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Ўқув-методик кенгаш 10-сонли
Ингилишнинг баёнмасидан
К ў Ч И Р М А

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Бухоро шаҳри

К У Н Т А Р Т И Б И:

1. Турли масалалар.

Инглиз тилшунослиги кафедраси ўқитувчиси Усмонова Зарина Ҳабибовнанинг 5120100-Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш: таълим йўналиши учун “Коммуникатив лексика модулидан мустақил таълим учун” деб номланган услубий қўлланмани тавсия этиш.

Э Ш И Т И Л Д И:

М.Ю. Фарманова (кенгаш котибаси) Инглиз тилшунослиги кафедраси ўқитувчиси Усмонова Зарина Ҳабибовнанинг 5120100-Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш: таълим йўналиши учун “Коммуникатив лексика модулидан мустақил таълим учун” деб номланган услубий қўлланмани қўлланмани нашрга тавсия этишни маълум қилди. Ушбу услубий қўлланмага: Инглиз тилшунослиги кафедраси доценти (PhD) Н.С. Қобилова ва Инглиз адабиётшунослиги кафедраси мудири (PhD) О.М. Файзуллаевлар томонидан ижобий тақриз берилгани таъкидланди. Услубий қўлланма муҳокамаси ҳақидаги Хорижий тиллар факультети (2021 йил 27 май) ва Инглиз тилшунослиги кафедраси (2021 йил 26 май) йиғилиш қарори билан таништирди.

Юқоридагиларни инobatга олиб ўқув-методик кенгаш

Қ А Р О Р Қ И Л А Д И:

1. Инглиз тилшунослиги кафедраси ўқитувчиси Усмонова Зарина Ҳабибовнанинг 5120100-Филология ва тилларни ўқитиш: таълим йўналиши учун “Коммуникатив лексика модулидан мустақил таълим учун” деб номланган услубий қўлланмани нашрга тавсия этилсин.
2. Ушбу қарорни тасдиқлаш университет Кенгашидан сўралсин.

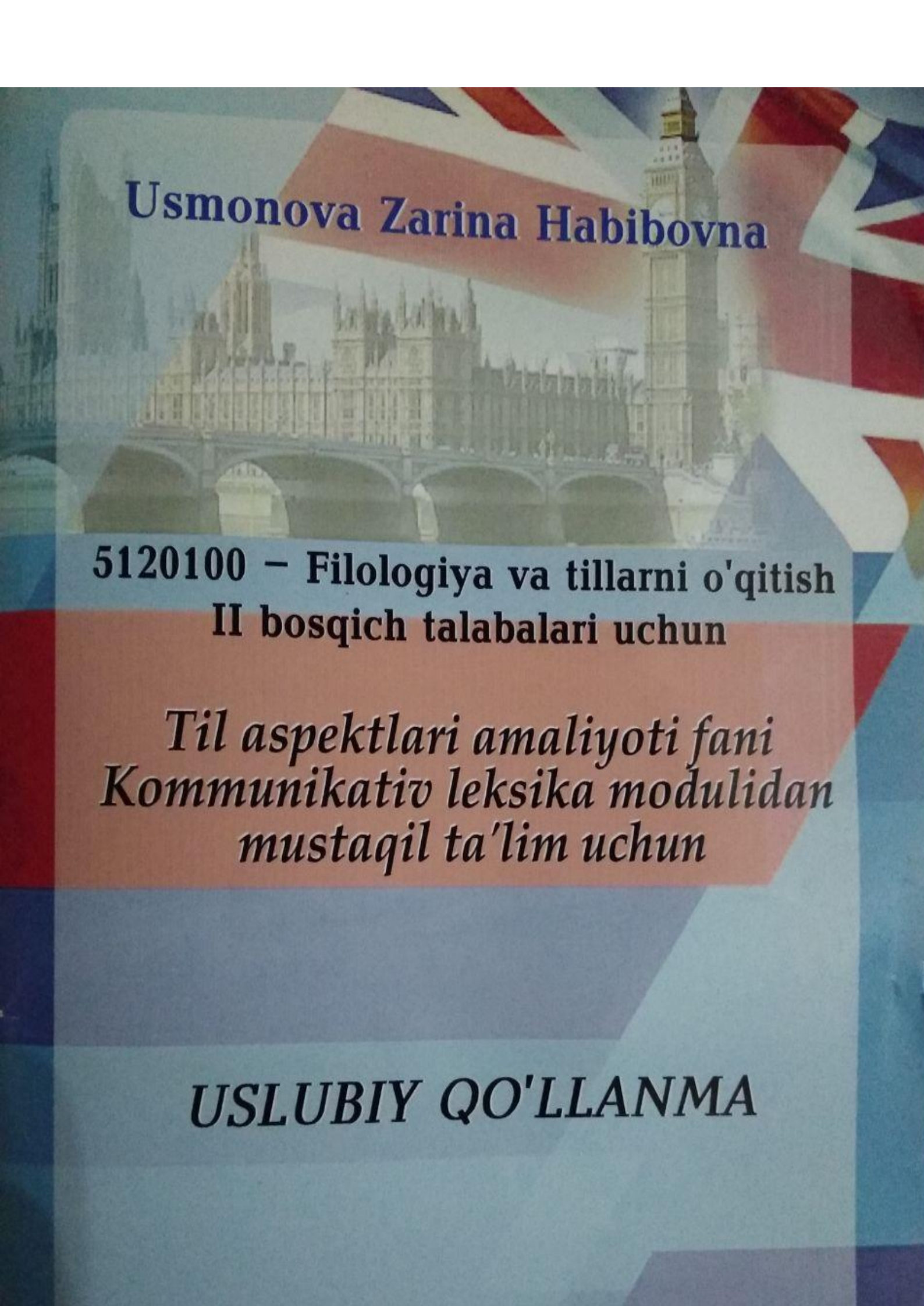
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М.И. Даминов

Ўқув-методик кенгаш котиби

М.Ю. Фарманова





Usmonova Zarina Habibovna

**5120100 – Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish
II bosqich talabalari uchun**

*Til aspektlari amaliyoti fani
Kommunikativ leksika modulidan
mustaqil ta'lim uchun*

USLUBIY QO'LLANMA

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Til aspektlari amaliyoti fani

**Kommunikativ leksika modulidan
mustaqil ta'lim uchun**

USLUBIY QO'LLANMA

“Iste'dod” -2021

Z.Usmonova “Kommunikativ leksika” moduli bo’yicha mustaqil ishlash uchun uslubiy qo’llanma. Buxoro-2021.

Mazkur uslubiy qo’llanma “Kommunikativ leksika” moduli bo’yicha mustaqil ishlash uchun oliy ta’limning 5120100 – Filologiya va tillarni o’qitish ta’lim yo’nalishi II bosqich bakalavriat talabalari uchun mo’ljalangan bo’lib, u “Til aspektlari amaliyoti” fanidan O’zbekiston Respublikasi OO’MTVning 2018-yil 27-iyundagi 6-sonli buyrug’ining 2-ilovasi bilan tasdiqlangan namunaviy dastur asosida tuzilgan.

Uslubiy qo’llanmada talabalarning mustaqil ravishda og’zaki nutq va yozma nutq matnlariga xos xususiyatlarni farqlay olishi va ijtimoiy-madaniy mavzulardagi so’zlarning ma’nosini bilishi va to’g’ri qo’llay olishi, til aspektlarini o’rgatish, muloqot malakalarini rivojlantirish, gapirish va o’qish ko’nikmalarini shakllantirish hamda kommunikativ mashqlar asosida bu ko’nikmalarni rivojlantirish maqsadida turli xorijiy adabiyotlarning matnlaridan parchalar berilgan, shuningdek, matnlar asosida matnda mos so’zlarni joylashtirish, ibora hamda og’zaki nutqda qo’llaniladigan so’zlarning ko’chma va to’g’ri ma’nosini qo’llash, lug’at boyligini oshiruvchi va matn o’qib bo’lingandan so’ng (post) bajariladigan mashqlar o’z ifodasini topgan.

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Ushbu “Kommunikativ leksika” modulidan uslubiy qo’llanma BuxDU metodik kengashining “29”- may 2021-yil 10-yig’ilishi qarori bilan nashrga tavsiya qilingan.

KIRISH

Mamlakatimizda “Chet tillarni o’rganish tizimini yanada takomillashtirish chora-tadbirlari to’g’risida”gi PQ 1875-sonli qarorning qabul qilinishi hozirgi kunda ta’lim tizimining barcha bosqichlarida talabalarga chet tillarini uzluksiz o’rganishni tashkil qilish, zamonaviy o’quv-uslubiy materiallar bilan ta’minlashni yanada takomillashtirish, shuningdek, zamonaviy pedagogik va axborot-kommunikasiya texnologiyalaridan foydalanib chet tillarni o’rganish, lug’at boyligini oshirish uchun manbalar (lug’atlar, registrlar, so’z ko’rsatkichlari va boshqalar) o’rganilgan bilim, ko’nikmalarni mustaqil ravishda amalda qo’llashga o’rgatish chet tili o’qituvchisi zimmasidagi eng katta mas’uliyat hisoblanadi.

Mazkur “Kommunikativ leksika” moduli bo’yicha mustaqil ishlash uchun tayyorlangan uslubiy qo’llanma oliy ta’limning filologiya va tillarni o’qitish ta’lim yo’nalishi II bosqich bakalavriat talabalari uchun mo’ljallangan bo’lib, u “Til aspektlari amaliyoti” fanidan O’zbekiston Respublikasi OO’MTVning 2018-yil 27-iyundagi 6-sonli buyrug’ining 2-ilovasi bilan tasdiqlangan namunaviy dastur asosida tayyorlangan.

Ushbu uslubiy qo’llanma talabalarning mustaqil ravishda lug’at boyligini oshirish va lug’at boyligini boyitib borishning maqbul usullaridan foydalanishni o’rgatish hamda o’rganilayotgan chet tili leksikasining muloqotdagi xususiyatlarini farqlash va muloqotda qo’llay olish qobiliyatlarini rivojlantirishga qaratilgan.

From the author

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Lesson 1: Types of meanings: synonyms, antonyms and homonym

Synonyms

Synonyms (*Gr. synonymous* “of like meaning”, *syn* – “with”, *onyma* – “name”) are words belonging to the same part of speech, differing in sound form, and possessing one or more identical or nearly identical (similar) denotational meanings. English is very rich in synonyms. An elementary dictionary of synonyms contains over 8 000 synonyms. The existence of the so-called absolute synonyms (e.g. looking-glass/mirror, fatherland/homeland, etc.) is a very rare phenomenon because in the course of language

development numerous old names for the same object underwent the process of differentiation and the words came to have either a different shade of meaning or usage.

A synonym is a word or phrase that means exactly or nearly the same as another word or phrase in the same language.¹ Words that are synonyms are said to be synonymous, and the state of being a synonym is called synonymy. For example, the words begin, start, commence, and initiate are all synonyms of one another. Words are typically synonymous in one particular sense: for example, long and extended in the context long time or extended time are synonymous, but long cannot be used in the phrase extended family. Synonyms with the exact same meaning share a seme or denotational sememe, whereas those with inexactly similar meanings share a broader denotational or connotational sememe and thus overlap within a semantic field. The former are sometimes called cognitive synonyms and the latter, near-synonyms.

For example: ask- inquire, mistake-error, centre-middle, choose-select, huge- enormous, dear- expensive, neat – tidy, old- ancient, idea- thought, write- record, yearly- annually, laugh-giggle.

Thus, we divide synonyms into the following groups: ideographic, stylistic, contextual, total and phraseological synonyms.

1. Ideographic synonyms denote different shades of meaning or degrees of a given quality. They sometimes called relative synonyms, e.g. *1. beautiful, fine, handsome, pretty, pleasant*

¹ <https://studopedia.su>

2. *different, various*

3. *large, great, huge, tremendous, colossal*

2. Stylistic synonyms are differed in usage and style,

e.g. 1. *doctor (official), doc (familiar)*

2. *examination (official), exam (coll.)*

3. *to commence (official), to begin (coll.)*

3. Contextual (context-dependent) synonyms are similar in meaning in certain context. For example, the verbs to buy and to get would not generally be taken as synonyms, but they are synonyms in the following context: I'll go to the shop and buy some bread/ I'll go to the shop and get some bread.

4. Total synonyms can replace each other in any given context without the slightest alteration in denotative or emotional meaning and connotations. Examples of this type can be found in special literature among terms belonging to this or that branch of knowledge. It must be noted that it is a very special kind of synonymy: neither ideographic nor stylistic oppositions are possible here. Thus, in linguistics the terms noun and substantive, functional affix, flexion and inflection are identical in meaning.

5. Phraseological synonyms. The same misunderstood conception of interchangeability lies at the bottom of considering different dialect names for the same plant, animal, etc. Thus, the cornflower is so called because it grows in cornfields; some people call it bluebottle according to the shape and colour of its petals.

Each group of synonyms comprises a synonymic dominant – the unit possessing the most general meaning of the kind, e.g. to shine: to flash, to blaze, to gleam, to glisten, to sparkle, to glitter, to shimmer, to glimmer. You can find these from word list:

Synonym word list

Above / over

garbage/trash

raise / lift

Car / auto

woman / lady

under / below

<i>large / big</i>	<i>own / possess</i>	<i>tired / sleepy</i>
<i>small / tiny</i>	<i>false / untrue</i>	<i>crash /</i>
<i>accident</i>		
<i>stop/ cease</i>	<i>shack / hut</i>	<i>crate / box</i>
<i>exit/ leave</i>	<i>rug / carpet</i>	<i>sniff / smell</i>
<i>rest/ relax</i>	<i>leap / jump</i>	<i>jog / run</i>

Antonyms

Antonyms are defined as words of the same category of parts of speech which have contrasting meaning, e.g. hot – cold, light – dark, up-down, happiness – sorrow. For example:

go/come	front/ back	freeze/thaw
loud/quiet	rich/poor	lead /follow
wet / dry	smile/ frown	throw/catch
dirty / clean	up /down	push/pull

Antonyms fall into two main groups:

1. Root or absolute antonyms (those which are of different roots). These are words regularly contrasted as homogeneous sentence members connected by copulative, disjunctive conjunctions, or identically used in parallel constructions, in certain typical configurations (typical context).

e.g. He was alive – not dead (Shaw)

You will see if you were right or wrong

2. Derivational antonyms (affixal). The affixes in them serve to deny the quality stated in the stem. The contrast is implied in the morphological structure of the word itself.

e.g. appear – disappear, happiness – unhappiness, logical – illogical, pleasant – unpleasant.

There are typical affixes and typical patterns that take part in forming these derivational antonyms. The examples of given below

prefixes prevail. They have negative meaning (dis-, il-/im-/in-/ir-, un-).

As to the suffixes it should be noted that modern English gives no examples of words forming their antonyms by adding a negative suffix, e.g. the suffix *-less* (hopeless::hopeful, useless::useful).

In most cases when the language possesses words with the suffix *-less*, the antonymic pairs found in actual speech are formed with the prefix *un-*. Thus, the antonymic opposition is not *selfish::selfless* but *selfish::unselfish*

The difference between absolute and derivational antonyms is not only morphological but semantic as well. Thus, according to the relationship between the notions expressed antonyms may be characterized as contradictory (derivational antonyms) or contrary (absolute antonyms). A pair of derivational antonyms from a binary opposition, where the absolute antonyms are polar members of a gradual opposition,

e.g. *young – old; beautiful:: pretty:: good-looking:: plain – ugly*

Many antonyms are explained by means of the negative particle,

e.g. *clean - not dirty; shallow – not deep*

Not only words, but set expressions as well, can be grouped into antonymic pairs,

e.g. *by accident – on purpose, up to par – below par*

It is important to remember that antonyms form mostly pairs, not groups like synonyms,

e.g. *above – below, absent – present, alike – different*

Polysemantic words may have antonyms in some of their meanings and none in others. When *criticism* means ‘*censure*’ its antonym is *praise*; when it means writing critical essays dealing with the works of some author’, it can have no antonym. For instance,

always/ newer near/ messy

ask/ tell open/ shut

dear/ cheap quiet/noisy

dull/ bright	success/ failure
early/late	thick / thin
gentle/rough	visible/ invisible
lough/cry	rough/ smooth
join/ separate	kind/ mean

Homonyms.

Homonyms are words which are identical in sound and spelling or, at least at one of these aspects, but different in their meaning and distribution.

e.g. *bank, n – a shore*

bank, n – an institution for receiving, lending, exchanging, and safe guarding money.

fit, n – perfectly fitting clothes

fit, n – a nervous spasm

The following joke is based on these homonyms: “*A tailor guarantees to give each of his customers a perfect fit*”.

air/hair	flow/ floe	dough/ doe
faze/phase	hoarse/ horse	sole/ soul
groan/grown	mown/ moan	fare/ fair
might/mite	peal/ peel	wait/ weight
pane/pain	rough/ ruff	lays/ laze

There are several classifications of homonyms. The traditional formal classification of homonyms is as follows:

1. Homonyms proper (Absolute homonyms) are words identical in pronunciation and spelling,

e. g. *Ball (мяч) – ball (бал), to bore– bore, to bark –bark*

2. Partial homonyms subdivided into:

a) homographs - words different in sound and in meaning but accidentally identical in spelling, e.g. *bow (лук) – bow (ніс корабля), lead (свинець) – to lead (вести), row (ряд) – row (прогулянка на лодці), tear (розрив) – tear (сльоза).*

b) homophones – words of the same sound but of different spelling and meaning, e.g. *night (ніч) – knight (лицар), piece (шматочок) – peace (мир), rite (звичай, обряд) – to write (писати) – right (правильно), sea (море) – see (бачити) – С (літера алфавіту), bye (бувай) – by(біля), steel*

(сталь) – steal (красти).

The play-wright on my right thinks it right that some conventional rite should symbolize the right of every man to write as he pleases. In this sentence the sound complex [rait] is noun, adjective, adverb and verb, has four different spellings and six different meanings.

1. Answer the questions:

1. What is the main features of synonyms do you know?
2. What type of synonyms are there in English?
3. What types of antonyms do you know?
4. What is the difference between root and affixal antonyms?
5. How do you distinguish homophone and homograph?

2. Bingo activities on synonyms and antonyms

The objective of the game:

- to give students an opportunity to make synonymic pair and antonymic pair.

Synonym bingo (students' card)

Card 1					Card 2			
Dear					careful		scared	
	rude	Scared	Unhappy		insane		strange	
Evil		Terrible				Keen		Wealthy
Card 3					Card 4			
	dear					handsome	strange	
Careful		marvelous	Optimistic			Rude		well-mannered
	glad		Stubborn		giddy		terrible	
Card 5					Card 6			
Glad			Wealthy		careful			nice
Insane		Nice					marvelous	
	keen	Terrible			dear	handsome		Stubborn
Card 7					Card 8			
Evil			Rude		handsome		strange	
	huge		Unhappy		huge	optimistic		
		optimistic	well-		keen			well-

			mannered				mannered
Card 9				Card 10			
Giddy	glad			evil	insane		
			Stubborn			nice	Scared
	huge	marvelous	Wealthy	giddy			Unhappy

(teacher's board)

Awful (terrible)	1	Cautious (careful)	2	Dizzy (giddy)	3	Eager (keen)	4	Enormous (huge)	5
Expensive (dear)	6	Frightened (scared)	7	Good-looking (handsome)	8	Happy (glad)	9	Hopeful (optimistic)	10
Impolite (rude)	11	Mad (insane)	12	Obstinate (stubborn)	13	Peculiar (strange)	14	Pleasant (nice)	15
Sad (unhappy)	16	Rich (wealthy)	17	Polite 18 (well-mannered)		Wicked (evil)	19	Wonderful 20 (marvelous)	

(Opposite bingo matching)

Students' card

Card 1				Card 2			
alive				alive		small	
	Early	thin	wrong	heavy		wet	
cheap		ugly			Quick		young
Card 3				Card 4			
	cold					short	
Cheap		small	soft		early		young
	High		strong	dirty	Sad	ugly	
Card 5				Card 6			
Heavy			wet	cheap			small
Poor		soft				sad	
	Quick	ugly		high	Poor		strong
Card 7				Card 8			
Cold			short	cold		wet	
	difficult		thin	difficult	Short		
		early	wrong	sad			young

			<i>g</i>				
Card 9				Card 10			
<i>difficult</i>	<i>Dirty</i>			<i>alive</i>	<i>Heavy</i>		
			<i>soft</i>			<i>poor</i>	<i>thin</i>
	<i>High</i>	<i>quick</i>	<i>strong</i>	<i>dirty</i>			<i>wrong</i>

Teacher's board:

<i>Beautiful</i> 1 (<i>ugly</i>)	<i>Big</i> 2 (<i>small</i>)	<i>Clean</i> 3 (<i>dirty</i>)	<i>Dead</i> 4 (<i>alive</i>)	<i>Dry</i> 5 (<i>wet</i>)
<i>Easy</i> 6 (<i>difficult</i>)	<i>Expensive</i> 7 (<i>cheap</i>)	<i>Happy</i> 8 (<i>sad</i>)	<i>Hard</i> 9 (<i>soft</i>)	<i>Hot</i> 10 (<i>cold</i>)
<i>Late</i> 11 (<i>early</i>)	<i>Light</i> 12 (<i>heavy</i>)	<i>Low</i> 13 (<i>high</i>)	<i>Old</i> 14 (<i>young</i>)	<i>Rich</i> 15 (<i>poor</i>)
<i>Right</i> 16 (<i>wrong</i>)	<i>Slow</i> 17 (<i>quick</i>)	<i>Tall</i> 18 (<i>short</i>)	<i>Thick</i> 19 (<i>thin</i>)	<i>Weak</i> 20 (<i>strong</i>)

2. Choose synonyms from the box to replace each underlined word.

children	tale	begin	damp
done	giant	perhaps	like
pebble	silly	tidy	chuckle

- I liked watching huge elephant at the zoo. _____
- I tossed a stone in the lake. _____
- Carla knows so many funny jokes. _____
- Wil you tell me a story, Grandpa? _____
- Sarah's bedroom is very neat. _____
- Ed makes everyone laugh when he makes goofy faces. _____
- I enjoy drinking iced tea during the summer. _____
- The kids at the park played baseball. _____
- Put the wet towel on the clothesline to dry. _____
- Put the plate in the sink when you're finished. _____
- Maybe we can go outside after lunch today. _____
- You should start your science project tonight. _____

6.The Homophone Game

*The objectives:- to explore the term homophone and to practice the
Teacher's sheet*

Read out the words one at a time. Allow the students approximately 30-40 seconds to write down two possible words.

*List 1
difficult)*

1. meet/ meat
2. our/ hour
3. steal/ steel
4. hear/ here
5. stair/ stare
6. dear/ deer
7. their/there
8. sum/some
9. flower/ flour
10. right/write
- 11.tail/ tale
- 12.weather/ whether
- 13.pair/ pear
14. hear/hair
- 15.wear/where
16. red/ read
17. son/sun
- 18.week/weak

- 19.way/ weigh
- 20.eight/ate

List 2 (more


1. place/plaice
2. boulder/bolder
3. maize/ maze
4. scent /cent
5. waste/ waist
6. mail/ male
7. lesson/ lessen
8. bear/ bare
9. piece/ peace
10. cell/sell
11. sale/sail
12. mist/ missed
13. hymn/him
14. board/ bored
15. hair/hare
16. rain/ reign
17. feet/ feat
18. site / sight

19. tears / tiers
20. course/coarse

Lesson 2: Connecting and linking

It is essential to understand how linking Words, as a part of speech, can be used to combine ideas in writing - and thus ensure that ideas within sentences and paragraphs are elegantly connected - for the benefit of the reader. This will help to improve your writing (e.g. essay, comment, summary (scientific) review, (research) paper, letter, abstract, report, thesis, etc.). "Linking Words" is used as a term to denote a class of English words which are employed to link or connect parts of speech or even whole sentences. They are also called connecting words.

According to their implementation they have more features in connecting sentences as cohesive devices in paragraphs., and they have their functions.

	<p><u>To show contrast</u></p> <p>but however although on the other hand in contrast</p>	<p><u>To show similarity</u></p> <p>similarly like equally in a similar way likewise</p>	<p><u>To give examples</u></p> <p>for example e.g. such as for instance</p>
	<p><u>To express result</u></p> <p>so then consequently therefore as a result thus</p>	<p><u>To express reasons</u></p> <p>because since due to that is why</p>	<p><u>To express sequence</u></p> <p>first to start with then afterthis/ afterwards finally/lasty</p>
	<p><u>To clarify/explain</u></p> <p>in other words that is to say i.e. to put in another way</p>	<p><u>To conclude</u></p> <p>in short briefly to sum up to summarise in conclusion</p>	<p><u>To add information</u></p> <p>and also in addition besides not only ... but also</p>

And Linking words are essential for your writing to be natural and clear.

1. Position in the text.

Some linking words normally form a link between clauses **within** a sentence. It is bad style to start a sentence with these words; for example:

and but so because then until such as

Another type of linking device is used to form a link **between** sentences. These words must start with a capital letter and are usually immediately followed by a comma; for example:

Furthermore, Moreover, However, Nevertheless, Therefore, In Conclusion

Most linking words, however, can either start a sentence or form a link between sentences. The choice is up to the writer.

2. *The function of linking words*

Linking devices provide a text with cohesion (samenhang) and illustrate how the parts of the text relate to each other. Here are some of the functions which linking words provide.

Adding extra information to the main point, contrasting ideas, expressing cause and effect, showing exactly when something happened (narrating), expressing purpose (why?) and opinion, listing examples, making conclusions and giving emphasis.

3. *Grammatical differences*

Some linking words must be followed by a clause:

Eg. : ***while, why, because, although, so, whereas, when;***

He wants to go out with her ***because he likes her.***

Other linking words should be followed by a noun phrase.

Eg. : ***because of, despite, during, in spite of, due to***

The school is closed ***due to bad weather.***

The majority of linking devices can be followed by either a noun phrase or a clause.

But and However

But is used to contrast clauses within a sentences.

Eg. I like going to the beach, but I never go at midday.

However, has the same function, but is used to show contrast between a sentences.

Eg. I've always enjoyed going to the beach. However, I never go there at midday.

Although, though, even though & In spite of / despite

Although must join two clauses, but it's position can change. It can either start a sentence or come in the middle.

Eg. *Although* it rained a lot, we enjoyed the holiday.

Or We enjoyed the holiday *although* it rained a lot.

In spoken English '*though*' can be used instead of 'although' when it is used for the second clause.

Eg. "I didn't get the job *though* I had all the necessary qualifications."
'though' can also come at the end of a sentence.

Eg. "The house isn't very nice. I like the garden *though*."
'Even though' is a stronger form of *'although'*.

Eg. *Even though* I was really tired, I couldn't sleep.
In spite of or *Despite* must be followed by a noun, pronoun (this, that, what etc.).

Eg. *In spite of* the rain, we went to the beach.

Or We went to the beach *in spite of* the rain.

It is common to use the expression *'In spite of the fact (that)...'* or *'Despite the fact (that)...'*

Example: *She's quite fit in spite of the fact that she smokes 40 cigarettes a day.*

As & like

As and *like* can be used in comparisons.

However, *As* must be followed by a clause, and *like* must be followed by a noun.

Example: *He worked for the company, as his father had done before him.*

Or *She acts like a child sometimes.*

Here is a list of the principal linking words in English, their function and if their position is usually fixed.

Adding and	Contrasting	Expressing cause / reason
*and as well as besides Moreover, Furthermore, What is more, In addition, not only but also another point is that <u>relative clauses</u> who, where, that, which whose, to whom when, what why	*but However, Although despite In spite of Nevertheless, On the contrary, on the one hand on the other hand, whereas while but while For one thing, In contrast, Neither...nor	because as since As a result, This is why because of Due to Owing to For this reason, <u>Expressing effect / result</u> *so so...that such a...that Therefore Thus, Consequently, too...for/to not enough...for/to
Narration		Expressing purpose
First (of all) At first	immediately Once	To so as to

At the beginning In the beginning then next Before After After that afterwards When While during soon,prior to	Suddenly As soon as on No sooner...than Hardly...when Finally Eventually At the end In the end At last To begin with, until	in order that so that for (Non-specific) <u>Expressing opinion</u> I would say that In my opinion, I think (that) I believe (that) Personally Apparently,
Giving examples	Summing up / concluding	Emphasis
for example, for instance, this includes such as eg. (for example) i.e. (that is)	All in all, overall generally In conclusion, on the whole in the main To sum up,	especially, particularly Naturally, exactly because above all, whatever Whenever too / enough The more

Linking words are something that can really help our fluency in English, as they help us to create longer sentences. For example:

I bought a dog.

I bought a dog because I really wanted a pet.

I bought a dog because I really wanted a pet. However, now I wish I hadn't!

Some linking words come in the middle of the sentence:

because

and

so

but

until

then

Whereas some linking words join two sentences and often start with a capital letter:

However

Nevertheless

Therefore

In conclusion

To summarise

There are many more linking words! Including:

Whereas

While

In order to

Especially

Generally

For example

Unlike

1. Tests

The objectives: to assess the Ss' knowledge about connecting and linking words.

1. I didn't have a shower this morning ___ my hair was really dirty all day.

- so
- whereas
- because

2. I really love driving, ___ on sunny days.

- whereas
- then
- especially

3. I love summer. ___, I hate getting on the underground in the heat.

- However
- So
- Because

4. I didn't eat any crisps ___ I ate an ice-cream!

- generally
- but
- especially

5. I saw someone applying their make-up ___ they were driving!

- so
- in conclusion
- while

6. Emma really enjoys knitting, ___ Mary who hates it!

- while
- in conclusion
- unlike

7. I went to the park ___ I went to the shops.

- because
- then
- so

8. I thought the documentary was interesting. ____, I would have liked to see more interviews.

- For example
- Because
- Nevertheless

2. Complete each sentence using the subordinating conjunction from the parentheses:

1. I visit the Grand Canyon _____ I go to Arizona. (once, whenever, wherever)
2. This is the place _____ we stayed last time we visited. (where, when, how)
3. _____ you win first place, you will receive a prize. (wherever, if, unless)
4. You won't pass the test _____ you study. (when, if, unless)
5. I could not get a seat, _____ I came early. (as, though, when)
6. We are leaving Wednesday _____ or not it rains. (if, whether, though)
7. Pay attention to your work _____ you will not make mistakes. (so that, unless, or)
8. The musicians delivered a rousing performance _____ they had rehearsed often. (though, as, once)
9. She's honest _____ everyone trusts her. (if, so, when)
10. Write this down _____ you forget. (or, when, lest)

3. Complete each sentence using the correct correlative conjunction pair from the parenthesis:

1. I plan to take my vacation _____ in June _____ in July.
(whether / or, either / or, as / if)
2. _____ I'm feeling happy _____ sad, I try to keep a positive attitude. (either / or, whether / or, when / I'm)
3. _____ had I taken my shoes off _____ I found out we had to leave again. (no sooner / than, rather / than, whether / or)

4. _____ only is dark chocolate delicious, _____ it can be healthy. (whether / or, not / but, just as / so)
5. _____ I have salad for dinner, _____ I can have ice cream for dessert. (if / then, when / than, whether / or)
6. _____ flowers _____ trees grow _____ during warm weather. (not only / or, both / and, not / but)
7. _____ do we enjoy summer vacation, _____ we _____ enjoy winter break. (whether / or, not only / but also, either / or)
8. Calculus is _____ easy _____ difficult _____ (not / but, both / and, either / or)
9. It's _____ going to rain _____ snow tonight. (as / if, either / or, as / as)
10. Savory flavors are _____ sweet _____ sour. (often / and, neither / nor, both / and)

4. Complete each sentence using the correct coordinating conjunction from the parenthesis:

1. My car has a radio _____ a CD player. (but, or, and)
2. Sharon hates to listen to rap music, _____ will she tolerate heavy metal. (but, nor, or)
3. Carol wanted to drive to Colorado, _____ Bill insisted that they fly. (and, or, but)
4. I'm afraid of heights, _____ I appreciate the view from the top of this building. (and, yet, nor)
5. I have to be on time, _____ my boss will be annoyed if I'm late. (and, nor, for)
6. Do you like chocolate _____ vanilla ice cream better? (or, nor, and)
7. I have to go to work at six, _____ I'm waking up at four. (but, so, yet)
8. I was on time, _____ everyone else was late. (so, but, for)
9. Nadia doesn't like to drive, _____ she takes the bus everywhere. (but, yet, so)
10. Our trip to the museum was interesting, _____ there were several new artifacts on display. (but, for, yet)

5. Complete each sentence using the correct coordinating conjunctive adverb from the parenthesis:

1. Bianca wore her rain boots; _____, her feet stayed dry during the storm. (however, therefore, on the other hand)
2. I love the color red; _____, this shade seems a little too bright. (therefore, nonetheless, in fact)
3. You have to be on time; _____, you'll miss the train. (nonetheless, however, otherwise)
4. Teresa likes to read; _____, her sister Julia prefers to watch TV. (however, in contrast, again)
5. She really wanted to eat ice cream; _____, she had a salad. (however, likewise, instead)

Activity: 1. Build the story using the casual conjunction.

The objectives: - to practice conjunctives in contexts, to improve students' speech.

I _____ was _____ late _____ to
 class _____ So _____
 _____ I ran as fast as I
 could _____

Lesson 3: Binomials. Similes. Proverbs. Idioms-miscellaneous

In language studies, a pair of words (for example, loud and clear) conventionally linked by a conjunction (usually and) or a preposition. Also called a binomial pair. When the word order is fixed, the binomial is said to be irreversible. (See Examples and Observations below.) A similar construction involving three nouns or adjectives (bell, book, and candle; calm, cool, and collected) is called a trinomial.

Examples and Observations

Examples of binomials in English include aches and pains, all or nothing, back and forth, beck and call, bigger and better, bit by bit, black and blue, black and white, blood and guts, bread and butter, bubble and squeak, cease and desist, checks and balances, cloak and dagger, cops and robbers, corned beef and cabbage, cut and dried, dead or alive, death and destruction, dollar for dollar, dos and don'ts, fair and square, fast and loose, fire and brimstone,

fish and chips, flesh and bones, goods and services, ham and eggs, hand to mouth, hands and knees, heads or tails, hearts and flowers, hem and haw, high and dry, high and low, high and mighty, huff and puff, hugs and kisses, kiss and make up, knife and fork, leaps and bounds, life and death, little by little, long and short, lost and found, loud and clear, make or break, milk and honey, needle and thread, nickel and dime, nip and tuck, now or never, null and void, nuts and bolts, old and gray, one to one, open and shut, part and parcel, peace and quiet, pins and needles, pots and pans, rags to riches, rise and fall, rise and shine, rough and ready, safe and sound, saints and sinners, short but sweet, show and tell, side by side, slip and slide, soap and water, song and dance, sooner or later, spic and span, sticks and stones, strange but true, sugar and spice, thick and thin, time after time, tit for tat, tooth and nail, toss and turn, ups and downs, wash and wear, and win or lose.

There are many types of binomials in English. For example:

Reversible and Irreversible Binomials

"In the typical newspaper headline *Cold and snow grip the nation* it is proper to set off the segment *cold and snow* as a **binomial**, if one agrees so to label the sequence of two words pertaining to the same form-class, placed on an identical level of syntactic hierarchy, and ordinarily connected by some kind of lexical link. There is nothing unchangeable or formulaic about this particular binomial: Speakers are at liberty to invert the succession of its members (*snow and cold . . .*) and may with impunity replace either *snow* or *cold* by some semantically related word (say, *wind* or *ice*). However, in a binomial such as *odds and ends* the situation is different: The succession of its constituents has hardened to such an extent that an inversion of the two kernels--**ends* and *odds*--would be barely understandable to listeners caught by surprise. *Odds and ends*, then, represents the special case of an irreversible binomial"².

² Yakov Malkiel, "Studies in Irreversible Binomials." *Essays on Linguistic Themes*. University of California Press, 1998

Synonymous and Echoic Binomials

"The third most frequent **binomial** in the DoD [Department of Defense] corpus is *friends and allies*, with 67 instances. Unlike the majority of binomials, it is reversible: *allies and friends* also occurs, with 47 occurrences.

"Both *allies* and *friends* refer to countries which accord with US policies; as such, the two coordinates of the binomial may incline us to categorizing the binomial as 'synonymous'. Rhetorically speaking, *friends and allies* may have an intensifying function, similar to 'echoic' binomials (where WORD1 is identical to WORD2), such as *more and more* and *stronger and stronger*"³.

Simile

A simile is a figure of speech that compares two different things, usually by using the words 'like' or 'as'. It is used to make a *direct comparison*. Similes may be confused with metaphors, which do the same kind of thing. Similes use comparisons, with the words 'like' or 'as'. Metaphors use indirect comparisons, without the words 'like' or 'as'.

Examples: *Like a hungry wolf, he ate the food.*

A dragonfly is like a plane: they both fly and cannot close their wings.

He fought like a lion.

The color yellow is like walking into a surprise birthday party.

The other team's quarterback is as big as a redwood tree

Kingda Ka is as green as a pine tree

Similes are the most common type of figurative language in the English language.

Similes compare two different things that do not usually go together.

Similes compare using the words "like" or "as."

How to form a simile

There are two ways to form a simile.

1. as + adjective/adverb + as + noun

³ Andrea Mayr, *Language and Power: An Introduction to Institutional Discourse*. Continuum, 2008

2. verb + like + noun

This is a list of some common similes. Add a subject to the beginning of each simile to make the sentence complete. There are some examples below.

Pattern 1: as + adjective/adverb + as + noun

- *as cold as ice.*
- *as white as snow*
- *as gentle as a lamb*
- *as funny as a clown*
- *as light as a feather*
- *as colorful as a rainbow*

The crayons are as colorful as a rainbow.



- *as slow as a turtle*
- *as pretty as a flower*
- *as tall as a giant*
- *as quiet as a mouse*
- *as fluffy as cotton candy*

The sheep was as fluffy as cotton candy.



- *as wise as an owl*
- *as hungry as a bear*
- *as tough as nails*

Pattern 2: verb + like + noun

- *smells like a rose*
- *eats like a pig*
- *sings like an angel*
- *runs like a cheetah*

- slept like a baby



I slept like a baby last night.

- crying like a baby
- jumps like a frog
- howls like a dog
- sparkles like a diamond
- roared like a lion

Simile vs metaphor

People often confuse similes and metaphors. They are very similar because they both compare two different things. With similes, the comparison is easy to understand.

For ex.: Sam eats like a pig.

This simile compares the way Sam eats to the way a pig eats. Sam is very messy when he eats. He does not have good manners.

For ex.: Sam's house is as dirty as a pigsty.

This simile compares Sam's home to a pigsty (where pigs live). It means that Sam's home is very messy. He probably does not clean often and leaves dirty clothes on the floor.

A metaphor is not always as easy to understand and can sometimes be understood in different ways by different people or in different situations.

For ex.: Sam is a pig.

This metaphor does not mean Sam is actually a pig.

This sentence can have different meanings depending on the context. We can usually figure out the meaning based on a picture or context of the paragraph or story.

In our example, "Sam is a pig" it could mean different things, since pigs can have different qualities. For example, they can be dirty or greedy (eating everything).

"Sam is a pig" could mean:

1. *Sam is a messy eater. He does not have good manners.*
2. *Sam is a sloppy dresser. His clothes are dirty.*
3. *Sam has a messy house. He does not clean his house.*
4. *Sam acts very rude. He is not polite.*
5. *Sam is greedy. He takes everything.*

Proverb

A proverb is a short, pithy saying that expresses a traditionally held truth or piece of advice, based on common sense or experience.

Nothing defines a culture as distinctly as its language, and the element of language that best encapsulates a society's values and beliefs is its proverbs.

This graphic shows the words that are used in English proverbs, with the size of each word indicating how often it occurs.

No collection of proverbs in English would be complete without the proverbs collected and published by the Tudor courtier John Heywood.

As so many proverbs offer advice and uplift many of them are religious in origin, here's an additional list of biblical proverbs.

Here's a list of most of the commonly-used proverbs in the English language, with links to the meaning and origin of many of them. For instance,

A bad penny always turns up

A barking dog never bites

A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush

A cat may look at a king

A chain is only as strong as its weakest link

A change is as good as a rest

Every culture has a collection of wise sayings that offer **advice** about how to live your life. These sayings are called "proverbs".

It's good to know the really common English proverbs because you hear them come up in conversation all the time. Sometimes people say the entire proverb to give advice to a friend. More often, someone will say just part of a proverb like this:

You know what they say: when the going gets tough...

Learning proverbs can also help you to understand the way that people in English-speaking cultures think about the world.

Proverbs can also give you good **example sentences** which you can memorize and use as models for building your own sentences.

The most important English Proverbs

This is a list of some of the most important and well-known English proverbs. Below each one, there's a simple explanation.

No	Proverbs	Explanations
1	<i>Two wrongs don't make a right</i>	<i>When someone has done something bad to you, trying to get revenge will only make things worse.</i>
2	<i>The pen is mightier than the sword.</i>	Trying to convince people with ideas and words is more effective than trying to force people to do what you want.
3	When in Rome, do as the Romans	Act the way that the people around you are acting. This phrase might come in handy when you're traveling abroad notice that people do things differently than you're used to
4	The squeaky wheel gets the grease	You can get better service if you complain about something. If you wait patiently, no one's going to help you.
5	When the going gets tough, the tough get going	Strong people don't give up when they come across challenges. They just work harder
6	No man is an island	You can't live completely independently. Everyone needs help from other people.
7	Fortune favors the bold	People who bravely go after what they want are more successful than people who try to live safely
8	People who live in glass houses should not throw stones	Don't criticize other people if you're not perfect yourself.
9	Hope for the best, but prepare for the worst	Bad things might happen, so be prepared
10	Better late than never	It's best to do something on time. But if you can't do it on time, do it late
11	Birds of a feather flock together	People like to spend time with others who are similar to them

12	Keep your friends close and your enemies closer	If you have an enemy, pretend to be friends with them instead of openly fighting with them. That way you can watch them carefully and figure out what they're planning
13	A picture is worth a thousand words	Pictures convey emotions and messages better than written or spoken explanations. That's why Phrase Mix has illustrations :)
14	There's no such thing as a free lunch	Things that are offered for free always have a hidden cost
15	There's no place like home	Your own home is the most comfortable place to be
16	Discretion is the greater part of valor	Sometimes it's important to know when to give up and run away, instead of always acting brave and maybe getting hurt
17	The early bird catches the worm	You should wake up and start work early if you want to succeed
18	Never look a gift horse in the mouth	If someone offers you a gift, don't question it
19	You can't make an omelet without breaking a few eggs	When you try to do something great, you'll probably make a few people annoyed or angry. Don't worry about those people; just focus on the good results
20	God helps those who help themselves	Don't just wait for good things to happen to you. Work hard to achieve your goals

Idioms

An **idiom** (Latin *idiom̄*, "special property", from Ancient Greek: ἰδίωμα, translit. *idiōma*, "special feature, special phrasing, a peculiarity", f. Ancient Greek: ἴδιος, translit. *idios*, "one's own") is a phrase or an expression that has a figurative, or sometimes literal, meaning. Categorized as formulaic language, an idiom's figurative meaning is different from the literal meaning. There are thousands of idioms, occurring frequently in all

languages. It is estimated that there are at least twenty-five thousand idiomatic expressions in the English language. Many idiomatic expressions, in their original use, were not figurative but had literal meaning. Also, sometimes the attribution of a literal meaning can change as the phrase becomes disconnected from its original roots, leading to a folk etymology. For instance, *spill the beans* (meaning to reveal a secret) has been said to originate from an ancient method of democratic voting, wherein a voter would put a bean into one of several cups to indicate which candidate he wanted to cast his vote for. If the jars were spilled before the counting of votes was complete, anyone would be able to see which jar had more beans, and therefore which candidate was the winner. Over time, the practice was discontinued and the idiom became figurative. However, this etymology for *spill the beans* has been questioned by linguists. The earliest known written accounts come from the USA and involve horse racing around 1902–1903, and the one who "spilled the beans" was an unlikely horse who won a race, thus causing the favorites to lose. By 1907 the term was being used in baseball, but the subject who "spilled the beans" shifted to players who made mistakes, allowing the other team to win. By 1908 the term was starting to be applied to politics, in the sense that crossing the floor in a vote was "spilling the beans". However, in all these early usages the term "spill" was used in the sense of "upset" rather than "divulge". A stack exchange discussion provided a large number of links to historic newspapers covering the usage of the term from 1902 onwards.

Other idioms are deliberately figurative. *Break a leg*, used as an ironic way of wishing good luck in a performance or presentation, may have arisen from the belief that one ought not to utter the words "good luck" to an actor. By wishing someone bad luck, it is supposed that the opposite will occur. For example,

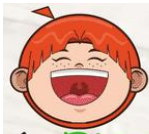
Idiom	Meaning
-------	---------

Idiom	Meaning
A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush	What you have is worth more than what you might have later
A penny for your thoughts	Tell me what you're thinking
A penny saved is a penny earned	Money you save today you can spend later
A perfect storm	the worst possible situation
A picture is worth 1000 words	Better to show than tell
Actions speak louder than words	Believe what people do and not what they say
Add insult to injury	To make a bad situation worse
Barking up the wrong tree	To be mistaken, to be looking for solutions in the wrong place
Birds of a feather flock together	People who are alike are often friends (usually used negatively)
Bite off more than you can chew	Take on a project that you cannot finish
Break the ice	Make people feel more comfortable
By the skin of your teeth	Just barely
Comparing apples to oranges	Comparing two things that cannot be compared
Costs an arm and a leg	Very expensive
Do something at the drop of a hat	Do something without having planned beforehand
Do unto others as you would have them do unto you	Treat people fairly. Also known as "The Golden Rule"
Don't count your chickens before they hatch	Don't count on something good happening until it's happened.
Don't cry over spilt milk	There's no reason to complain about something that can't be fixed
Don't give up your day job	You're not very good at this
Don't put all your eggs in one basket	What you're doing is too risky
Every cloud has a silver lining	Good things come after bad things




Idiom	Meaning
Get a taste of your own medicine	Get treated the way you've been treating others (negative)
Give someone the cold shoulder	Ignore someone
Go on a wild goose chase	To do something pointless
Good things come to those who wait	Be patient
He has bigger fish to fry	He has bigger things to take care of than what we are talking about now
He's a chip off the old block	The son is like the father
Hit the nail on the head	Get something exactly right
Ignorance is bliss	You're better off not knowing
It ain't over till the fat lady sings	This isn't over yet
It takes one to know one	You're just as bad as I am
It's a piece of cake	It's easy
It's raining cats and dogs	It's raining hard
Kill two birds with one stone	Get two things done with a single action
Let the cat out of the bag	Give away a secret
Live and learn	I made a mistake
Look before you leap	Take only calculated risks
On thin ice	On probation. If you make another mistake, there will be trouble.
Once in a blue moon	Rarely
Play devil's advocate	To argue the opposite, just for the sake of argument
Put something on ice	Put a projet on hold
Rain on someone's parade	To spoil something
Saving for a rainy day	Saving money for later
Slow and steady wins the race	Reliability is more important than speed

Idiom	Meaning
Spill the beans	Give away a secret
Take a rain check	Postpone a plan
Take it with a grain of salt	Don't take it too seriously
The ball is in your court	It's your decision
The best thing since sliced bread	A really good invention
The devil is in the details	It looks good from a distance, but when you look closer, there are problems
The early bird gets the worm	The first people who arrive will get the best stuff
The elephant in the room	The big issue, the problem people are avoiding
The whole nine yards	Everything, all the way.
There are other fish in the sea	It's ok to miss this opportunity. Others will arise.
There's a method to his madness	He seems crazy but actually he's clever
There's no such thing as a free lunch	Nothing is entirely free
Throw caution to the wind	Take a risk
You can't have your cake and eat it too	You can't have everything
You can't judge a book by its cover	This person or thing

Idioms can exist in every theme in English, for instance, on the theme of food and so on:



FOOD IDIOMS

- 1. Piece of cake  → Something easy
- 2. To go bananas  → To become crazy
- 3. Bring home the bacon  → To earn money
- 4. Have bigger fish to fry: Have more important things to do 
- 5. Like two peas in a pod  → Nearly identical
- 6. As red as a cherry  → Very red



IDIOMS

~ Phrases that do not mean what they say ~



Hit the hay

Go to bed



Tie the knot

To get married



Eat crow

To have to admit that you made a mistake



Bent out of shape

To feel upset or annoyed about something



Pie in the sky

A bad egg





1. Comprehensive questions:

1. What is the main feature of binomials?
2. What are some examples of a simile?
3. What are examples of metaphors and similes?
4. What is a simile for kids?
5. What is simile meaning and examples?
6. What is a proverb?
7. How can you use proverbs to learn English?

2. Match the words on the left to the words on the right.

- | | |
|--------------|----------|
| 1. Sick and | a. large |
| 2. Rock and | b. ends |
| 3. Short and | c. roll |
| 4. Odds and | d. tired |
| 5. By and | e. sweet |

3. Use the binomials above which are matched.

1. Her presentation was very _____ .
She gave a good overview of the topic in just 15 minutes.
2. I'm not really into _____ , to be honest.
I'm more of a jazz person, myself.

3. I need to clean out my desk at work. The drawers are just full of _____ - pen lids, loose change, buttons, stuff like that.

4. I am _____ of working such long hours for such low pay. I swear, I'll walk out if this continues.

5. There are a few things I don't like about where I live, but _____ it's a nice area.

4. Match the words on the left to the words on the right.

6. Wear and _____ f. downs

7. Safe and _____ g. wide

8. Sooner or _____ h. sound

9. Ups and _____ i. tear

10. Far and _____ j. later

5. Use the binomials above which are matched.

1. _____ you're going to have to tell him the bad news! You can't keep secrets from her forever!

2. We've had a few _____ in our marriage, but we always manage to overcome them.

3. I've searched _____ for a dress like this! I simply must buy it now. I don't think I'll ever find one again.

4. Don't worry about us. We are _____ in the local hotel.

5. My jumper is showing signs of _____. It's got a few holes in it.

6. Match the binomials above to the definitions below.

1. Close to losing your temper or patience with something. You've had enough of something _____

2. Not in danger or harmed in any way.

3. Sure that something will happen

4. A group of small objects that are not valuable or important

5. Popular dance music from the 1950s

6. Good and bad things that happen to people

7. A large number of places

8. Surprisingly short but in a pleasing manner

9. Damage that happens when something is used a lot.

10. In general

7. Look at the sentences below, underline the binomials in them.

1. Working long hours and being the centre of the media's attention are just part and parcel of being a professional footballer.
2. Kangaroos can't walk backward, you say? I didn't know that! Well, you live and learn!
3. There are a lot of rules and regulations regarding traffic in the world's major cities.
4. This next match is make or break for us! We simply have to win or we can forget about winning the championship!
5. My final offer is 5000 pounds -take it or leave it. The car is not worth any more than that.
6. I'll have more or less finished my essay by 5pm. Call me then and I'll let you know if I can come.

7. Circle the simile in each sentences. On the line, explain what is being compared to what.

1. Andrew is as sly as fox. _____ is being compared to _____.
2. He was as nervous as a cat around a room full of rocking chairs. _____ is being compared to _____.
3. Annastasia had a smile as sweet as sugar. _____ is being compared to _____.

4. *After he finished playing the basketball game, his hair was only like fried chicken.* _____ is being compared to _____.
5. *Silvia's new lotion made her face as smooth as a baby's skin.* _____ is being compared to _____.
6. *My two-year-old cousin was as bouncy as bunny when she got outside.* _____ is being compared to _____.
7. *The new science book is heavy as an elephant.* _____ is being compared to _____.
8. *The extra glue was as sticky as syrup on their fingers.* _____ is being compared to _____.
9. *Mr. Hanson, the P.E. teacher is as strong as Olympic athlete.* _____ is being compared to _____.
10. *My mom's tea is as hot as the sun.* _____ is being compared to _____.

8. **Guessing Game on idioms. Write three or four idioms on the board that all touch on one theme** (e.g. animals, body parts).

The objectives: - to improve students speaking comprehension and to practice idioms use in speech.

9. The Great Idiom Race

After you have studied idioms and your students have learned several, play a game with your class to see who can use the most idioms. Break your class into two groups: boys and girls or older students and younger students. Give each team a container to keep track of idiom use.

(You can also keep a tally in a corner of your classroom.) During class, if a student uses an idiom, put a marble, bean or other counter in that team's container. Watch as the two containers fill faster and faster as the competition heats up. At the end of the lesson, see which team has used the most idioms. The other team must then serve them at a party or other celebration.

Lesson 4: Words with interesting origins. Onomatopoeic words.

1. Words with interesting origins

For a language such as Greek with a long written history, etymologists make use of texts in these languages and texts about the languages to gather knowledge about how words were used during earlier periods of their history and when they entered the languages in question. Etymologists also apply the methods of comparative linguistics to reconstruct information about languages that are too old for any direct information to be available. For example,

25 examples for word origins:

1. **Jumbo** was most likely originally the word for "elephant" in a west African language. It took on the meaning of "large" when an elephant in London zoo was named Jumbo in 1860
2. **Quarantine** comes from the French "qarante" for 40. Whenever a ship arriving in port was suspected of being infected it had to forego contact with the shore for a period of about 40 days.
3. **Hazard** comes from the Arabic "al zahr" which means "the dice". The term came to be associated with dice during the Crusades and eventually took on a negative connotation because games of dice were associated with gambling
Disaster comes from the Greek "dis" meaning bad, and "aster", meaning star. The ancient Greeks used to blame calamities on unfavorable planetary positions.
4. **Lemur** comes from a Latin word that means "spirit of the dead". The person that named them cited their nocturnal nature as a source of influence.
5. **Loophole** (or murder hole) originally referred to the slits in castle walls that archers would shoot their arrows through.
6. Nice comes from a Latin word meaning "ignorant"
Muscle comes from a Latin root meaning "little mouse". Apparently people used to think muscles looked like little mice under their skin.
War comes from a Germanic root that meant "to confuse"
7. **Heresy** comes from a Greek word meaning choice
8. strange word origins
9. **Pamphlet** comes from the title of a Latin love poem called Pamphilus that was supposedly passed from person to person
10. Lunatic is derived from the Latin word "luna" meaning "moon". It originated from the belief that insanity is caused by changes in the moon.

11. **Berserk** comes from ancient Norse fighters that were known as Berserkers
Jeans were named after their place of origin, Genoa, Italy.
12. **Curfew** comes from a combination of two French words - "couvrir" and "feu". Literally this means to "cover fire".
13. **Lukewarm** is actually a redundant. Luke meant "warm" in Middle English so lukewarm technically would mean "warm warm".
14. **The word Soccer** actually originated in the United Kingdom. Association Football was shortened to "socca" (derived from the middle of the word association). This turned into the word "soccer" that is still used in the US, Canada, and Australia.
15. **Mortgage** comes from the French expression meaning "death pledge"
16. strange word origins
17. **Nightmare** comes from an old English word "mare" that refers to a demon who suffocates you in your sleep
18. strange word origins
19. **Denim** comes from Nimes, France. It was therefore originally called serge de Nimes or "fabric from Nimes". The "serge" soon disappeared and left us with "de Nimes".
20. **Buck**, the slang term for an American dollar comes from the fact that on the American frontier deerskins were used as units of commerce.
21. **Addict** comes from ancient Rome when soldiers were awarded slaves known as "addicts", which is the Latin word for slave. It eventually came to refer to a person who was a slave to anyone or anything.
22. **Noon** comes from the Latin phrase "nona hora" or "ninth hour". In ancient Rome noon was actually around 3pm
23. **Malaria** comes from the Latin phrase "mal aria" meaning "bad air" and was used to describe the atmosphere around the swamps of Rome.
24. **Tragedy** comes from the Greek word "tragodia" which means "song of the male goat".

Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia is defined as a word, which imitates the natural sounds of a thing. It creates a sound effect that mimics the thing described, making the description more expressive and interesting. For instance, saying, “The gushing stream flows in the forest” is a more meaningful description than just saying, “The stream flows in the forest.” The reader is drawn to hear the sound of a “gushing stream” which makes the expression more effective.

In addition to the sound they represent, many onomatopoeic words have developed meanings of their own. For example, “whisper” not only represents the sound of people talking quietly, but also describes the action of people talking quietly. Common Examples of Onomatopoeia:

The buzzing bee flew away.

The sack fell into the river with a splash.

The books fell on the table with a loud thump.

He looked at the roaring sky.

The rustling leaves kept me awake.

The different sounds of animals are also considered as examples of onomatopoeia. You will recognize the following sounds easily:

Meow

Moo

Neigh

Tweet

Oink

Baa

Groups of Onomatopoeic Words

Onomatopoeic words come in combinations as they reflect different sounds of a single object. For example, a group of words reflecting different sounds of water are; plop, splash, gush, sprinkle, drizzle, drip etc.

Similarly, words like growl, giggle, grunt, murmur, blurt, chatter etc. denote different kinds of human voice sounds. Moreover, we can identify a group of words related to different sounds of wind, such as; swish, swoosh, whiff, whoosh, whizz, whisper etc.

Onomatopoeia Examples in Literature

Onomatopoeia is frequently employed in literature. Below, a few Onomatopoeia examples are highlighted in bold letters. Example:

*“The moan of doves in immemorial elms,
And murmuring of innumerable bees...”*

(‘Come Down, O Maid’ by Alfred Lord Tennyson)

Example :

“Hark, hark!

Bow-wow.

The watch-dogs bark!

Bow-wow.

Hark, hark! I hear

The strain of strutting chanticleer

Cry, ‘cock-a-diddle-dow!’”

(Ariel in William Shakespeare’s *The Tempest*, Act One, scene 2)

Example:

“He saw nothing and heard nothing but he could feel his heart pounding and then he heard the clack on stone and the leaping, dropping clicks of a small rock falling.”

(For Whom the Bell Tolls by Ernest Hemingway) Example:

*“It went zip when it moved and bop when it stopped,
And whirr when it stood still.*

I never knew just what it was and I guess I never will.”

(“The Marvelous Toy” by Tom Paxton)

Example:

*“I’m getting married in the morning!
Ding dong! the bells are gonna chime.”*

(“Get Me to the Church on Time,” by Lerner and Loewe)

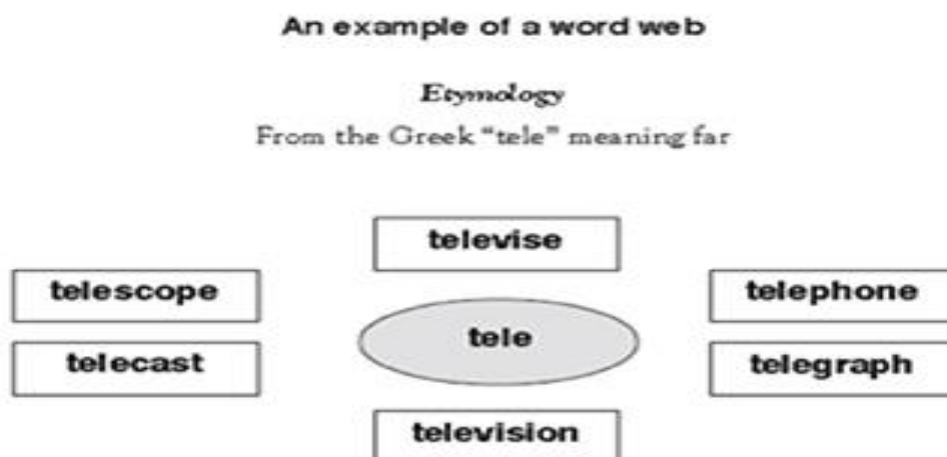
We notice, in the above examples, the use of onomatopoeia gives rhythm to the texts. In addition, it makes the description livelier and interesting, appealing directly to the senses of the reader.

Activity

Word web 1.

The objectives of the activity:

- *to give students an opportunity to explore the words and to practice using words belonging to the web.*



This strategy is best used if the words chosen need to be used in a specific Key Learning Area, for example in Mathematics; Teach the Latin word *centum* meaning “one hundred”. Relate to cents in the dollar, centimetre, centilitre, centigrade, centipede, centenary; Science – *hydro* the Greek word meaning water is used in hydrate, dehydrate, hydrogen, hydraulic; *aero*, the Greek word for air; aeroplane, aerobics, aerodrome, aerosol, aerospace, aeronaut, aerofoil, aerodynamics. For example,

Numbers

Word root	Origin	Meaning	Examples
Uni	Latin	One	univalve
Mono	Greek	One	Monologue
Bi	Latin	Two	Bicycle
Tri	Latin	Three	Tripod
quadr	Latin	Four	Quadrangle
Quin	Latin	Five	Quintet
Pent	Greek	Five	Pentagon
Sex	Latin	Six	Sextet
Sept	Latin	Seven	Septet
Oct	Latin	Eight	Octopus
novem	Latin	Nine	November (ninth month of Roman calendar)

Numbers

Word root	Origin	Meaning	Examples
Deca	Greek	Ten	Decade
Centi	Latin	one hundred	Centigrade
Kilo	Greek	one thousand	Kilogram
Milli	Latin	one thousand	Millennium

Prefixes and suffixes

Word root	Origin	Meaning	Examples
Ante	Latin	Before	antenatal, ante meridian (a.m.)
Anti	Greek	Opposite	antifreeze
Aqua	Latin	Water	aquarium, aqueduct
Avi	Latin	Bird	aviary, aviation
Bibli	Greek	a book; paper	bibliography, bible
Bio	Greek	Life	biography, biology

Prefixes and suffixes

Word root	Origin	Meaning	Examples
Chlor	Greek	Green	chlorophyll, chlorine

2. Filling the table.

Onomatopoeia with animals			
Animal	Onomatopoeia	Animal	Onomatopoeia
Wolf		Frog	
Turkey		eagle	
Snake		duck	
Sheep		dove	
Rooster		donkey	
Pigs		dolphin	
Parrot		dog	
Owl		crow	
Mouse		cow	
Lion		Bee	
Horses		songbird	
Goose		bear	
Goat		cat	

Lesson 5: Slang

Slang, informal, nonstandard words and phrases, generally shorter lived than the expressions of ordinary colloquial speech, and typically formed by creative, often witty juxtapositions of words or images. Slang can be contrasted with jargon (technical language of occupational or other groups) and with argot or cant (secret vocabulary of underworld groups), but the borderlines separating these categories from slang are greatly blurred, and

some writers use the terms *cant*, *argot*, and *jargon* in a general way to include all the foregoing meanings.

Origins of slang

Slang tends to originate in subcultures within a society. Occupational groups (for example, loggers, police, medical professionals, and computer specialists) are prominent originators of both jargon and slang; other groups creating slang include the armed forces, teenagers, racial minorities, ghetto residents, labor unions, citizens-band radiobroadcasters, sports groups, drug addicts, criminals, and even religious denominations (Episcopalians, for example, produced *spike*, a High Church Anglican). Slang expressions often embody attitudes and values of group members. They may thus contribute to a sense of group identity and may convey to the listener information about the speaker's background. Before an apt expression becomes slang, however, it must be widely adopted by members of the subculture. At this point slang and jargon overlap greatly. If the subculture has enough contact with the mainstream culture, its figures of speech become slang expressions known to the whole society. For example, *cat* (a sport), *cool* (aloof, stylish), *Mr. Charley* (a white man), *The Man* (the law), and *Uncle Tom* (a meek black) all originated in the predominantly black Harlem district of New York City and have traveled far since their inception. Slang is thus generally not tied to any geographic region within a country.

A slang expression may suddenly become widely used and as quickly dated (*23-skiddoo*). It may become accepted as standard speech, either in its original slang meaning (*bus*, from *omnibus*) or with an altered, possibly tamed meaning (*jazz*, which originally had sexual connotations). Some expressions have persisted for centuries as slang (*booze* for alcoholic beverage). In the 20th century, mass media and rapid travel have speeded up both the circulation and the demise of slang terms. Television and novels have turned criminal can't into slang (*five grands* for \$5000). Changing social circumstances may stimulate the spread of slang. Drug-related

expressions (such as *pot* and *marijuana*) were virtually a secret jargon in the 1940s; in the 1960s they were adopted by rebellious youth; and in the 1970s and '80s they were widely known.

Uses of slang.

In some cases slang may provide a needed name for an object or action (*walkie-talkie*, a portable two-way radio; *tailgating*, driving too close behind another vehicle), or it may offer an emotional outlet (*buzz off!* for go away!) or a satirical or patronizing reference (*smokey*, state highway trooper). It may provide euphemisms (*john*, *head*, *can*, and in Britain, *loo*, all for toilet, itself originally a euphemism), and it may allow its user to create a shock effect by using a pungent slang expression in an unexpected context. Slang has provided myriad synonyms for parts of the body (*bean*, head; *schnozzle*, nose), for money (*moola*, *bread*, *scratch*), for food (*grub*, *slop*, *garbage*), and for drunkenness (*soused*, *stewed*, *plastered*).

Formation of slang

Slang expressions are created by the same processes that affect ordinary speech. Expressions may take form as metaphors, similes, and other figures of speech (*dead as a doornail*). Words may acquire new meanings (*cool*, *cat*). A narrow meaning may become generalized (*fink*, originally a strikebreaker, later a betrayer or disappointer) or vice-versa (*heap*, a run-down car). Words may be clipped, or abbreviated (*mike*, microphone), and acronyms may gain currency (*VIP*, *AWOL*, *nafu*). A foreign suffix may be added (the Yiddish and Russian *-nik* in *beatnik*) and foreign words adopted (*baloney*, from Bologna). A change in meaning may make a vulgar word acceptable (*jazz*) or an acceptable word vulgar (*raspberry*, a sound imitating flatus; from *raspberry tart* in the rhyming slang of Australia and Cockney London; Sometimes words are newly coined (*oomph*, sex appeal, and later, energy or impact).

Position in the Language

Slang is one of the vehicles through which languages change and become renewed, and its vigor and color enrich daily speech. Although it has gained respectability in the 20th century, in the past it was often loudly condemned as vulgar. Nevertheless, Shakespeare brought into acceptable usage such slang terms as *hubbub*, *to bump*, and *to dwindle*, and 20th-century writers have used slang brilliantly to convey character and ambience. Slang appears at all times and in all languages. A person's head was *kapala* (dish) in Sanskrit, *testa* (pot) in Latin; *testa* later became the standard Latin word for head. Among Western languages, English, French, Spanish, Italian, German, Yiddish, Romanian, and Romani (Gypsy) are particularly rich in slang.

These phrases are in everyday use around most of Britain.

British Slang 2/3

Taking the Piss - Screwing around
Throw a Spanner in the Works - Screw up
Nicked - Stolen
Nutter - Crazy Person
Knackered - Tired
Gobsmacked - Amazed
Dog's Bollocks - Awesome
Chap - Male or friend
Bob's Your Uncle - There you go!
Pants - Trousers
Abs bloody lootely - YES!
Nosh - Food
Shambles - Mess
Arse-over-tit - Fall over
Dog's Dinner - Dressed Nicely
Up for it - Willing to have sex
On the Pull - Looking for sex
Up the Duff - Pregnant



British Slang 1/3

Cock-up - Screw up
Skive - Lazy or avoid doing something
Know Your Onions - Knowledgeable
It's monkeys outside - it is very cold
Rubbish - Garbage or 'That's crap!'
Blimey! - My Goodness
Gutted - Devastated
Chuffed - Proud
Lost the Plot - Gone Crazy
Sorted - Arranged
Hoover - Vacuum
Kip - Sleep or nap
Bee's Knees - Awesome
Dodgy - Suspicious
Wonky - Not right
Wicked - Cool!
Tad - Little bit
Fanny - Vagina



There are some peculiarities which are belong to slang:

- Slang is informal language.
- Slang is usually spoken rather than written.

- Slang can be specific to groups or eras and change over time. For instance, the slang young people use today is different from the slang young people used in the 1970s.

1. Multiple choice.

1. *Bae*

a) *sheep* B) *friend* c) *your significant others*

2. *Throw shade*

a) *insult smb.* b) *put on suntan lotion* c) *be out of touch*

3. *netflix and chill*

a) *watch tv* b) *hook up with smb.* c) *relax*

4. *on fleek*

a) *looking its best* b) *at Christmas* c) *on drugs*

5. *Thirsty*

a) *thirsty* b) *desperate for smth* c) *want action*

6. *Af*

a) *always funny* b) *awesome friend* c) *to express anger, disgust*

7. *Basic bitch*

a) *smb's girlfriend* b) *self-confident but annoying* c) *prize winning female dog*

8. *Ship*

a) *a superb boat* b) *have sth delivered* c) *think about two people as a perfect match*

9. *Slay*

a) *smth really trendy* b) *smth is boring you to death* c) *kill smb for money*

10. *TBH*

a) *a kind of party* b) *to be honest* c) *to be out of line*

Lesson 6: Vague language

Vague language is not totally accurate or clear. Although some people think this is "bad" English, all native English speakers use vague language

when they are unable or unwilling to give accurate information, or they think it is either unnecessary or socially inappropriate to do so. A good example of vague language is rounding up numbers when telling the time. Twenty-six minutes past two becomes:

It's *about* half past two.

It's *almost* half past two.

It's half two-*ish*.

It's *nearly* half past two.

Often, speakers use vague language not because they do not have accurate information, but because they feel it is more polite to make a less definite statement. "That is wrong" becomes:

"I'm not sure that's completely correct."

Short definite statements sometimes sound too assertive to native English speakers, so they often add extra vague language to a sentence. This extra language has no extra meaning, it is just a social softener.

The use of vague language differs from language to language and is an important cultural consideration when doing business in a foreign language. Native English speakers, for example, can find Germans direct because German uses little vague language. On the other hand, for Germans, native English speakers can sound indecisive, inaccurate and lacking authority. In both cases they are reacting to characteristics of the language, not their business partner. Here are some more examples of vague language commonly used by native speakers of English.

List completers

Sometimes a speaker might start a list of some kind and then cannot remember the rest of the list or does not think the other items are important enough to mention. In these cases, list completers are ideal:

"I typed some letters, reports and so on."

"You have to ask a doctor or a lawyer or someone like that, you know."

List completers are very common and use words such as things and stuff. Here are some more list completers:

and stuff like that

and things / stuff

or something like that

or stuff like that

or what / where / whoever

Placeholders

Placeholders are for when a speaker does not know or cannot remember the name of something or someone. We use general words like *thing*, *person*, *man*, *guy*, *bloke*, *woman* as placeholders.

*"I need **a thing** for the slide projector."*

*"I gave it to you know, **that guy** in the accounts department."*

Grammatically these simply replace the name of the person or object that the speaker cannot remember and never change their form. Other place holders include:

whatsername (for a woman)

whatsit

thingy

thingummy

Quantifiers

Vague language is very common with numbers when expressing quantity, frequency or the time. Low numbers are often substituted by phrases such as *a couple of / a few*, whereas larger numbers are rounded up with *about / around* or replaced with *lots of / loads of*.

*"Should we say **around three or four o'clock**?"*

*"It cost **around 20 pounds** or so."*

*"It's **about a million**."*

*"The computer caused **loads / lots of** problems."*

With vague language *a couple* does not necessarily mean two. It could

mean up to three or even four. When people do not want or need to give accurate numbers they can use the following:

*"There were **about 30 odd** / or so people at the meeting."*

*"He's not that old. I'd say he's **about 30-ish**."*

*"There were **a lot of** / **lots of** / **loads of** problems."*

*"I've been to Prague **a couple of** / **a few** times."*

*"I think we need **about** / **around 30** (or so)."*

Generalisers

Also very common are items like *sort of*, *kind of* or *you know*. These may be used when someone cannot think of the right word. We also use items like this when we do not want to be too precise, perhaps because we don't want people to think we are trying to look like an expert on a topic.

Suffixes

We often add the suffix *-ish* or *-y* to a word to show that we are not being precise. This is very common with colour adjectives:

"It's a sort of greenish blue."

"He's not that old. I'd say he's about 30-ish."

"I'll try and come around twoish."

ju "He has kind of blondey hair."

Vague language is very common, especially in speaking. We often add words and phrases such as *about*, *kind of*, *sort of*, and *that kind of thing* to make what we say less factual and direct:

*There were **about** twenty people at the meeting.*

*It's **kind of** cold in here.*

*Did you see lions and giraffes **and that kind of thing** when you were in*

South Africa?

We generally use vague language when we don't know the name of

something, or to make things sound less factual, or to talk about groups and categories.

When we don't know the name of something

We can use vague expressions when we are not sure of the name of something. These expressions include: ***what do you call it?, what's it called?, it's a kind of X, it's a sort of X, it's a type of X, or something, thing, stuff:***

A: *Val's been in hospital for tests. Did you know that?*

B: *No. What's wrong?*

A: *Well, they're not sure. She's had to have that test, er, **what do you call it?** Where you have to go into a type of X-ray machine.*

B: *A CAT scan?*

A: *Yeah. She's had that done but they still don't know what's causing her headaches. She's got a small dog, a kind of poodle, **or something.***

*What's that **stuff** you use when your lips get dry?*

*Where's the **thing** for cleaning the window?*

Spoken English:

In very informal speaking, we sometimes say /'wɒtʃəmækɔ:lɪt/, /'wɒtʃəmækɔ:lɪm/, /'θɪŋəmi/, /'θɪŋəmədʒɪŋ/. These are informal versions of *what do you call it/him/her*, etc. We never write these words:

A: *Andrew's just moved in with **whatyamacallhim** /'wɒtʃəmækɔ:lɪm/?*

B: *Barry?*

A: *No, his friend from Manchester.*

Making things sound less factual

Being very factual can sometimes sound too direct in speaking, and so we add vague expressions. These are called hedges: *about, kind of, sort of, -ish* (suffix), *stuff, things*:

*There's **sort of** something I don't like about her. (more direct: *There's something I don't like about her.*)*

It's **kind of** bright in here. (more direct: *It's too bright in here.*)

I can't meet up later. I have too much **stuff** to do.

I forget so many **things** these days.

We especially use vague expressions before numbers, quantities and times to make them sound less factual:

I'll see you at **about** 8 tomorrow morning for breakfast. Is that okay? (more direct: *I'll see you at 8 tomorrow morning for breakfast.*)

We expect to take **in or around** two years to complete the project. (more direct: *We expect to take two years and four months to complete the project.*)

We're meeting Veronica at **four-ish**. (more direct: *We're meeting Veronica at four.*)

We've been living here for **more or less** five years. (more direct: *We've been living here for five years and three months.*)

Talking about groups and categories

We use certain vague expressions to make groups or categories. We usually give examples of members of the group or category (underlined below) and then add a vague expression, e.g. *necklaces, bracelets **and things like that***.

Common vague expressions include:

1. *and that kind of thing and stuff like that*
2. *and that sort of thing and stuff*
3. *and that type of thing and so on*
4. *and things like that and this, that and the other*
5. *and the like*

Where are all the knives and forks **and that kind of thing**?

I need to buy cards and wrapping paper **and stuff like that**.

A: Where's Emma?

B: She's gone to the doctor. She's been getting pains in her stomach and feeling tired **and things like that**.

He never eats chocolate, sweets **and that type of thing**.

*There are so many lorries and trucks **and that sort of thing** passing by our house, even during the night.*

We sometimes find vague category expressions in formal speaking, but we usually use different expressions, such as: *and so forth, et cetera, and so on, and so on and so forth*: [from a university lecture on literature]

*The book has often been looked at from a feminist perspective **and so forth** but I want to look at it from a political perspective today.* [from a university lecture on communication]

*If you use an advertisement in the newspaper, a thirty-second ad on television **et cetera et cetera**, it will receive quite a wide audience but there's relatively little you can say in it. (ad = advertisement)*

*What are your views on the new government and the changes they have made **and so forth**?*

Vague Language

- Forms

- **Vague modifiers**
 - vague quantifiers
 - **about, roughly, lots of**
 - vague epistemic modifiers
 - **a bit, sort of, kinda, wee**
- **General extenders**
 - **or something, and so on, an that**

vague pronouns

Pronouns need to refer back to a clear and specific noun.



Task 1. Clarifying. *How many examples of vague language can you find in this conversation?*

SB: What's your favourite colour?

CM: My favourite colour? Mmm. I suppose it's blue. I don't know why I like blue, except it's probably the most popular colour for ... for a majority of the population.

SB: You think ... more than red?

CM: Well if you look at erm, any group of people together, like say in a football stadium or something like that you'll find the predominant colour – I find the predominant colour invariably is – is blue. Blue jerseys and things like that.

SB: Not if it's Liverpool and they're all in red!

I don't think I have a favourite colour. I just sort of wake up in the morning and I just feel like pulling on clothes of one colour or another..

CM: Yeah, but if you go shopping or something don't you choose say a blue shirt rather than a pink shirt?

SB: Well, I tend to buy – when I buy clothes, most clothes buy tend to be sort of khaki or olive or sort of greyish, and then I have things with bright colours to go with them. Not green. I don't like green. I'm not too keen on yellow either. But apart from that – red, blue, purple, black, white – you know.

Task 2. Categorising

- a) They live in a sort of castle place.
- b) I don't like touristy places, you know, Blackpool, Southend, places like that.
- c) It's getting on for ten o'clock.
- d) I quite like him, but I'm not too keen on her.
- e) We stopped of at that supermarket place on the high street.
- f) There must have been about a hundred people there.
- g) It was full of old boxes and stuff like that.
- h) What's that stuff on your shirt?

Task 3

Can you think of examples of vague language in your own language? Do they fit the same categories?

Lesson 7: Headline English. Abbreviations

A heading, usually in large, heavy type, at the top of an article in a newspaper, magazine, or other publication, indicating the subject of the article. Constraints on space affect the language of headlines, sometimes known (in its more extreme forms) as headlines. It has developed from more or less conventional syntax to increasingly brief, generalized, powerful, and cryptic units. Particularly in the banner headlines of the tabloid press, the VOCABULARY has tended to consist of short, emotive, and suggestive words, often metaphors of violence, such as axe, clash, cut, hit, oust, slam, slate, and 'broad-spectrum' words such as ban, bid, boost, call, curb, link, probe, riddle, scare, swoop, vow.

Layout and punctuation

Although, by and large, banner headlines continue to be popular, styles vary and many newspapers have sedate, largely lower-case styles: the International Herald Tribune, with initial capitals on main parts of speech (For a Day, Pro Football Goes Global in Tokyo and London); the Independent, with an opening initial capital, apart from proper names. Punctuation, once the same as for prose, has been exploited in special conventions, notably among the tabloids: the exclamation mark used to generate interest (MR K! DON'T BE SO BLOODY RUDE!); the question mark implying speculation or doubt (ELECTION PACT?); both creating a visual shout (Dogs!)The comma is increasingly used for and: PETROL, BUTTER PRICE HIKE; POUND'S FALL, PM TO ACT. Conventional punctuation marks may be ignored: I'm innocent says blast jet woman (Observer, 6 Apr. 1986). Within a headline, quotes mark a statement or allegation from which the newspaper distances itself: Union opposed to 'liquor police' (Montreal Gazette, 14 Apr. 1983).

Style and syntax

Whereas the quality press tends to be relatively sober and restrained, using ‘high’ register and less immediately emotive words, the tabloids prefer ‘low’, colloquial, often pejorative usage (The Floozy, Fatso and the Fall Guy: Daily Mirror, 8 Feb. 1989). Present-day usage tends to string terms together in concentrated sequences: Fodor, Ex-Violin Prodigy, Starts Paying the Piper (IHT, 7 Aug. 1989); Fox on up up up (Observer, 14 Aug. 1988). Such strings often entail heavy pre-modification (Deadlock over Anglo-Irish EEC cash bid: Independent, 9 Oct. 1986) and the completely pre-modified STRIKE BAN S ION The shortening of words and phrases (kilogram to kg, Imperial Chemical Industries to ICI) and a result of such shortening (MA for Master of Arts, sitcom for situation comedy).

Abbreviation History

Alphabetic abbreviation became possible around 1000 BC and was common in the classical world: the Greek letters ΙΧΘΥΣ (making up the word for ‘fish’) stood for Ἰησοῦς Χριστὸς Θεοῦ Υἱὸς Σωτήρ (Jesus Christ Son of God Saviour), and as a result of their use the fish became a Christian symbol; the Latin letters SPQR stood for Senatus Populusque Romanus (the Senate and the Roman people). In addition, short forms such as IMP CAES (abbreviation in English descends from such forms, its more immediate origin was in the practices of medieval scribes, among whom short forms were mnemonic and a means of economizing on parchment, effort, and time. As writing extended from Latin into the European vernacular languages, short forms went with it, first as loans (such as AD for Anno Domini: from the year of the Lord), then as native creations (such as BC for Before Christ). All such devices combine economy (of effort, space, and reference) with repetition (of the familiar and formulaic); although some are casual or temporary creations, others have become over the centuries so institutionalized that their origins and natures are seldom considered: as for example AD and BC, when used for everyday secular purposes.

Nature

Although abbreviations usually need to be concise, convenient, and easy to remember, they do not need to be fully understood to serve their purpose. People literate in English can work successfully with such formulas as e.g. and q.v. whether or not they know their full Latin forms *exempli gratia* (for the sake of example) and *quod vide* (which see). The more familiar and successful the short form, the less need for the full form, which may in course of time be forgotten. The full forms of *mob* and *radar* (radio detection and ranging) have no functional value in the 1990s, and many are entirely unaware that these words are (or were) abbreviations. The members of organizations usually have little difficulty with the abbreviations they use, because of sheer familiarity, but people who are not part of the in-group may regard their use as (sometimes frustrating and provocative) jargon.

Orthography

There are six conventions for writing and printing abbreviations: (1) Capital letters and points: I.N.S.E.A. for ‘International Society for Education through Art’. (2) Capital letters without points: BBC for ‘British Broadcasting Corporation’; NATO for ‘North Atlantic Treaty Organization’. (3) Lower-case letters with points for formulas such as e.g. and q.v., and without points for items that have become everyday words, such as *laser*, *radar*. (4) Mixed capitals and lower case, without points, capitals usually for lexical words, lower case for grammatical words: DoWLT for ‘Dictionary of World Literary Terms’; MoMA for ‘Museum of Modern Art’; mRNA for ‘messenger ribonucleic acid’; WiB the organization ‘Women in Business’. (5) Internal capitals, as in CompuSex for ‘Computer Sex’, and DigiPulse for ‘Digital Pulse’. (6) Hybrid forms: B.Com. for ‘Bachelor of Commerce’.

Typology

There are three types of abbreviation:

- (1) Letter-based, such as AAA;
- (2) Syllable-based, such as con;

(3) Hybrid, such as B.Com

All may have a symbolic or a lexical function: symbolic abbreviations serve as formulas, as with c.c. or cc (cubic centimetres/meters), Fe (iron, from Latin ferrum); lexical abbreviations are generally word-like, some less so because they are spoken as letter sequences, as with BBC, some more so because they are spoken as words and often can not be usefully distinguished from them, as with NATO, radar.

Symbolic abbreviations.

Abbreviations that serve as symbols are usually pronounced as letter sequences or as their full originating words, as with c.c. ('cee-cee', 'cubic centimetres'). Some are spoken very differently from anything suggested by etymology or appearance: for example, the former British symbol £.s.d. is pronounced either 'ell-ess-dee' or 'pounds, shillings, and pence', not *Librae, solidi, et denarii (the Latin for which the signs stand). In some instances, where abbreviations start with a vowel, the use of a or an indicates whether a writer is thinking of them as letters or words: a MP 'a Member of Parliament'; an MP 'an em-pee'.

Lexical abbreviations.

Abbreviations that serve as words fall into three types that shade into a fourth less clear-cut type:

(1) INITIALISM. A letter group that cannot be pronounced as a word, and must therefore be spoken as letters: BBC spoken as 'bee-bee-see'.

(2) ACRONYM. A letter group that can be, and is, pronounced as a word: NATO spoken as 'Nay-toe'.

(3) CLIPPING. A part of a word standing for the whole: pro for professional and phone for telephone.

(4) BLEND, also portmanteau word. A word made from two or more other words, by fusion (brunch from breakfast and lunch) or by putting together syllabic elements from other words (Oxbridge from Oxford and Cambridge).

There are at least five variations and hybrids of these basic types:

(1) Both initialisms and acronyms: VAT (Value Added Tax) is referred to as both ‘vat’ and ‘vee-ay-tee’.

(2) Forms that look like one type but behave like another: WHO (World Health Organization) is ‘double-you-aitch-oh’, not ‘hoo’; POW (prisoner of war) is ‘pee-oh-double-you’, not ‘pow’.

(3) Part-initialism, part-acronym: VTOL (vertical take-off and landing) is pronounced ‘vee-tall’; CD-ROM (compact disc read-only memory) is ‘cee-dee-rom’.

(4) Combinations of letter groups and clippings: ARPAnet (Advanced Research Projects Agency computer network).

(5) Initialisms adapted as acronyms: ‘GLCMs (ground-launched cruise missiles) and SLCMs (sea-launched cruise missiles) are called Glickems and Slickems by those in the know’ (from Time, 18 Feb. 1985).

Occurrence in texts

When abbreviations are familiar, they are used without explanation but, because they cannot always be presented without a gloss, there are at least six ways of bringing them into a text

1. Indirect association.

The Art Gallery of Nova Scotia is now touring three other national exhibitions ... In the last fiscal year AGNS sent 23 exhibitions to 63 centres’ (Halifax Chronicle Herald, 11 Nov. 1982).

2. Full form, bracketed abbreviation.

‘Britain may ban imports [of blood] that could be spreading the killer disease Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS)’ (Montreal Gazette, 3 May 1983).

3. Abbreviation, bracketed full form.

‘The uncertainty surrounding SERPS (State earnings related pension scheme) deepens’ (Times, 11 May 1985).

4. Using ‘(stands) for’.

‘Here’s an acronym you should know: MEGO. It stands for “My Eyes Glaze Over”’ (William Safire, New York Times, Jan. 1988).

5. Using ‘or’.

‘Ethylene dibromide, or EDB, has been described as the most powerful cancer-causing agent the Environmental Protection Agency has tested’ (International Herald Tribune, 4/5 Feb. 1984).

6. Using ‘as it is known’.

‘The failure may explain the absence so far of any announcement about “Initial Operating Capability,” due to have been achieved at Greenham Common on Thursday. IOC, as it is known, means that one flight of missiles is declared officially capable of being launched on a “mission”’ (Observer, 18 Dec. 1983).

Occasionally, an abbreviation is glossed not by the word or words it shortens but by others with which it has semantic links: ‘Paris imposed the ban [on British beef] ... because of concern over BSE, or “mad cow” disease’ (The European, 1–3 June 1990). BSE in fact stands for bovine spongiform encephalopathy.

Word-formation

Because they are wordlike, abbreviations play a part in WORD-FORMATION, as follows:

1. Conversion.

The word overdose is used as a noun and a verb.

2. Derivation.

(1) With prefixes: an ex-PoC is someone no longer a prisoner of conscience (Amnesty International); pro-JLP means in favour of the Jamaican Labour Party.

(2) With suffixes: Rabisms are noteworthy sayings of the British politician R. A. Butler; WASPy means like a White Anglo-Saxon Protestant.

(3) With both: an ex-CFL-er is a former member of the Canadian Football League

1. Read and write for meaning. Remove the headlines from a number of news stories, replace the missing headlines, ask them to point out the words in the headlines that helped them find the correct story.

The objectives: - to provide each student with the story that originally accompanied the headline

2. Expand your vocabulary. Browsing through the newspaper, find five unfamiliar words beginning with the assigned letter, and look up the definition of each, ask students to look in the newspaper for any of the following:

- words with a particular suffix or prefix
- words containing a particular vowel sound or consonant blend
- compound words
- words in the past, present, and future tenses
- possessives
- plurals

Look for examples of similes, metaphors, irony, hyperbole, and satire.

3. Understand the media. Distributing advertisements cut from newspapers, and ask students to list the products in order, according to the appeal of the ads and creating a chart showing how students rated each product.

The objectives: - to create students' ability in designing their own using one of the propaganda techniques studied.

Then distribute a list of the following propaganda techniques:

- **Bandwagon** -- the implication that "everybody else is doing it."

- *Plain folks -- the implication that "users of this product are just like you."*
- *Card stacking -- distorting or omitting facts.*
- *Name-calling -- stereotyping people or ideas.*
- *Glittering generalities -- using "good" labels, such as patriotic, beautiful, exciting, that are unsupported by facts.*
- *Testimonial -- an endorsement by a famous person.*
- *Snob appeal -- the implication that only the richest, smartest, or most important people are doing it.*
- *Transference -- the association of a respected person with a product or idea.*

Discuss each ad, and determine the propaganda technique(s) used. Asking:

1. *Which techniques were most effective?*
2. *Which were least effective?*
3. *What factors, such as gender, geographic location, or age, might have influenced the effectiveness of each technique?*

1. Match it Up.

The objectives of the task: - to give an opportunity to students to practice abbreviation and acronyms in context.

FYI	St.	Dr.	Wed.	Sun.
Sat.	Prof.	NBA	POTUS	E
PB&J	N	Aug.	Apr.	Nov.

1. National Basketball Association _____
2. Doctor _____
3. North _____

4. For your information_____
5. November_____
6. Sunday_____
7. Street_____
8. President of the United States _____

Example: ***FYI, the outdoor concert has been cancelled due to poor weather conditions.***

Sentence #1:

Sentence #2:

2.All Eyes on Abbreviations and Acronyms.

Using abbreviations or acronyms from the boxes or other common abbreviations or acronyms, write three additional sentences that include an abbreviation or acronym.

Fri.	pt.	Mon.	Dr.
Tues.	DIY	c.	St.
Jan.	TBA	BLT	Feb.

1. Our teacher told us that we would go on a eld trip on Monday. _____ Turn left and you will see the Blossom Street, which is near my house. _____

2. Mr. James explained the directions on the group project, but told us that groups are to be announced later. _____
3. Make sure that you use exactly one cup of -our in the recipe. _____
4. My favorite item on the menu is a bacon, lettuce, and tomato sandwich. _____
5. My mom really enjoys do it yourself projects because she can be very creative! _____
6. Since I have been sick all week I have an appointment with Doctor Lewis on Friday. _____

My Own Use of Abbreviations and Acronyms:

7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
- _____

Lesson 8: US English and other English

The English language was first introduced to the Americas by British colonization, beginning in the late 16th and early 17th centuries. Similarly, the language spread to numerous other parts of the world as a result of British trade and colonisation elsewhere and the spread of the former British Empire, which, by 1921, held sway over a population of 470–570 million people, approximately a quarter of the world's population at that time.

Over the past 400 years, the form of the

language used in the Americas—especially in the United States—and that used in the United Kingdom have diverged in a few minor ways, leading to the versions now occasionally referred to as American English and British English. Differences between the two include pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary (lexis), spelling, punctuation, idioms, and formatting of dates and numbers. Although, the differences in written and most spoken grammar structure tend to be much less than those of other aspects of the language in terms of mutual intelligibility. A small number of words have completely different meanings in the two versions or are even unknown or not used in one of the versions. One particular contribution towards formalizing these differences came from Noah Webster, who wrote the first American dictionary (published 1828) with the intention of showing that people in the United States spoke a different dialect from Britain, much like a regional accent.^[1] This divergence between American English and British English has provided opportunities for humorous comment, e.g., George Bernard Shaw has a character say that the United States and United Kingdom are "two countries divided by a common language";^[2] and Oscar Wilde that "We have really everything in common with America nowadays, except, of course, the language" (*The Canterville Ghost*, 1888). Henry Sweet incorrectly predicted in 1877 that within a century American English, Australian English and British English would be mutually unintelligible (*A Handbook of Phonetics*). It may be the case that increased worldwide communication through radio, television, the Internet and globalization has reduced the tendency towards regional variation. This can result either in some variations becoming extinct (for instance, *the wireless*, being progressively superseded by *the radio*) or in the acceptance of wide variations as "perfectly good English" everywhere.

Although spoken American and British English are generally mutually intelligible, there are occasional differences which might cause

embarrassment—for example, in American English a *rubber* is usually interpreted as a *condom* rather than an *eraser*;^[3] and a British *fanny* refers to the female pubic area, while the American *fanny* refers to an *ass* (US) or an *arse* (UK).

There is an old saying that America and Britain are “two nations divided by a common language.”

No one knows exactly who said this, but it reflects the way many Brits feel about American English. My British friend still tells me, “You don’t speak English. You speak American.”

But are American and British English really so different?

Vocabulary

There are far more examples, fortunately, most Americans and Brits can usually guess the meaning through the context of a sentence. The most noticeable difference between American and British English is vocabulary. There are hundreds of everyday words that are different. For example, Brits call the front of a car the *bonnet*, while Americans call it the *hood*.

Americans go *on vacation*, while Brits go *on holidays*, or *hols*.

New Yorkers live in *apartments*; Londoners live in *flats*.

Collective nouns

There are a few grammatical differences between the two varieties of English. Let’s start with **collective nouns**. We use collective nouns to refer to a group of individuals.

In American English, collective nouns are singular. For example, *staff* refers to a group of employees; *band* refers to a group of musicians; *team* refers to a group of athletes. Americans would say, “The band is good.

But in British English, collective nouns can be singular or plural. You might hear someone from Britain say, “The team are playing tonight” or “The team is playing tonight.”

Auxiliary

verbs

Another grammar difference between American and British English relates to auxiliary verbs. **Auxiliary verbs**, also known as helping verbs, are verbs that help form a grammatical function. They “help” the main verb by adding information about time, **modality** and voice.

Let’s look at the auxiliary verb *shall*. Brits sometimes use *shall* to express the future.

For example, “I shall go home now.” Americans know what *shall* means, but rarely use it in conversation. It seems very formal. Americans would probably use “I will go home now.”

In question form, a Brit might say, “Shall we go now?” while an American would probably say, “Should we go now?”

When Americans want to express a lack of obligation, they use the helping verb *do* with negative *not* followed by *need*. “You do not need to come to work today.” Brits drop the helping verb and contract *not*. “You needn’t come to work today.”

Past tense verbs

You will also find some small differences with past forms of irregular verbs. The past tense of *learn* in American English is *learned*. British English has the option of *learned* or *learnt*. The same rule applies to *dreamed* and *dreamt*, *burned* and *burnt*, *leaned* and *leant*. Americans tend to use the *-ed* ending; Brits tend to use the *-t* ending.

In the past participle form, Americans tend to use the *-en* ending for some irregular verbs. For example, an American might say, “I have never gotten caught” whereas a Brit would say, “I have never got caught.” Americans use both *got* and *gotten* in the past participle. Brits only use *got*.

Tag questions.

A tag question is a grammatical form that turns a statement into a question. For example, “The whole situation is unfortunate, isn’t it?” or, “You don’t like him, do you?”

The tag includes a pronoun and its matching form of the verb *be*, *have* or *do*. Tag questions encourage people to respond and agree with the speaker. Americans use tag questions, too, but less often than Brits. You can learn more about tag questions on a [previous episode of Everyday Grammar](#).

Spelling.

There are hundreds of minor spelling differences between British and American English. You can thank American **lexicographer** Noah Webster for this. You might recognize Webster's name from the dictionary that carries his name. Noah Webster, an author, politician, and teacher, started an effort to reform English spelling in the late 1700s. He was frustrated by the **inconsistencies** in English spelling. Webster wanted to spell words the way they sounded. Spelling reform was also a way for America to show its independence from England.

You can see Webster's legacy in the American spelling of words like *color* (from *colour*), *honor* (from *honour*), and *labor* (from *labour*). Webster dropped the letter *u* from these words to make the spelling match the pronunciation.

Other Webster ideas failed, like a proposal to spell *women* as *wimmen*. Since Webster's death in 1843, attempts to change spelling rules in American English have gone nowhere.

For example,

<u>articulated lorry</u>	tractor-trailer
<u>asymmetric bars</u>	uneven bars
<u>aubergine</u>	Eggplant
<u>baking tray</u>	cookie sheet
<u>bank holiday</u>	legal holiday

<u>beetroot</u>	beet(s)
<u>biscuit</u>	cookie; cracker
<u>black economy</u>	underground economy
<u>blanket bath</u>	sponge bath
<u>block of flats</u>	apartment building
<u>boiler suit</u>	Coveralls
<u>bonnet (of a car)</u>	Hood
<u>boob tube</u>	tube top
<u>boot (of a car)</u>	Trunk
<u>bottom drawer</u>	hope chest
<u>bowls</u>	lawn bowling
<u>braces</u>	Suspenders
<u>brawn (the food)</u>	Headcheese
breakdown van	tow truck
<u>breeze block</u>	cinder block
<u>bridging loan</u>	bridge loan
<u>bumbag</u>	fanny pack

<u>candyfloss</u>	cotton candy
<u>car park</u>	parking lot
<u>casualty</u>	emergency room
<u>catapult</u>	Slingshot
<u>central reservation</u>	median strip
<u>chemist</u>	Drugstore
<u>chips</u>	French fries
<u>cinema</u>	movie theater; the movies
<u>cling film</u>	plastic wrap
<u>common seal</u>	harbor seal
<u>consumer durables</u>	durable goods
<u>cornflour</u>	Cornstarch
<u>cos (<i>lettuce</i>)</u>	Romaine
<u>cot</u>	Crib
<u>cot death</u>	crib death
<u>cotton bud</u>	cotton swab
<u>cotton wool</u>	absorbent cotton

<u>council estate</u>	(housing) project
<u>courgette</u>	Zucchini
<u>court card</u>	face card
<u>crash barrier</u>	Guardrail
<u>crisps</u>	chips; potato chips
<u>crocodile clip</u>	alligator clip
<u>cross-ply</u>	bias-ply
<u>crotchet (music)</u>	quarter note
<u>current account</u>	checking account
<u>danger money</u>	hazard pay

1. Gap filling.

The objectives of the activity: - to give students an opportunity to practice the varieties of English in context

Procedure 1

- Give out the worksheets and ask learners to complete the gaps with appropriate vocabulary.
- Students listen to the teacher to check.

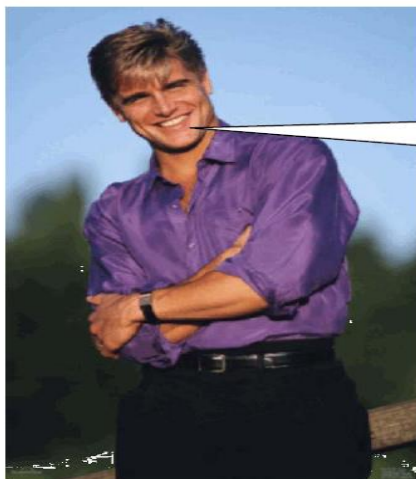
Procedure 2

- Put the clues/definitions on the walls around the room. To make this easier you could also add the words to walls and use it as a matching activity.
- Learners walk around and complete worksheet 2 with two words in American and British English.

- *Give out the gapped text.*
- *Learners complete the text with the appropriate word.*
- *Teacher reads, learners listen and check.*

Procedure 3

- *Put the clues/definitions on the walls around the room. To make this easier you could also add the words to walls and use it as a matching activity.*
- *Learners walk around and complete worksheet 2 with two words in American and British English.*
- *Teacher checks.*
- *Teacher reads the gapped text and elicits answers from the learners.*
- *Give out worksheet and learners complete to provide a written record.*



Hi dudes and dudettes,
I'm Chad from New York
City. Fill in the gaps for
me please. Alright!!

2. British and American English. The text below has words missing.

Write words in the gaps depending on where the speaker is from. There are clues at the bottom to help you.

It was getting near lunchtime and I needed some (1) _____, so I left the (2) _____ and drove towards the nearest town. There was a (3) _____ station just outside the town and I decided to stop and have a look round. I put the car in a (4) _____ and took a (5) _____ to the centre. It was midday and very hot, so I stopped at a little

(6) _____ with tables on the (7) _____. I started talking to a (8) _____ driver, who gave me a history of the town, and afterwards he took me on a guided tour. It made a nice break.

Clues

- 1) The fuel you put in a car to make it go.
- 2) A main road.
- 3) The fuel you put in a car to make it go.
- 4) A place to leave a car.
- 5) A car you can travel in if you pay the driver.
- 6) A place to buy and eat food. (Not a restaurant)
- 7) The place for walking by the side of the road.
- 8) A big vehicle used for transporting things.



Hello everyone. I'm Basil from London.
Could you please fill in the gaps for me?
Jolly good!!

It was getting near lunchtime and I needed some (1) _____, so I left the (2) _____ and drove towards the nearest town. There was a (3) _____ station just outside the town and I decided to stop and have a look round. I put the car in a (4) _____ and took a (5) _____ to the centre. It was midday and very hot, so I stopped at a little

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- 8) A big vehicle used for transporting things.

Clues and words to be stuck around the room

1. The fuel you put in a car to make it go.
2. A main road.
3. A place to leave a car.
4. A car you can travel in if you pay the driver.
5. A place to buy and eat food. (Not a restaurant)
6. The place for walking by the side of the road.
7. A big vehicle used for transporting things.

<i>petrol</i>	<i>gas</i>	<i>motorway</i>
<i>freeway, highway</i>	<i>lorry</i>	<i>car park</i>
<i>parking lot</i>	<i>truck</i>	<i>taxi</i>
<i>cab</i>	<i>café</i>	<i>diner</i>
<i>pavement</i>	<i>sidewalk</i>	

Lesson 9: New words in English and discourse markers

Discourse markers are words or phrases like *anyway, right, okay, as I say, to begin with*. We use them to connect, organise and manage what we say or write or to express attitude:

[friends are talking]

A: *So, I've decided I'm going to go to the bank and ask for a car loan.*

B:*That sounds like a good idea.*

C:*Well, you need a car.*

B:*Right.*

A:*Anyway, I was wondering if either of you would teach me how to drive.*

The discourse markers in this extract have a number of uses: *so* marks the beginning the conversation, *well* marks a mining of a new part of the conversation change in the focus (from getting a car loan to needing a car). *right* marks a response (B is agreeing with C). *anyway* marks a shift in topic (from buying a new car to having driving lessons). We use different discourse markers in speaking and writing. In speaking, the following discourse markers are very common:

<i>Anyway</i>	<i>Like</i>	<i>right</i>	<i>you know</i>
<i>Fine</i>	<i>Now</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>I mean</i>
<i>Good</i>	<i>Oh</i>	<i>well</i>	<i>as I say</i>
<i>Great</i>	<i>Okay</i>	<i>mind you</i>	<i>for a start</i>

In writing, the following discourse markers are common:

<i>Firstly</i>	<i>in addition</i>	<i>moreover</i>	<i>on the other hand</i>
<i>Secondly</i>	<i>in conclusion</i>	<i>on the one hand</i>	<i>to begin with</i>
<i>Thirdly</i>	<i>in sum</i>		

Some discourse markers are used to start and to end conversations. Some are used to start new topics or to change topics.
Starting a conversation or talk

A:*Right, let's get started. We need to get the suitcases into the car.*

B:*Okay. I'll do that. Katie, will you help me?*

[at the start of a radio interview] **Now**, *we have with us in the studio today someone you will all know from television. John Rice, welcome to the show.*

Ending a conversation

[A mother (A) and daughter (B) on the telephone]

A: *So we'll see you Sunday, Liz.*

B: *Right, okay Mum.*

A: *Okay, see you then, love.*

B: *Bye, Mum. Thanks for calling.*

A: *Bye, Liz.*

At the end of a meeting]

A: *Anyway, is that it? Has anyone got any questions?*

B: *No. I think we're done.*

A: *Right, fine, thanks everyone for coming. We'll circulate the documents tomorrow and make some follow-up calls about the project.*

Examples,

<u>ADDITION</u>	<u>COMPARISON</u>	<u>CONTRAST</u>	<u>TIME</u>
further furthermore moreover in addition additionally then also too besides again equally important first, second finally, last	similarly comparable in the same way likewise as with equally just as ... so too a similar x another x like	however nevertheless on the other hand on the contrary even so notwithstanding alternatively at the same time though otherwise instead nonetheless conversely	meanwhile presently at last finally immediately thereafter at that time subsequently eventually currently in the meantime in the past
<u>RESULT</u>	<u>SUMMARY</u>	<u>EXAMPLE</u>	<u>PLACE</u>
hence therefore accordingly consequently thus thereupon as a result in consequence so then	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	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	there here beyond nearby next to at that point opposite to adjacent to on the other side in the front in the back

Discourse Markers

Adding Something	Making Contrast	Giving Reasons	Showing Results	Expressing Conditions	Reinforce Ideas
<i>Moreover</i>	<i>However</i>	<i>Because</i>	<i>Therefore</i>	<i>If</i>	<i>On the contrary...</i>
<i>In addition</i>	<i>On the other hand...</i>	<i>Since</i>	<i>Consequently</i>	<i>In the event of</i>	<i>As a matter of fact...</i>
<i>Additionally</i>	<i>In contrast...</i>	<i>As</i>	<i>As a result</i>	<i>As long as</i>	<i>In fact</i>
<i>Further</i>	<i>Yet</i>	<i>Insofar as</i>	<i>Accordingly</i>	<i>So long as</i>	<i>Indeed</i>
<i>Further to this</i>			<i>Hence</i>	<i>Provided</i>	
<i>Also</i>			<i>Thus</i>	<i>that</i>	
<i>Besides</i>			<i>Because of</i>	<i>Assuming</i>	
<i>What is more</i>			<i>this</i>	<i>that</i>	
			<i>For this reason</i>	<i>Given that</i>	

Activities

The objective: - to teach students using the discourse markers in contexts and to practice them in the sentences.

Finding a discourse markers.

Discourse markers are words and phrases we use to connect and organise our ideas. They act like signposts, telling the listener what information is coming up next. Sian will share eight discourse markers with you – and she'll let you listen to her telephone conversation to do this!

Typescript of the telephone conversation

*You know I was hosting an amazing dinner party last night? **Actually**, it was a complete disaster - I burnt the meat... people arrived when I was still*

cooking. **Mind you**, I did say 'turn up when you want'... and I did start cooking pretty late!

Anyway, as I was saying, I burnt the meat, the dishes were all ready at different times... the dessert was... oh **come to think of it**, I completely forgot to serve dessert!

So **basically**, everyone went home hungry. **Anyway**, how was your evening? **By the way**, before I forget, it's my birthday next week and I'm having a dinner party do you want to come?

So the first discourse marker I used was **you know**, we use this to say: 'I'm going to tell you some information that you already know.' "**You know I was hosting an amazing dinner party last night?**"

The second one I used was **actually** - we use this when we're about to give some surprising information or correct some information. "**Actually, it was a complete disaster**".

Then I used **mind you** - we use this when we're about to give an afterthought that contrasts the information that came before, so, "*people arrived when I was still cooking. **Mind you**, I did say 'turn up when you want'...*"

The next discourse marker I used was **anyway, as I was saying**. **As I was saying** is very useful because it means: 'I'm going to return to what I was talking about before'. So, "**as I was saying**, I burnt the meat" This is a previous topic.

Then I used the discourse marker **come to think of it**, we use this when you've just remembered or thought of something as you're speaking "*oh **come to think of it**, I completely forgot to serve dessert!*" I'm remembering this as I'm speaking.

Then I used **basically** - **basically** is used to summarise what you're going to say. "*So **basically**, everyone went home hungry*".

The next one I used was **anyway** - **anyway** is really useful and very common. We use it to say 'I'm going to change topic now' or 'I'm going to go

back to the original topic' or 'I'm going to finish what I was talking about'. "*Anyway, how was your evening?*"

And the final one I used was **by the way** - we use this to say 'I'm going to change direction and talk about something that's not connected to the main topic. "*By the way, before I forget, it's my birthday next week.*"

So **basically** that's your introduction to discourse markers. We use them all the time, when we're speaking... and **come to think of it**, when we're writing too. **By the way**, we have a website bbclearningenglish.com where you can practise these and find out more information. **Anyway** see you soon. Goodbye.

Matching up

Collocation – Phrasal verbs

flick through	late
turn up	a newspaper
set out	of a meeting
walk out on	with the latest fashions
get over	a disappointment
look up	a solution
come up with	your emotions
bottle up	a word
give in	to expectations
live up	your homework
pick up	languages
keep up	a journey

Lesson 10: Words and gender

In linguistics, grammatical gender is a specific form of noun class system in which the division of noun classes forms an agreement system with another aspect of the language, such as adjectives, articles, pronouns, or verbs. This system is used in approximately one quarter of the world's languages. In these languages, most or all nouns inherently carry one value of the grammatical category called *gender*; the values present in a given language (of which there are usually two or three) are called the *genders* of that language. According to one definition: "Genders are classes of nouns reflected in the behaviour of associated words."

Common gender divisions include masculine and feminine; masculine, feminine and neuter; or animate and inanimate. In a few languages, the gender assignment of nouns is solely determined by their meaning or attributes, like biological sex,^[6] humanness, animacy. However, in most languages, this semantic division is only partially valid, and many nouns may belong to a gender category that contrasts with their meaning (e.g. the word for "manliness" could be of feminine gender).^[8] In this case, the gender assignment can also be influenced by the morphology or phonology of the noun, or in some cases can be apparently arbitrary.

Grammatical gender manifests itself when words related to a noun like determiners, pronouns or adjectives change their form (*inflect*) according to the gender of noun they refer to (*agreement*). The parts of speech affected by gender agreement, the circumstances in which it occurs, and the way words are marked for gender vary between languages. Gender inflection may interact with other grammatical categories

like number or case. In some languages the declension pattern followed by the noun itself will be different for different genders.

Grammatical gender is found in many Indo-European languages (including Spanish, French, Portuguese, Russian, and German—but not Persian, for example), Afroasiatic languages (which includes the Semitic and Berber languages, etc.), and in other language families such as Dravidian and Northeast Caucasian, as well as several Australian Aboriginal languages such as Dyirbal, and Kalaw Lagaw Ya. Most Niger–Congo languages also have extensive systems of noun classes, which can be grouped into several grammatical genders. Conversely, grammatical gender is usually absent from the Koreanic, Japonic, Tungusic, Turkic, Mongolic, Austronesian, Sino-Tibetan, Uralic and most Native American language families. Modern English makes use of gender in pronouns, which are generally marked for natural gender, but lacks a system of gender concord within the noun phrase which is one of the central elements of grammatical gender in most other Indo-European languages.

1. Beautiful or Handsome?

The objectives: to teach some words which is related to the theme (gender)

Using this list of positive personality adjectives and this list of negative personality adjectives, have students note any adjectives which are used primarily for women and others used primarily for men. Display the following questions for them to discuss.

1. Are there some characteristics that are positive for men and negative for women?
2. Are there others that are positive for women and negative for men?
What are they?
3. Why do you think these gender differences exist?

4. Do gender expectations reach across cultures or are they culture specific?

2. Which of the following words [typically] describe men and which describe women?

Passive compassionate aggressive Kind Emotional
moody Insensitive Immature Physically superior Competitive
Impatient calm promiscuous loyal wild mature

Men =

Women =

• ***Try to put them into sentences:***

1. Women are _____ than men because they have natural instincts to protect life, not to kill it.

2. Men aren't as _____ as women, which is probably down to their natural wandering instinct; it isn't natural for them to look after a family.

3. Men are too _____ to stay married to one woman for their whole lives.

4. Women aren't _____ enough to be good leaders.

3. Try and use these words in different forms: E.g. 'aggressive' to 'aggression'. Can you change the sentence but keep the same meaning?

1. Men are too aggressive to be peaceful leaders.

[Example: Men have too much aggression to be peaceful leaders.]

2. Women show too much emotion to be good at business.
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3. Women do better at high school exams as they have more maturity at that age.
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