most important function of language is ...  
a. to communicate information            b. to perform communicative functions  
c. both a, and b            d. either a, or b
14. Lyons (1977:32) is denied to have observed that the notions of communication is readily used of ...  
a. feelings            b. feelings and attitudes  
c. feelings, attitudes and moods            d. None of the above

15. Lyons (1977:32) is said to have primarily shown deep interest in
- the intentional transmission of factual or propositional meaning
  - the notion of communication readily used of feelings, moods and attitudes
  - both a, and b
  - neither a, nor b

Answers: 1. a 2. c 3. c 4. d 5. a 6. a 7. b 8. d 9. c 10. d 11. b 12. a 13. a 14. c 15. a

**Continuous assessment on discourse analysis - Term 4**  
(for the 2<sup>nd</sup> year students)

**1. Choose the right form of turn taking of the following sentence:**

*I have something to say (on this point).*

- Interrupting
- accepting the turn when offered it
- speaking first
- signalling that you are going to continue

**2. Find the right example for offering other people the chance to speak in turn taking.**

- How did you get out of that?
- I'm still thinking about what I want to say.
- No, it's okay. I've forgotten what I was going to say.
- Sorry. What were you saying?
- Or am I just talking nonsense?

**3. Cataphoric reference is ...**

- a word that refers back to a word earlier in the sentence or text
- a word that refers forward to a word later in the sentence or text.
- a reference to something outside the discourse
- a key word which is used continuously throughout the text, especially when we wish to emphasis something.

**4. Choose the right expressions in the gaps:**

Woman: You must talk to our daughter! I think she's fallen in love with Mr Zhang, who has no job and no money!

Man: Mr Zhang is a bad choice, but \_\_\_\_\_. She's too young to fall in love with anybody!

- I don't agree that...
- I admit that...
- That doesn't make sense.
- That's beside the point.

**5. What is substitution?**

- It is a language to get things done or to transmit content or information.
- It is a device used to avoid repetition or shorten phrases.
- It is an alteration that is suggested or made by a speaker, the addressee, or audience in order to correct or clarify a previous conversational contribution.
- all are correct

**6. What is false start in conversation?**

- It is about linking ideas or concepts and controlling threads and relationships over the whole text.
- a feature of discourse that helps texts hang together.
- This is when the speaker begins an utterance, then stops and either repeats or reformulates it.
- It is an item which doesn't carry conventional meaning but which is inserted in speech to allow time to think, to create a pause or to hold a turn in conversation.

**7. Choose the right answer: They are key words which are used continuously throughout the text, especially when we wish to emphasis something.**

- ellipsis
- reference
- repetition
- substitution

**8. What is turn taking?**

- a) It is a language to get things done or to transmit content or information
- b) It is an approach to discourse analysis which focuses less on structures and more on contexts and purposes of people talking to each other.
- c) It is using the distinctive lexis from the same group of people, usually sharing the same occupation.
- d) It is a time during which a single participant speaks, within a typical, orderly arrangement in which participants speak with minimal overlap and gap between them.

**9. Choose the right expressions in the gaps:**

Woman: You must talk to our daughter! I think she's fallen in love with Mr Zhang, who has no job and no money!

Man: \_\_\_\_\_ she's fallen in love. They're just good friends!

- a. I don't agree that...
- b. I admit that...
- c. That doesn't make sense.
- d. That's beside the point.

**10. Find the right turn taking instruction for the following sentence:**

*Although you probably know more about this than me, ...*

- a) stopping other people interrupting
- b) speaking first
- c) signalling that you are going to continue speak
- d) offering other people the chance to speak

**11. Find the right turn taking instruction for the following sentence:**

*You might think that is all there is to say on the matter, but ... .*

- a) getting the other person to speak first
- b) asking for more details
- c) changing your mind about interrupting
- d) signalling that you are going to continue

**12. Find the right turn taking instruction for the following sentence:**

I know you're dying to jump in, but...

- a) turning down the chance to speak
- b) changing your mind about interrupting
- c) signalling that you are going to continue
- d) stopping other people interrupting

**13. Choose the right ending: Paralinguistic features ....**

- d) typical and normal characteristics of spoken language that interrupt the 'flow' of talk. Some examples: hesitations, false starts, fillers, repetitions [though can be used for emphasis], overlaps and interruptions.
- b) an approach to discourse analysis which focuses less on structures and more on contexts and purposes of people talking to each other.
- c) includes features such as stress, rhythm, pitch, tempo and intonation – which are used by speakers to mark out key meanings in a message.
- d) related to body language – it is the use of gestures, facial expressions + other non-verbal elements [such as laughter] to add meaning to the speakers message beyond the words being spoken.

**14. Choose the right expressions in the gaps:**

Woman: You must talk to our daughter! I think she's fallen in love with Mr Zhang, who has no job and no money!

Man: \_\_\_\_\_. She told me yesterday that she wants to find a rich businessman to marry.

- a. I don't agree that...
- b. I admit that...
- c. That doesn't make sense.
- d. That's beside the point.

**15. Choose the right answer: ... is a lexical relation where 'two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation'**

- a) homophony
- b) homography
- c) homonymy
- d) polysemy

**16. Find examples for homonyms.**

- a) The words like *bare/bear, meat/meet, flour/flower, pail/pale, right/write, sew/so* and *to/too/two* are **homonyms**.

b) *a windy day*, but *a long and windy road*; *a live concert*, but *where do you live?*; *a lead pipe*, but *a lead singer*. These are called **homonyms**.

c) *bat* (flying creature) – *bat* (used in sports)

*mole* (on skin) – *mole* (small animal)

*race* (contest of speed) – *race* (ethnic group), etc. are called **homonyms**.

d) *foot* (of person, of bed, of mountain) or *run* (person does, water does, colors do) are examples for **homonyms**

**17. Choose the right expressions in the gaps:**

Woman: You must talk to our daughter! I think she's fallen in love with Mr Zhang, who has no job and no money!

Man: \_\_\_\_\_ Mr Zhang is poor, but he's a very nice man.

a. I don't agree that...

b. I admit that...

c. That doesn't make sense.

d. That's beside the point.

**18. What type of interview is described here?**

The objective of this interview is to ask for advice and learn more about a particular career field, employer or particular job.

a) *screening or telephone interview*

b) *informational interview*

c) *individual interview*

d) *task oriented or testing interview*

**19. What kind of interview is *task oriented or testing interview*?**

a) It is a very cost effective way to screen candidates. These can last anywhere from 10 to 30 minutes. You should prepare for it like an open book exam. It is recommended that you have in front of you your resume, the job description, a list of references, some prepared answers to challenging questions and perhaps something about the company.

b) It is typically a one-on-one exchange at the organizations offices. In order to best prepare you will want to know the length of the interview which can usually range from 30 to 90 minutes.

c) It's an efficient way to interview candidates and allows for different interpretations or perceptions of the same answer. Be sure to make eye contact with everyone, no matter who asked the question.

d) This is a problem-solving interview where you will be given some exercises to demonstrate your creative and analytical abilities. A company may ask you to take a short test to evaluate your technical knowledge and skills.

**20. Choose the right word to have best phrase: achieving ...**

a) ideas

b) information

c) objectives

d) initiation

**21. Choose the right answer: A series of promotions towards more senior positions.**

a) *career ladder*

b) *career prospects*

c) *career plan*

d) *career move*

**22. Choose the answer: If you have reached the interview stage, your CV and letter of application must have been ...!**

a) effective

b) important

c) significant

d) impressive

**23. Choose the answer: Make a list of the skills, experience, and interests you can ... the organization in the interview.**

a) show

b) present

c) offer

d) demonstrate

**24. Choose the right answer: Chances of future success in your career**

a) *career ladder*

b) *career prospects*

c) *career plan*

d) *career move*

**25. Choose the right continuation: In initiation-response-evaluation process ...**

a) The teacher's role is to ask questions in order to pursue the desired answer but only a few students are actively involved.

b) The teacher gives either directive or informative statements. The students do not respond verbally, however, they understand the statements as instructions by following them physically.

c) It is a more complex structure with less-well defined rules. The teacher asks referential questions or thinking questions and the students are encouraged to give longer answers through their thinking.

d) It is more or less like probing questions where the teacher challenges the student in order to have him to justify his reason.

**26. Choose the right answer: What structures has classroom discourse or language?**

a) initiation-response-evaluation, spoken (speaking and listening), written language (reading and writing)

b) initiation-response-evaluation, instructions, probing questions and argumentation.

c) graphic representation (diagrams, pictures, graphs), the 'active' mode (performing, demonstrating and physical involvement), probing questions and argumentation.

d) initiation-response-evaluation, instructions, verbal and non-verbal forms, classroom environment.

**27. Choose the right words following proper instructions**

Today I am going to tell you how to make the best sandwich in the world. ..., you must roast a chicken and slice it into thick pieces. ... toast your favourite bread (two slices). ... you need to put mayonnaise and mustard on the toast and then the chicken slices. ... you are going to add your vegetables. Tomatoes, lettuce onions, cucumbers etc. ... put a couple slices of cheese on the sandwich and then close it with the other piece of toast.

a) First. Next. Then, After that, Finally

b) Next, First, After that, Finally, Then

c) First, Then, After that, Next, Finally

d) First, After that, Then, Next, Finally

**28. Choose the right answer: Some words have different meanings and are spelled differently but they sound identical. They are ...**

a) homographs

b) homonyms

c) homophones

d) a and c

**29. Find the right answer in which English sounds is different from the spelling of the words.**

a) pea, bee, scenic, believe, perceive, subpoena

b) measure, resume, social.

c) busy, butter, bury

d) product, pro'duce, pro'duction, repro'duction

**30. Choose the words which have most important syllable that is "stressed" more than the others.**

a) imPORTant, communiCation, YESterday, toMORrow, PHOtograph, phoTOGraphy

b) IMportant, communicaTION, yesterDAY, tomorROW, PHOtograph, phoTOGraphy

c) imPORTant, COMmunication, YESterday, TOMorrow, phoTOGraph, PHOTOgraphy

d) imPORTant, communiCation, YESterday, TOMorrow, photoGRAPH, PHOTOgraphy

**31. Choose the right turn taking language of the following sentence:**

I haven't quite finished my point yet.

a) accepting the turn when offered it

b) stopping other people interrupting

c) interrupting

d) signalling that you are going to continue

**32. Choose the right answer: The differences between male and female communication styles are related to power and social status.**

a) True

b) False

**33. Choose the right answer: Muted group theorists suggest that women talk more than do men, especially in public situations.**

a) True

b) False

**34. Choose the right answer: It helps in the process of arranging thought, linking one idea to another. It often gives access to information or alternative ideas that help understanding, as in discussion, in listening to someone else or in reading a book.**

a) argumentation

b) communication

c) discussion

d) persuasion

**35. Choose the right word to have best phrase: showing ...**

a) ideas

b) deadlines

c) initiative

d) budgets



**Diskurs tahlili fanidan 2-kurs talabalari uchun  
TOPSHIRIQLAR  
(Oraliq nazorat uchun) (Semester Three)**

**Assignment 1. Task on written discourse analysis**

Text type: fiction

Focus: referencing

**Look at the text and read it. Answer the questions below.**

*The<sup>1</sup> schoolmaster was leaving the<sup>2</sup> village, and everybody<sup>3</sup> seemed sorry. The<sup>4</sup> miller at Cresscombe lent him<sup>5</sup> the small white tilted cart and horse to carry his goods to the city of his destination, about twenty miles off, such<sup>6</sup> a vehicle proving of quite sufficient size for the departing teacher's effects.*

1. How many schoolmasters were there in the village? How do you know?
2. Does the reader already know which village is meant here?
3. Who does this refer to?
4. How many millers were there at Cresscombe? How do you know?
5. Who does this refer to?
6. A vehicle like what?
7. Which of these references are anaphoric and which are exophoric?

**Assignment 2. Task on spoken discourse analysis**

*Text type:* conversation at a travel agent's

*Focus:* conversational moves

Based on the task from McCarthy M (1991) *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. CUP. p.173

**Read the script and answer the questions below.**

1. Can you put the moves of this discourse into an order that produces a coherent conversation?
2. The conversation takes place at a travel agent's. What clues do you use to establish the correct order?
3. Are there any moves that are easier to place than others; and if so, why?  
'you haven't no, no.'  
'No ... in Littlewoods is it?'  
'I'm awfully sorry, we haven't ... um I don't know where you can try for Bath actually.'  
'Can I help you?'  
'Okay thanks.'  
'Yeah they're inside there now.'  
'Um have you by any chance got anything on Bath?'  
'Um I don't really know ... you could try perhaps Pickfords in Littlewoods, they might be able to help you.'
4. Think of a typical encounter with a stranger in the street (e.g. asking the way, asking for change). What is the minimum number of moves necessary to complete a polite exchange in a language that you know other than English?

**Final task on Discourse analysis (for the 2<sup>nd</sup> year students)**

**Task 1. Read the following text. Connect some parts of sentences in order that they have a right coherence. (Coherence is a state or situation in which all the parts or ideas fit together well so that they form a united whole.)**

Bobby was a Skye Terrier roaming the streets of Edinburgh in the 1850s until he met John Grey. Grey worked as a night watchman in the Edinburgh police and Bobby kept him company. The winters in Edinburgh can be very cold and one day Grey fell sick with tuberculosis. This was a fatal disease back in the 1800s and on 15 February 1858, Grey died.

Bobby followed him to his grave at Greyfriars Kirkyard in the old part of Edinburgh and he did not leave the grave except for when he was hungry or very cold.

People started to notice the dog in the churchyard and they started worrying about Bobby because the City of Edinburgh had decided that ownerless dogs should be shot. However, the city council bought him a licence and he could keep on watching his master's grave. Bobby survived his master by 14 years, and when he died in 1872 he was buried just inside the gate of the churchyard. He could not be buried together with his master, since church ground is sacred.

**Task 2. Choose the correct discourse markers or conjunctions for each sentence - each is only used once. Explain why you chose these (in 50 words)**

*Moreover / on the other hand / at least / however / besides / firstly / whereas / then / actually / though*

**However / namely / in addition / otherwise / even though**

1. I had a terrible day at work and lost my umbrella too. ... I spoke to that nice guy who works in the coffee shop at last!
2. Television turns people into lazy couch potatoes. ..., there are some educational programmes on.
3. ..., I would like to welcome you all to the conference today.
4. ... the film was a little boring, we still had a nice evening out..
5. I've always known Caroline as a mean person. ..., she lent me \$10 yesterday without me having to ask twice!
6. I got up at 9 o'clock yesterday and had a cold shower. ..., I had breakfast and left for work.
7. My brother works in a large office ... I work on my own at home.
8. Why do you think I don't want to go out tonight. ..., I would be delighted to get out of the house.
9. You should go to university as it gives you a chance to meet so many new people. ..., it gives you the chance to get important qualifications and get a better job.
10. I don't want to go to the football game. Football bores me and I don't want to pay \$40 for a ticket. ..., look at the weather! All that rain!
11. Polls show that Tony Blair is the most popular Prime Minister this century. ..., there are even members of his own party who are uneasy with his approach.
12. The two main Channel Islands, ... Jersey and Guernsey, are much closer to France than to England.
13. In order to try to reduce car use in the inner cities, the government has announced new restrictions on company parking spaces and ..., a new tax on individual car use.
14. Essays must be handed in by the deadline, ... they will not be marked.

15. ... it has been shown that fractures can occur at even relatively low pressures, the use of the material should not be completely discounted.

**Task 2. In each sentence there are two synonyms. Find and underline them.**

For ex.: This law is far from perfect. We need to change parts of it to make it fair.

Unfortunately, it's difficult to amend a law.

1. That woman's remarks are always rude! Why can't she keep her comments to herself?

2. Don't expend too much energy on that game or you won't have enough left to use on homework.

3. You shouldn't make a big deal about Sam's errors when you haven't even corrected your own mistakes!

4. I'll create a new account for you if you make a list of features you want it to have.

5. Carefully observe the behavior of John's sister Ashley. If you study her actions, you'll understand why John says she's weird.

6. Jordan is a very smart girl. She's intelligent enough to solve puzzles that some adults can't handle.

7. The smell of your shoes is a most unpleasant odor.

8. The smell of that flower is a very pleasant fragrance.

**Task 4. Choose the right answer:**

1. It was the most beautiful thing he had ever seen. The yellow Ferrari was parked in the yard wrapped in a bow. (This is an example of a:

1. Exophoric reference      2. Anaphoric reference

3. Cataphoric reference      4. Opaque compound

2. Larry had never been to China. He had always wanted to go there. (This sentence contains:

1. Two cataphoric references

2. one anaphoric and one cataphoric references

3. Two anaphoric references

4. None of the other answers are correct.

3. Ellipsis when:

1. You write a lot

2. You add something to a text to give extra information.

3. You cut something in a text that you know people will understand

4. You don't use the right word to say what you want to say.

4. Joe and Wendy went to the concert. But \_\_\_\_\_ liked it very much, although the audience gave a standing ovation

1. none                              3. both

2. nobody                            4. neither

5. The school children went to meet the prime minister when he came to their school.

\_\_\_\_\_ was given a souvenir of the occasion.

1. Each                                      3. Everyone

2. All of them                              4. All

6. As explained in the \_\_\_\_\_ chapter, history often repeats itself.

1. former                                    3. later

2. previous                                   4. above

7. Some people agreed with the war. \_\_\_\_\_ were in total disagreement.
1. Other
  2. Only
  3. Others
  4. other ones
8. True or False: An exophoric reference is a reference in the text to something outside the text.
1. false
  2. True
9. A cataphoric reference refers:
1. Backward
  2. Inside
  3. Outside
  4. Forward
10. an anaphoric reference refers
1. Backward
  2. Inside
  3. Forward
  4. Outside