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# COMMUNICATIVE VOCABULARY AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS



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The book is intended for second-year students of Philology Faculty (English) for practical classes on “Practice of Language Aspects”

## **Preface**

### **The subject and content of science**

The science of language aspects practice teaches students the correct use of lexical forms in the communication process while increasing their knowledge of language models and structures. It involves teaching ways and means of analyzing texts in a foreign language, different perspectives on text analysis, and aspects that need to be considered in text analysis.

This course includes the modules “Communicative Vocabulary” and “Discourse Analysis”. The practice of language aspects is a course included in the block of general professional disciplines.

### **Goals and objectives of science**

The purpose of this course is to teach students important aspects of language: vocabulary and discourse analysis and improve their practical and theoretical knowledge of language aspects.

The main task of the subject is to teach language aspects and develop communication skills necessary for students to master the studied foreign language at C1 level in accordance with generally accepted international standards.

The following requirements are set for the knowledge, skills and abilities of students in the subject.

- be able to master a foreign language at C1 level according to CEFR;
- be able to use lexical structures in communication, distinguish and use them correctly in oral and written speech
- be able to know the meaning of words on professional and socio-cultural topics and be able to use them correctly in the context;
- be able to distinguish the features of oral and written texts and use them correctly in communication;
- must have imagination, knowledge, skills and competencies in vocabulary and discourse analysis.

### **Communicative vocabulary module**

The purpose of the communicative vocabulary module is to extend and improve the accuracy of student's vocabulary, as well as to develop the ability to distinguish and use the features of the studied foreign language vocabulary in communication. It also introduces vocabulary through reading texts. Learning new words in context can help a student to remember and understand the meaning of the words. This book gives opportunities to practise new words so that they can become part of student's active vocabulary. All topics are presented by using a communicative approach.

### **Discourse (text) analysis module**

The main purpose of discourse (text) analysis module is to teach ways and means of analysis of texts in the studied foreign language (written and oral), different views on the analysis of texts and aspects are taken into account in text analysis. In this book we take a primarily linguistic approach to the analysis of discourse. We examine how humans use language to communicate and, in particular, how addressers construct linguistic messages for addressees and how addressees work on linguistic messages in order to interpret them. We call on insights from all of the inter-disciplinary areas we have mentioned, and survey influential work done in all these fields, but our primary interest is the traditional concern of the descriptive linguist, to give an account of how forms of language are used in communication.

## Lesson 1 Family



**immediate family** – your closest relations, such as your parents, children, husband or wife

- *My **immediate family** are my dad, mum and two sisters.*

**nuclear family** – parents and their children

- *The average **nuclear family** in the US is made up of parents and two children.*

**extended family** – a family unit that includes grandmothers, grandfathers, aunts, and uncles, etc. in addition to parents and children

- *I have a large **extended family** with many nieces, nephews and cousins.*

**dysfunctional family** – a family that is not behaving or working normally, where there is conflict, misbehaviour, etc.

- *Cynthia came from a **dysfunctional family** and could often be seen wandering the street on her own when she was young.*

**blood relative** – someone you are related to through birth rather than marriage

*Aunty Sylvia is my **blood relative** but Uncle George, her husband, is only related to me by marriage.*

**distant relative** – generally, a relative who is a third cousin or greater, or a great aunt or uncle, especially when you have little or no involvement with him or her.

- *A member of my family died last week but they were a **distant relative** and I didn't know them very well.*

**next of kin** – the person or group of people you are most closely related to

- *When you apply for a passport, you have to name your **next of kin** in case there is an emergency while you are away travelling.*

**descendants** – a person who is related to you and who lives after you, such as your child or grandchild, and all future generations; **ancestors** – family members from past generations

- *I'm writing my autobiography so that my **descendants** will know what life was like for one of their **ancestors**.*

**household** – all the people who live in one house

- *There are now only three people in my **household** as my older brother has gone away to university.*

**big brother / older brother** (or sister) – older than you; **little sister / younger sister** (or brother) – younger than you

- *I have two **younger sisters** but I do wish I had an older brother.*

**identical twins** – twins who look exactly the same

- *I have an **identical twin** brother and even our parents find it difficult to tell us apart.*

**motherhood** – the state of being a mother

- *I'd like to have children one day but I'm not ready for **motherhood** yet.*

**fatherhood** – the state of being a father

- *Sakda is taking the responsibilities of **fatherhood** seriously and now only goes out drinking with his friends once a month*

**to start a family** – to have children

- *Billy and I are planning to **start a family** as soon as we get married.*

**offspring** – a person's child or children

- *My two sisters are coming over later with their **offspring** so the house is going to be very noisy*

**family man** – a man who enjoys being at home with his wife and children

- *Deepak used to love partying but now that he has kids he's become a real **family man**.*

**family life** – the kind of life a person normally leads when they are married and have children

- *My husband and I enjoy doing lots of activities with our children and we all have a great **family life** together*

**upbringing** – the way in which you are treated and educated when young, especially by your parents

- *I was fortunate to have a good **upbringing** but not all children have caring parents who look after them well and teach them the right way to behave.*

**breadwinner** – the member of a family who earns most of the money that the family needs

- *In many countries, men are expected to be the **breadwinner** in a family.*

**to adopt** – to legally take another person's child into your own family and take care of them as your own child

- *Paul and Siri were unable to have children of their own and decided to **adopt** a baby*

**to foster** – to take care of someone else's child, usually for a limited time, without becoming the child's legal parent

- *Even though I'm an only child, mum and dad often used to **foster** other children.*

**over-protective parents** – a parent who protect their child too much

- ***Overprotective parents** can prevent their children from building confidence and independence.*

**spoilt child** – a child who shows bad behaviour because they have been allowed to do or have anything they want

- *I don't like playing with the girl next door because she's a **spoilt child** and gets in a temper if I don't let her win all the games.*

**authoritarian** – demanding that people obey completely and refusing to allow them the freedom to act as they wish

- *My father was very **authoritarian** when I was growing up and I was terrified of him.*

**generation gap** – a difference of opinions between one generation and another regarding beliefs and attitudes, often leading to a lack of understanding between them

- *It's a skilled politician who can bridge the **generation gap**.*

- **sibling rivalry** – the feeling of competitiveness that often exists between brothers and sisters

- *There was huge **sibling rivalry** between my two brothers and they were always fighting but they are the best of friends now that they're adults.*

**family background** – the details of a person's family regarding education, social status, etc.

- *We want our son to marry a girl from a good **family background**.*

**family gathering / family get-together** – an informal event where family members meet up

- *We're having a **family get-together** to celebrate my mother's birthday.*

**close-knit** – involving groups of people in which everyone supports each other

- *We're a **close-knit** family and know that we can rely on each other when one of us needs help.*

**to desert** – to leave someone without help or in a difficult situation and not come back

- *My father **deserted** us when I was young and my mother has brought me up on her own.*

**hereditary** – passed from the genes of a parent to a child

- *Diabetes is **hereditary** in our family so I make sure that I eat healthily.*

**run in the family** – a common feature in a family; something which is passed from parents to children

*Artistic ability seems to **run in the family**.*

**Exercise 1 Family Idioms.** Each example has an idiom with a color word. Read the example carefully to find the meaning of the idiom. Then look at the definitions that follow the examples. Write the idiom next to its definition.

<b>get on with / get along with</b>	<i>I used to fight with my siblings when we were young but I <b>get on</b> with them really well now that we're adults</i>
<b>fell out with/ a falling out</b>	<i>I <b>fell out with</b> my sister when she started dating my boyfriend. The two brothers had <b>a falling out</b> over the broken toy.</i>
<b>on speaking terms</b>	<i>My parents had a big argument and are not <b>on speaking terms</b> at the moment.</i>
<b>look alike</b>	<i>My twin sister and I <b>look alike</b> and people often call us by each other's names</i>
<b>take after</b>	<i>Mila was excellent at drawing. She <b>took after</b> her mother who was a famous artist.</i>
<b>chip off the old block.</b>	<i>Sanjay is always cracking jokes, just like his father. He's a real <b>chip off the old block</b>.</i>
<b>follow in smø's footsteps</b>	<i>I want to <b>follow in</b> my father's <b>footsteps</b> and become a doctor like he is.</i>
<b>spitting image</b>	<i>Cher is the <b>spitting image</b> of her mother.</i>
<b>wear the trousers</b>	<i>My dad likes to think that he's in charge but it's my mother who <b>wears the trousers</b> in our house.</i>
<b>black sheep</b>	<i>My brother first started getting into trouble with the police when he was a teenager and he's become the <b>black sheep</b> of the family</i>

1. \_\_\_\_\_ - the person is very similar (in character and personality) to one of their parents
2. \_\_\_\_\_ - friendly enough to talk
3. \_\_\_\_\_ - to look very similar to someone else

4. \_\_\_\_\_ - to look extremely similar to someone
5. \_\_\_\_\_ - to be very similar to an older family member
6. \_\_\_\_\_ - to be the person in a family who holds the authority and makes decisions
7. \_\_\_\_\_ - to like someone and have a friendly relationship with them
8. \_\_\_\_\_ - to have a disagreement which ruins a relationship with that person
9. \_\_\_\_\_ - to do the same thing as someone else did previously, especially someone in your family
10. \_\_\_\_\_ - someone who brings shame to their family by being different or doing something wrong

**Exercise 2 Compound nouns. Match the words in box A with the words in box B to make 10 compound nouns.**

A	sibling	immediate	dysfunctional	overprotective	spoilt	family	stay at home
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B	parents	family	get-together	mum	child	family	rivalry
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## Questions

**Answer to the following questions. Use the words from this unit.**

1. How many people are there in your immediate family?
2. Do you get along well with your family?
3. Which member of your family are you closest to?
4. How much time do you spend with your family?
5. When did you last have a family party?
6. Who are you most similar to in your family?
7. What do you think it takes to be a good parent?



## Lesson 2 Education



**co-educational/mixed** – a school where girls and boys are taught together.

*-These days, most schools in the UK are **co-educational**.*

**single-sex school** – a school for either male or female students but not both

*-Both my parents went to **single-sex schools** but it's more normal these days to go to a mixed school.*

**curriculum** – the subjects comprising a course of study in a school or college

*-Her parents chose the school because it offered a broad **curriculum** including drama and dance which were her favourite subjects.*

**syllabus** – an outline or summary of the subjects to be covered in a course

*-The new **syllabus** included environmental science which was becoming more popular as a school subject.*

**to major in** – to choose as your main subject.

*-I want to **major in** primary education with a specialism in science.*

**bookworm** – a person who loves reading and/studying

*-My best friend is a real bookworm but is a great person to have on your quiz team because his general knowledge is excellent*

**boarding school** – a school where students live and study during the school term.

*-Yu Yang hated **boarding school** as she missed her family and felt very homesick.*

**intensive** – fast-paced courses which give a lot of information quickly and in a short time

**distance learning** – a way of studying in which lectures are broadcast or lessons are conducted

by post or via the internet without the student needing to attend a school or college or have in-person teacher interaction

*-I prefer to study by **distance learning** as I can work when I want and at the pace I want.*

**to sit an exam** – to take an exam.

*-I want to carry on learning for the rest of my life but after I finish my training I hope I never have to **sit an exam** again.*

**tuition fees** – the money paid for a course of study, especially at a private school or a college or university

*-High **tuition fees** mean that many young people can't afford to go to university.*

**to keep up with your studies** – to not fall behind with your work

*-Giang would have to limit his time socializing with his friends if he was going to **keep up with his studies**.*

**headteacher/principal** – the person in charge of a school

*-Our **headteacher** had been **principal** for 12 years when he retired.*

**additional needs/special needs** – related to students who need special help due to a learning or physical difficulty

*-Shona spend the later part of her teaching career working in a school for students with **additional needs**.*

**note-taking** – to take notes in a lesson or lecture when the teacher is talking

*-I find **note-taking** in a lecture really difficult as I miss much of what is being said while I'm writing.*

**to pass with flying colours** – to pass an exam or test easily and with excellent result

*-He was sure he was going to fail his maths exam but **passed with flying colours**.*

**to play truant** – to be absent without permission from parents or teachers

- *Helios was always **playing truant** from school which he regretted when he failed his exams and struggled to find a good job.*

**to skip classes** – to be absent from lessons you are supposed to attend

-*I was never brave enough to **skip classes** as my parents would have been furious if they'd found out.*

**to drop out** – to leave a course before completing it

-*Hiran was forced to **drop out** of university when his father became ill and he had to take over the family business to support his family.*

**a dropout** – a student who fails to complete a course of study and leaves the educational institution with no qualifications  
-*Many famous and very wealthy entrepreneurs are college **dropouts**, which proves that you don't need a degree to succeed in life*

**to work your way through university** – to have a paid job while studying to support yourself financially  
-*With the steep increase in tuition fees, many students are forced to **work their way through university**.*

**a student loan** – money which a student can borrow while they are studying, but which has to be repaid

-*John took out **student loans** of £9000 a year to pay for his tuition of fee.*

**internship** – a period of work experience (often unpaid) offered by an employer to give students and graduates experience of working in an industry related to their field of study

-*All students on the course were expected to secure an **internship** during the long vacation between the second and third years of their degree course*

**to meet a deadline** – to complete a piece of work by the required date

-*I didn't think I'd get my essay written in time but I just **met the deadline**.*

**to resit/retake an exam** – to take an exam again in order to get a better result

-*Madee needed band 7 in her IELTS Speaking test but only got 6.5, so she had to **retake the exam**.*

**to fall behind with your studies**

– to not get your coursework and assignments done in the time allowed

-*She was a hard-working student but **fell behind with her studies** after catching pneumonia and having to spend time in hospital.*

**scrape through** – to just pass an exam

-*She ran out of time in the exam and left many questions unanswered but just **scraped through** with a pass mark.*

**rote learning** – a teaching style based on learning by memorisation through repetition

-*My parents' education was based on **rote learning** but there was more emphasis on learning by investigation by the time I went to school.*

**literacy** – the ability to read and write, sometimes use as a subject title for reading and writing

-*Afghanistan has one of the lowest **literacy** rates in the world with just 28% of people able to read and write.*

**literate** – to be able to read and write

-*In the past 20 years, the proportion of adults in the world who are **literate** has increased from 75% to 84% which is a great improvement.*

**illiterate** – to be unable to read and write

-*There are many children in the poorest countries of the world who have little or no access to education and are **illiterate**.*

***Exercise 1 Match the words in column A with the correct definition in column B.  
Then complete the sentences below with words from column A***

**Column A:**

1. to pass with flying colours
2. to play truant
3. to major in
4. a student loan
5. to fall behind with your studies
6. to scrape through
7. rote learning

**Column B:**

- a) you do not make progress or move forward as fast as other people
- b) to succeed at doing something but just barely
- c) to win, achieve, or accomplish something exceptionally well or very successfully
- d) to study something as your main subject in college or a university
- e) is used to pay for a student's education
- f) to stay away from school without permission
- g) is a memorization technique based on repetition

1. She often ..... and wrote her own sick notes.
2. He managed to ..... his exam with 52%
3. That includes the ..... of £420, which is interest-free.
4. Teaching standards are very poor-lots of ..... and copying note from blackboard
5. Last year I .....because I was ill and away from school
6. I'm a college sophomore ..... English
7. Laura is a very bright student and I'm sure she will .....

***Exercise 2 Define the following words/phrases with your own words***

1. lenient teacher-
2. gifted student-
3. to sail through an exam-
4. a mock exam-
5. come top of your class-

## Questions

*Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.*

1. At what age do children begin school in your country?
2. What kind of school did you go to as a child?
3. Did you enjoy your time at school?
4. Would you say you were a good student?
5. Did you do any extra-curricular activities?
6. Describe a subject you enjoyed studying at school.

## Lesson 3 Health



**health scare** – a state of alarm or anxiety caused by concern about the risk of developing or being diagnosed with a particular illness or condition.

*-Suffering chest pains while playing in the park with his kids was a real **health scare** and prompted him to lose weight and get fitter.*

**you are what you eat** – makes a connection between the food someone eats and the state of their health.

*-I feel so much better and have lots more energy since I cut out junk food and started eating more healthily. I guess it's true that "**you are what you eat**".*

**obesity** – the state of being extremely overweight.

*-**Obesity** is now considered to be the most serious health issue facing the developed world.*

**addiction** – the inability to stop doing or taking something that is harmful.

*-Drug **addiction** destroys lives and contributes to soaring crime rates.*

**come down with** (something) to become ill, to catch a virus.

*-My best friend **came down with** a heavy cold and didn't feel well enough to come to my birthday party.*

**health-conscious** – to be concerned about how your diet and lifestyle are affecting your health and take an active interest in maintaining good health.

*-After his sister died young of heart disease, Bill became far more **health-conscious** and made changes to his lifestyle and diet.*

**health benefit** – the positive effect on a person's health gained from food, activity, medical treatment or therapy.

*-Eating fruit and vegetables has many **health benefits**.*

**mental health** – the state of a person's emotional and psychological well-being. The health of the mind.

*Stress or bullying at work can lead to serious **mental health** problems.*

**to look after your health / to take care of our health** – to eat well, drink alcohol sensibly and take exercise.

*-I believe I'm still able to enjoy an active life in my 80's because I have always **looked after my health / taken care of my health**.*

**to regain your health** – to recover from illness or injury.

*-Sunita was very ill with the flu but is gradually **regaining her health**.*

**in good shape** – in good physical condition.

*-My parents are both in their 70's but are still in pretty good shape.*

**stay in shape** – to take action to maintain good health and fitness. *Eating healthily and taking regular exercise helps me to **stay in shape**.*

**out of shape** – not in good physical condition.

*-I got very lazy over the holidays and am really feeling **out of shape**.*

**get back into shape** – to take action to improve your physical condition.

*-I've taken up swimming to help me **get back into shape** after breaking my leg.*

**work out** – to exercise in order to improve physical fitness and increase strength.

*-Sally **works out** at the gym three times a week to help her stay fit and healthy.*

**balanced diet** – a combination of healthy types and amounts of food.

*-Eating a **balanced diet** is important for staying healthy.*

**to feel washed out** – to not have much energy after an illness.

*-I'm much better than I was but I'm still **feeling washed out**.*

**get over** (when related to health) –to recover from being illness or injury.

*-I was off work for three days with a chest infection*

**to respond to treatment-** to get better as a result of taking a particular medicine, etc .

*-For some reason, he is not **responding to treatment**.*

**to undergo a surgery (formal)**-to have a surgeon operate on you

*-The Vice President **underwent surgery** late last night and his condition is said to be stable.*

**to be under the weather** – to feel unwell.

*-I was so looking forward to the new club's opening night but didn't really enjoy it as I was feeling **under the weather**.*

**back on your feet** – to be healthy again after a period of illness or injury.

*-It took my gran a while to get over the effects of her fall but she's **back on her feet** again now.*

**to be on the mend** – to be recovering after ill health.

*-I suffered from depression after my brother was killed but I'm **on the mend** now.*

**GP** – general practitioner (family doctor).

*-My **GP** said that I am in great shape for my age.*

**to make a speedy recovery** – to recover quickly from an ill health.

*-The doctors said that it was because he was so fit and healthy that he made a **speedy recovery** from the operation on his fractured shoulder.*

**road to recovery** – the process of becoming healthy again.

*-They didn't think she'd survive the bout of pneumonia with her weak chest but she's finally on the **road to recovery***

**clean bill of health** – a decision by a doctor that a person is healthy.

*-Tony changed his lifestyle after suffering from heart problems and has now been given a*

***clean bill of health** by his doctor.*

**fit as a fiddle** – to be in very good health.

*-I was fed up with feeling tired, full of aches and pains and always getting colds so I changed my diet and took up running. Now I'm as **fit as a fiddle**.*

**to be unfit** – when the body not being in good physical condition, generally due to a lack of regular exercise

*-I gave up going to the gym and I've become very **unfit***

**dietary requirement** – the correct types and amounts of food to maintain health which may vary from person to person depending on age and lifestyle.

*-In many poor communities, people can't grow or buy enough food to meet their basic **dietary requirements** and so they get ill.*

**comfort food** – types of food that provide a feeling of well-being. They are typically sweet and high in calories.

*-I always feel happier after eating a slice of chocolate; it's such a great **comfort food**.*

**additive** – A substance which is added to food in order to improve its taste or appearance or to preserve it.

*-I try to avoid food that is full of **additives** because I think they are bad for your health.*

**to hang by a thread-** if one's life is hanging by a thread they are very ill and likely to die

*-The doctors later told her how her life had **hung by a thread** during the operation.*

**a check-up** – a physical examination by a doctor.

*-Now that I'm over 50, I get a free annual **check-up** from my doctor.*

**alleviate (the) pain/symptoms-** to reduce the amount/effect of pain/symptoms. [Note: alleviate is also used with boredom, a problem, anxiety, poverty]  
*Take two of these. They'll **alleviate the pain**.*

***Exercise 1 What do you think is happening/has happened in the pictures? Use the words to describe the pictures***

**B** suffer from migraine and back pain/stress/take medicine on prescription/no effect/take up yoga and relaxation techniques/



alleviate pain/in  
good shape now

**A** rush to  
hospital/suffer  
from heart attack  
/undergo  
surgery/life/hang  
by a thread  
/intensive  
care/respond to  
treatment/on the

mend



***Exercise 2 What words or phrases are being defined? Write them down.***

- 1) to begin to have or suffer from (an illness) -
- 2) to be very tired and lacking energy -
- 3) to exercise in order to improve the strength or appearance of your body -
- 4) the treatment is working and they are getting better -
- 5) a medical examination to test your general state of health -

***Exercise 3 Give a title to the following text.***

**You are what you eat**

Good food helps keep you healthy. Remember all those wonderful sayings about food: “Milk gives you strong bones”, “An apple a day keeps the doctor away”, “Carrots help you see in the dark”? Common sense tells us that good food plays an important part in good health.

Good food gives us seven important things. Protein helps people to grow, minerals make their teeth and bones strong, and water is necessary for their blood and for cleaning the whole organism. Fats and carbohydrates give people energy, and fibre cleans the inside of their bodies. Vitamins are needed for eyes, bones, skin and other parts of the human body. There are thirteen types of vitamins in different types of food.

Eating a balanced diet of good food can keep your resistance up. And you know that when your resistance is low your chances of getting sick are much higher.

A well-balanced diet can work wonders. But if people adore fast food which is high in salt, sugar and fats, and low in fibre and vitamins, they don't take care of their health and are in real danger. So think about it.

## **Questions**

***Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.***

1. What do you do to stay healthy?
2. Do you get ill very often?
3. Is there anything you'd like to improve about fitness?
4. Are you careful about what you eat?
5. How important is a healthy lifestyle for you?
6. Describe a change you have made to improve your health and that you would recommend to others.



## Lesson 4 Technology



**technophile** – a person who is enthusiastic about new technology.

*-My brother is a true **technophile** and can tell you about every new gadget on the market.*

**a techie** – a person who knows a lot about technology, especially computers or other electronic equipment.

*-I'm not surprised Sue Lin is working for a top computer agency as she was always a **realmtchie** at school.*

**tech-savvy** – well informed about or proficient in the use of modern technology, especially computers.

*-My kids are far more **tech-savvy** than I am, having grown up with computer technology.*

**technophobe** – a person who fears or dislikes new technology, especially computers, and does not want to use it.

*-I keep telling him how easy it is to send an email but he's an ardent **technophobe** and refuses to even have a go.*

**software** – the programmes and other operating information used by a computer and related devices.

*-Bella was able to create some amazing photographic effects after installing the new **software** on her computer.*

**an advance** – a development or improvement.

*-Scientists have made major **advances** in recent years in their search for a cure for Alzheimer's.*

**breakthrough** – important development or discovery.

*-Some people argue that the invention of the internal combustion engine was the most important technological **breakthrough** of all time.*

**cutting-edge** – very modern.

*-Our new mobile phone is still in development but it is at the **cutting-edge** of technology.*

**state-of-the-art** – the latest stage of development of a product, using the most recent ideas and method and including the latest features.

*-The new aircraft design was **state-of-the-art** and was expected to revolutionise passenger's experience of flying.*

**indispensable** – something you could not manage without; absolutely necessary.

*-For many people, their mobile phone is **indispensable**.*

**to transform** – to markedly or dramatically change.

*-There can be no denying that computers have **transformed** the way we work and study.*

**computer literate** – to have sufficient knowledge and understanding to be able to use a computer effectively.

*-The application form specified that candidates must be **computer literate** to be considered for the job.*

**computer buff** – someone who knows a lot about computers and might be considered an expert.

*-Although I have a good understanding of the software I use at work, I certainly wouldn't call myself a **computer buff**.*

**laptop** – portable computer.

*-With a **laptop**, I can work almost anywhere as long as I have an internet connection.*

**PC** – personal computer; not usually portable like a laptop.

*-I have a **PC** in my office at work but prefer a laptop for home so that I can use it in different locations around the house.*

**hardware** – the physical parts of a computer and related devices.

- Computer **hardware** includes the monitor, keyboard, disk drive, mouse and wiring.

**to surf the internet** – to look at a series of websites one after the other.

- I spent hours **surfing the internet** searching for the best holiday deals.

**to browse** – to look for and look at information on the internet.

- I often **browse** the internet for gift ideas when a friend has a birthday coming up.

**wifi hotspot** – an area with an accessible wireless network, often a public place.

*-Whenever the ship was in port, the crew flocked to the nearest **wifi hotspot** to connect with their families back home.*

**viral** – an image, video or piece of information that becomes very popular very quickly on the internet.

- The video of her cat riding on a giant tortoise went **viral** and achieve nearly a million views.

**appliance** – typically a piece of electrical equipment, such as a kettle or toaster, that uses less advanced technology.

*-Modern kitchen **appliances** make cooking and baking much easier than they would have been 100 years ago and save so much time.*

**outdated** – out of date; old-fashioned.

*-Jared didn't want to buy a new iPhone but his mobile looked so **outdated** compared to those of his friends that he pressured into updating it.*

**obsolete** – not in use any more, having been replaced by something better.

*-Jerry had to close down his small printing business as his old printer had become **obsolete** and he couldn't afford to replace it with the latest state-of-the-art equipment.*

**cyber** – involving, using, or relating to computers, especially the internet.

*-Many business owners live in fear of a **cyber** attack, especially infection of their computer network with a virus.*

**cybercrime** – criminal activities carried out by means of computers or the internet.

*-Identity theft, where someone steals and misuses your personal information, is one of the most common types of **cybercrime***

**user-friendly** – simple to understand and easy to use.

*-I didn't find my new mobile phone **user-friendly** at first but my grandson was able to show me how to use it and now I understand what to do.*

**to boot up** – to start a computer.

*-Of course I'll show you how to send an email. You **boot up** the computer and I'll be with you in a minute.*

**to upgrade** – to obtain a more powerful or feature-rich computer, electronic device or piece of software.

*-My mobile phone company is always trying to persuade me to **upgrade** to the latest model*

**device** – a thing made or adapted for a particular purpose, especially a piece of mechanical or electronic equipment. It is usually quite small.

*- A FitBit is a **device** that helps people improve their health by tracking their activity, exercise, food, weight and sleep.*

**labour-saving device** – a device or piece of equipment that reduces the effort needed to do something.

*-The **labour-saving device** I'm most grateful for is my washing machine.*

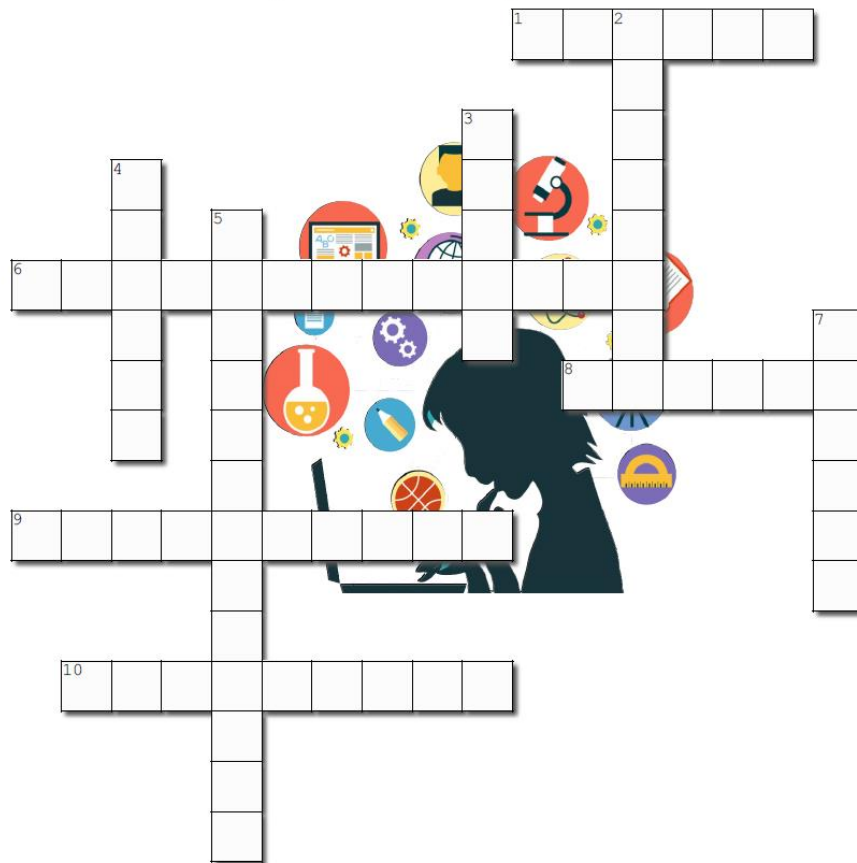
**gadget** – a small mechanical or electronic device or tool, often ingenious, novel or fun as well as being useful.

*-Paulo is always buying the latest **gadget** to go with his digital camera.*

### Exercise 1 Complete the crossword puzzle

## Technology

Complete the crossword puzzle below



Created using the Crossword Maker on TheTeachersCorner.net

### Across

1. an act of casual looking or reading.
6. absolutely necessary; essential
8. a person who is expert in or enthusiastic about technology, especially computing.
9. criminal activity done using computers and the Internet
10. to change completely the appearance or character of something or someone, especially so that that thing or person is improved

Down

2. no longer produced or used; out of date.
3. circulated rapidly and widely on the internet.
4. small machine or device which does something useful
5. easy to use or understand.
7. A thing made or adapted for a particular purpose, especially a piece of mechanical or electronic equipment

**Exercise 2** *Correct the mistakes in the text. Use one word only. Hyphenated words (e.g. state-of-the art) count as one word.*

Today's (1) *advance* technology has brought many benefits. For example, nowadays we have many (2) *small* tools that can save time in the home and, if you have access (3) with a computer and telephone (4) *connect* than you can work almost anywhere you

choose. What's more modern software (5) *programmes* are so user-friendly that you don't even need a great deal of computer knowledge to be able to (6) *play* them.

However there are some disadvantages to the (7) *technology* era. For example, people today want to have the very (8) *last* technology, but as new technology dates very quickly, an increasing amount of computer hardware is being dumped.

1 .....  
2 .....  
3 .....  
4 .....

5 .....  
6 .....  
7 .....  
8 .....

### Questions

***Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.***

1. How often do you use a computer and for what purpose?
2. Have you ever taken a course to improve your computer skills?
3. Which device do you prefer to use for browsing the internet?
4. Do you enjoy using the internet?
5. What sorts of things do you buy online?
6. Describe an item of technology you have that is very important.

## Lesson 5 Environment



**environmentally-friendly** – not harmful to the environment.

*-There are many*

**environmentally-friendly**  
*cleaning products on the market that don't contain chemicals that damage the environment.*

**environmental hazard** – a substance or an event which has the potential to threaten the surrounding natural environment.

*-The illegal storage of toxic waste presents a significant environmental hazard.*

**to recycle** – to collect waste materials and process them to create new materials and products that can be used again.  
*-We can dramatically reduce the amount of rubbish we send to landfill sites by recycling our waste plastic.*

**biodegradable** – able to decompose naturally without harming or polluting the environment.

*-I always try to buy products with biodegradable packaging.*

**sustainable** – involving methods that do not use up or destroy natural resources.  
*-With advances in technology, it is hoped that we will eventually be able to replace fossil fuels with sustainable energy sources.*

**vegetation** – the collective name for all the plants growing in a particular place or area.

*-Tropical regions are known for their dense vegetation.*

**species** – a group of animals or plants that have similar characteristics and can reproduce together.

*-Lions are a species of wild cat.*

### Collocation:

**endangered species** – a species that is in serious danger of extinction.

**threatened species** – a species that is likely to become endangered in the near future.

**rare species** – an uncommon or scarce species

**protected species** – a species which it is forbidden to harm by law.

**extinct species** – a species of which there are no more alive.

**greenhouse gas** – a gas in the atmosphere, such as carbon dioxide, that absorbs radiation and gives off heat.

*-Greenhouse gases contribute to the problem of global warming.*

**greenhouse effect** – the gradual warming of the surface of the Earth due to greenhouse gases being trapped in the atmosphere above the Earth.

*-The greenhouse effect is believed by many to be responsible for climate change.*

**biodiversity** – the variety of animal and plant life found in a particular place.

*-It is important to preserve biodiversity in order to protect our ecosystems.*

### Collocation:

• **loss of biodiversity** – when species become extinct in an area and there is no longer such a great variety of species.

**habitat** – the natural home or environment of an animal, plant or other organism.

*-The loss of their natural habitat through deforestation is a serious threat to the orang utan in Borneo.*

**to inhabit** – to live in a certain place.

*-The rainforest is inhabited by many different species of monkey.*

**to evolve** – change or develop gradually.

*-Scientists now believe that humans evolved from apes.*

**thrive** – to grow and develop well or quickly.

*-The leopard seal is well adapted to the cold and thrives in the fish-rich waters.*

**renewable energy** – energy from a source that is not depleted when used.

*-Where I live, both solar power and wind power are important sources of **renewable energy**.*

**flash floods** – a sudden, local flood caused by very heavy rainfall.

*-The **flash flood** washed a whole village from the hillside, killing dozens of people.*

**afforestation** – the action of planting trees on an area of land in order to make a forest.

*-**Afforestation** is vital if we are to reduce the carbon-dioxide levels in the atmosphere.*

**to go green** – to choose an environmentally-friendly lifestyle.

*-In an attempt to **go green**, my family is recycling everything we can and we no longer buy bottled water.*

**safeguard** – take action to protect something from harm or damage.

*-It is the responsibility of all of us to **safeguard** the environment for future generations.*

**poaching** – the illegal hunting or capturing of wild animals.

*-The severe **drought** meant that the crops failed for the second year running and many people faced starvation.*

**erosion** – the gradual wearing-away of something by the natural forces of the wind, rain and water.

*-Crop rotation is important to ensure the soil isn't left bare and subject to **erosion** by the wind and rain.*

**deforestation** – the cutting down or burning of all the trees in an area.

*-**Deforestation** results in the loss of habitat for millions of species, leads to soil erosion and, according to scientists, is a major cause of climate change.*

**emissions** – the production and discharge of something, especially gas.

*-Many countries are reluctant to reduce toxic **emissions** as the huge expense involved can affect the rate of economic growth.*

**carbon footprint** – the amount of carbon dioxide released into the atmosphere as a result of the activities of a particular individual or organization.

*-I have reduced my **carbon footprint** by cycling to work instead of driving.*

**urban** – relating to, or characteristic of a town or city.

*-In the UK, foxes thrive in **urban** areas and can often be seen on the streets at night.*

**rural** – in, relating to, or characteristic of the countryside rather than the town.

*-I prefer to live in a **rural** area.*

**dumping ground** – a place where things that are not wanted are left

*-If we continue treating our oceans as a **dumping ground**, it will eventually become too polluted to sustain life.*

**to contaminate** – to make something poisonous as a result of adding waste or chemicals.

*-Pesticide and fertilisers used on the field can **contaminate** rivers and kill all the fish.*

**degradation** – the process in which the quality of something is damaged or destroyed.

*-Soil **degradation** due to over-farming means that many farmers have had to move to the cities in search of work.*

**depletion** – the reduction in the number or quality of something.

*-Over-fishing has led to the **depletion** of the ocean's fish stocks.*

**fumes** – strong, unpleasant and sometimes dangerous gas or smoke.

*-Car exhaust **fumes** are a major contributor to air pollution.*

**smog** – a mixture of smoke, gases, and chemicals, especially in cities, that makes the atmosphere difficult to breathe and harmful for health.

*-Some days the **smog** is so bad that people are forced to stay indoors.*

***Exercise 1 Compound Nouns. Match the words in column A with column B in order to form compound nouns. Then complete the sentences below by adding them.***

**Column A:**

1. mother
2. loss of
3. global
4. endangered
5. flash
6. renewable
7. dumping
8. greenhouse

**Column B:**

- a) species
- b) floods
- c) energy
- d) ground
- e) diversity
- f) warming
- h) effect
- g) nature

- 1) I am constantly amazed by how beautiful and how destructive mother ..... can be.
- 2) Rivers have always been a ..... for man's unwanted waste.
- 3) the carbon footprint measures the emission of gases that contribute to .....
- 4) ..... occurs when warmth from the sun is trapped in the Earth's atmosphere by a layer of gases (such as carbon dioxide) and water vapor
- 5) In order to curb ....., several governments worldwide have established parks and protected areas
- 6) His plan centers on increased support for ..... and for alternative motor fuels made from corn and soybeans
- 7) ..... swept over parts of the Hawaiian Islands on Wednesday
- 8) The giant panda, found in the wild in southwest China, is one of the world's most .....

**Exercise 2** *The words in bold below have been jumbled. Swap them around so that the sentences make sense.*

1. If you look at the record of global temperature data, you will find that the late 20th Century period of **ozone layer** actually lasted about 20 years, from the late 1970s to the late 1990s.
2. The world's largest, active **deforestation** is Mauna Loa in Hawaii, where famous coffee is grown in the rich volcanic soils. Mauna Loa is 13,677 feet above sea level. From its base below sea level to its summit, Mauna Loa is taller than Mount Everest.
3. The **global warming** that shields the earth from cancer-causing ultraviolet rays is showing early signs of thickening after years of depletion, a UN study says.
4. The country with the most **biodegradable** is Indonesia. Since the last century, Indonesia has lost at least 15.79 million hectares of forest land.
5. **Oil spill** is particularly damaging to lakes, streams, and forests and the plants and animals that live in these ecosystems.
6. A **volcano** product has the ability to break down, safely and relatively quickly, by biological means, into the raw materials of nature and disappear into the environment.
7. There are many forms of **endangered species**. Most of them depend in one way or another on sunlight.
8. 9.5 square miles of ocean and 8.7 miles of coastline are affected by **acid rain**, officials say.
9. The world's most **renewable** feline **energy**, the Iberian lynx, is making a comeback in Spain after being pushed to the brink of extinction.

### Questions

*Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.*

1. Do you think pollution is a big problem nowadays?
2. What do you do to prevent the environment from pollution?
3. Are you worried about climate change?
4. Do you use renewable energy?
5. Do you take an interest in nature?
6. Describe an environmental problem you've heard about.



## Lesson 6 Weather

**a blanket of snow** – a complete covering of snow.

*-It snowed heavily all afternoon and the countryside was soon covered in a **blanket of snow**.*

**whiteout** – snowfall that is so heavy that it's almost impossible to see anything.

*-I was so glad I decided not to drive to the shops as the light snowfall soon turned into **whiteout** conditions.*

**snowdrift** – a bank of deep snow formed by the wind.

*-The road was blocked by **snowdrifts** blown by the strong winds.*

**sleet** – a mixture of rain and snow.

*-The **sleet** made the pavements slippery and it was difficult not to fall over. **slush** – partly melted snow*

*-As the temperature rose slightly, the glistening white snow turned to mucky **slush**.*

**below freezing** – below zero degrees Celsius or 32 degrees Fahrenheit.

*-I put on a thick coat, gloves, hat and a scarf before going outside as it was well **below freezing**.*

**bitterly cold** – extremely cold.

*-The sun was shining but there was a **bitterly cold** wind blowing.*

**a cold spell / cold snap** – a short period of cold weather

*-The weather is usually mild at this time of year but the forecasters say we're in for a **cold spell** next week.*

*-The sudden **cold snap** had us searching for our hats, gloves and scarves.*

**precipitation** – water that falls to the earth in the form of rain, hail, mist, sleet, or snow.

*-The average annual **precipitation** in London is 23 inches (58 cm) which makes it drier than New York which has an average of 50 inches (127cm) of rain per year.*

**torrential rain** – very heavy rain.

*-The **torrential rain** was making driving conditions hazardous.*

**driving rain** – heavy rain mixed with strong wind.

*-We walked on through the **driving rain**, wanting to get home as quickly as possible.*

**downpour** – heavy shower of rain. *-Christian got caught in a **downpour** on his way to the party but fortunately had an umbrella with him.*

**cloudburst** – sudden rainfall that it over quickly.

*-The sudden **cloudburst** took them by surprise and they had to run for shelter.*



**picking up** – becoming stronger

*-The wind started **picking up** at about 3.00 pm and an hour later had reached gale force.*

**weather permitting** – if the weather allows it. *-We'll be having a family picnic in the park at the weekend, **weather permitting**.*

**the weather holds** – fine weather continues.

*-I hope the **weather holds** as I have a few days off next week.*

**freak weather conditions** – weather conditions, often extreme and destructive, that are not normal for that place. *-**Freak weather conditions** are becoming more common due to global warming and climate change.*

**long-range forecast** – the weather forecast for several days or weeks ahead.

*-The **long-range forecast** is a bit disappointing as it predicts rain by the weekend.*

**a spell of fine weather** – a short period of good weather. *-It's been a pretty awful summer but we're finally enjoying a **spell of fine weather**.*

**frostbite** – injury to any part of the body caused by overexposure to extreme cold.

*-Frostbite is one of the greatest dangers faced by Arctic explorers.*

**to dress up warm** – to wear warm clothes to protect yourself against wintry conditions.

*-If you go out to play in the snow, be sure to **dress up warm**.*

**horrid weather** – unpleasant weather.

*-I'm fed up of this **horrid weather** and can't remember when I last saw any sunshine.*

**glorious weather** – wonderful weather.

*-We had **glorious weather** on our holiday in France.*

**a break in the weather** – when the rain stops for a while.

*-I waited for a **break in the weather** before taking the dog for a walk.*

**scorchers** – a very hot day.

*-The day was a real **scorchers**, far too hot to be out in the sun for very long*

**heatwave** – a period of very hot weather.

*-Summer weather in the UK can be very unpredictable but this year we had a real heatwave.*

**foul weather** – bad weather.

*-The **foul weather** kept the fishing boats in the harbour .*

**to get drenched / soaked** – to get very wet.

*-Ekrem left her coat at home and got **drenched** in the cloudburst.*

*-The children had great fun playing in the rain but got **soaked** to the skin.*

**drizzle** – very light rain.

*-There was a bit of **drizzle** in the air as we set off on our walk but it didn't come to anything.*

**gentle rain** – light rain.

*-The **gentle rain** was quite welcome at the end of a long, hot day as it really cooled the air.*

**to get caught in the rain** – to be outside when it rains unexpectedly.

*-Meena was soaked through having got **caught in the rain** without a coat on.*

**to be rained off** – to be cancelled or postponed because it's raining or expected to rain.

*-The pupils were looking forward to the school sports day but sadly it got **rained off**.*

**let up** – to stop raining.

*-We'll go out for a walk if there's a **let up** in the rain.*

**to clear up** – when clouds or rain disappear.

*-The forecast says that it will **clear up** by this afternoon.*

**monsoon** – the season of heavy rain in tropical climates.

*-Nearly all of the country's annual rainfall falls during the **monsoon**.*

**not a cloud in the sky** – when no clouds are visible.

*-There wasn't a **cloud in the sky** and it promised to be a glorious day.*

**overcast** – very cloudy with no sun is visible.

*-Thahn was disappointed that it was **overcast** for the barbecue but at least it wasn't raining.*

**gale** – a very strong wind.

*-The **gale** blew all night and caused damage to several buildings.*

**stifling** – uncomfortable hot; can make you feel breathless.

*-The heat of the day was **stifling** so the expedition travelled only at night when it was cooler.*

**sweltering** – extremely hot.

*-My classroom is **sweltering** in the summer so I take the children outside and we have lessons in the shade of a large tree.*

**close** – warm and uncomfortable.

*-We don't have a humid climate in the UK but in summer it is often **close** which leaves you feeling sweaty and lethargic.*

**exposed to sunlight** – allowing strong sunshine to fall on the skin.

*-It's important to limit our **exposure to sunlight** as **sunburn** can lead to skin cancer.*

***Exercise 1 Describe the pictures using the vocabulary from this unit***



***Exercise 2 The following weather conversation has five blanks that you need to fill by choosing the correct option (A-D) from the questions that follow.***

**Situation:** Bob and Andrew are going camping and deciding what to take.

**Bob:** Is the weather going to be good?

**Andrew:** Yes \_\_\_\_\_1\_\_\_\_\_ said that it would be hot and dry.

**Bob:** Yes, \_\_\_\_\_2\_\_\_\_\_.

**Andrew:** But the weather forecast is normally wrong, so \_\_\_\_\_3\_\_\_\_\_.

**Bob:** I also think it might be quite cold at night if the sky is clear. We might even get frost in the mornings.

**Andrew:** We should take \_\_\_\_\_4\_\_\_\_\_.

**Bob:** And \_\_\_\_\_5\_\_\_\_\_ rains.

**Andrew:** I don't normally go camping this early in the spring because the weather is so changeable.

**Bob:** Yes I know what you mean. It makes packing difficult.

**Andrew:** But no matter how good or bad the weather is we'll have a good time.

**Bob:** Yes we will.

- 1) Which option is the best to fill in the first blank?
  - A) the map on television
  - B) the meteorologist on television
  - C) the precipitation on television
  - D) the clouds look very dark
  
- 2) Which option is the best to fill in the second blank?
  - A) it should be great weather
  - B) it should be terrible weather
  - C) it could be snowy
  - D) it will be very cold
  
- 3) Which option is the best to fill in the third blank?
  - A) we should have good weather
  - B) we should go outside and check
  - C) we should call our friends
  - D) we should expect rain and gales
  
- 4) Which option is the best to fill in the fourth blank?
  - A) some sunscreen then
  - B) the long way round
  - C) some warm clothes then
  - D) some extra food then
  
- 5) Which option is the best to fill in the fifth blank?
  - A) some umbrellas for if it
  - B) some shorts for if it
  - C) some swimming costumes for when it
  - D) some extra tents for if it

## Questions

***Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.***

1. What is the weather like in your country?
2. Do you like the weather in your country?
3. Is the weather the same in all parts of your country?
4. Are there any problems with the climate in your country?
5. Does the weather ever affect the way you feel?
6. How do the different seasons affect the lifestyle of people in your country?

7. Do you think people who live in cold places have different personalities to people who live in warm or hot places?
8. Do you think there are any problems with the world's climate now?
9. Describe your favourite season.

## Lesson 7 Home

**a property** – building and the land it is built on

*-Our present house is too small now that we have children so we are looking for a new property.*

**single storey** – with only a ground floor level

*-My elderly parents are buying a **single storey** house as they find it difficult to climb the stairs.*

**bedsit** – a rented room that has a bed, table, chairs, and somewhere to cook in it but a shared bathroom

*-The **bedsit** is small but has everything I need to create a little home for myself.*

**to convert** – to change the form of something

*-Our plan is **to convert** the garage into a study.*

**to add an extension** – to build an extra room onto a house

*-Many people **add an extension** as their family grows rather than buying a larger house.*

**to do up a property** – to repair and update an old property

*-Jai couldn't afford the smart new houses he looked at so he decided to buy an old property and **do it up**.*

**to renovate** – to restore to a good state of repair

*-The property had been empty for several years but we're*

**residential area** – area in which most of the buildings are houses

*-Our town is growing rapidly with several new **residential areas** currently being developed.*

**on the outskirts** – the areas that form the outer edge of a town, city or village, that are furthest away from the centre

*-It's great living **on the outskirts**. It's easy to get into the city but we are also close to the countryside.*

**downtown** – near the centre of a town or city, especially the business or shopping areas

*-I'm looking for a flat **downtown** so I don't have to commute far to work.*

**housing estate** – a large group of houses built at the same time and in the same style

*-In the UK, most new homes are built on **housing estates**.*

**within walking distance** – not very far; close enough to reach by walking

*-We chose to live here because it's **within walking distance** of the school.*

**close-knit community** – a neighbourhood where people are helpful and supportive

*-This is a **close-knit community** and there's always someone to turn to if you need help.*



**porch** – a covered shelter protecting the front entrance of a building

*-I'm so grateful for the **porch** on a wet day when I have to stop and wipe the dog's feet before going indoors.*

**pantry / larder** – small, cold room used for storing food

*-We had a proper **larder** when I was young but nowadays, most people keep food in the fridge, freezer or a cupboard.*

**rent out / let out** – to allow someone to live in your property for a fee

*-I inherited my mum's bungalow when she died and I've decided to **rent it out**.*

**landlord / landlady** – the owner of a building or room that is rented out to others

*-I have an excellent **landlord** who always fixes things quickly when something needs repairing.*

**tenant** – someone who rents a flat or house from the person who owns it

*-The people renting Adil's flat gave notice last week so he's looking for new **tenants**. **to give***



planning to **renovate** it and turn it back into a nice home.

**to tile the bathroom** – to cover a wall with tiles to make it water resistant

*-We've nearly finished the new extension and just need **to tile the bathroom**.*

**lawn** – an area of grass that is cut short, especially in someone's garden

*-Our garden is mostly **lawn** with some flower borders and a vegetable patch.*

**house-hunting** – looking for a property to live in

*-We've been **house-hunting** for three months but can't find anything that really suits us.*

**house-warming party** – a party to celebrate moving into a new home

*-I'm going to a colleague's **house-warming party** on Saturday and can't wait to look around her new home.*

**to have a place of your own** – to have your own home and not have to share it with anyone else

*-I love living at home with my family but I'm 21 now and have a good job so I feel it's time to find **a place of my own**.*

**cosy** – giving a feeling of warmth, comfort and relaxation  
*-Old cottages have really thick walls which makes them cool in summer but **cosy** in winter.*

**landing** – area at the top of the stairs

*-I'm always telling the kids off for leaving their toys on the **landing** in case someone trips over them and falls down the stairs.*

**utility room** – room used for storage and equipment such as the washing machine, freezer, etc.

*-It's a rule in our house that all muddy boots are left in the **utility room**.*

**to take out a mortgage** – to borrow money from the bank in order to buy a house

*-**Taking out a mortgage** is a big commitment and most homeowners spend all their working life paying it off.*

**all the mod cons** – appliances in the home that make it easy to do jobs like washing, cooking, cleaning, etc.

*-The furnished apartment I'm interested in renting has **all the mod cons**, including a dishwasher and tumble drier which many rentals don't have.*

**to move in** – to begin to live in a property

*-Niko was impressed with the recently renovated hall of residence and couldn't wait to **move in**.*

**to move out** – to stop living in a particular place

*-Veronica broke up with her boyfriend and **moved out**.*

**to put down a deposit** – to make an initial payment as part of a rental agreement or to secure a purchase

*-The landlord said that once we'd **put down the deposit** of £200, the flat was ours.*

**lease** – the contract a tenant signs when renting a property

*-We gave him the £200 deposit immediately and agreed that we'd visit the office later to sign the **lease**.*

**evict** – to force tenants to leave a property if they fail to pay the rent or they behave unacceptably

*-The tenants in the flat above us used to play loud music all night long but thankfully the landlady **evicted** them.*

**fully-furnished** – a rented property with all furniture included

*-As a student, I didn't have any money to buy furniture so always rented **fully-furnished** accommodation.*

**fitted kitchen** – a kitchen with the cupboards and units designed to fit the space exactly and then fixed in place

*-My new **fitted kitchen** has built-in appliances which make so much better use of the space.*

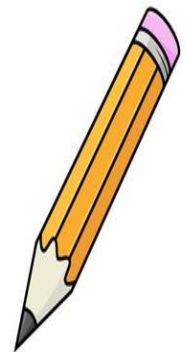
**utilities** – gas, electricity, water

*-On top of the rental fee, they had to pay for the **utilities** as well.*

**Exercise 1 Read the sentences below. Circle the numbers that best express your opinions. Give reasons.**

Apartments are better than houses.	1 2 3 4 5	
Living on the ground floor is better than living on the tenth floor.	1 2 3 4 5	
Owing a house is better than renting	1 2 3 4 5	5 I agree completely
Living in the suburbs is better than living downtown	1 2 3 4 5	4 I mostly agree
Sharing an apartment with a roommate is a great idea	1 2 3 4 5	3 I am not sure
Living close to hospital is more important than living to a school	1 2 3 4 5	2 I mostly disagree
Being a landlord is a great way to make a lot of money.	1 2 3 4 5	1 I disagree completely
Tenants should not be allowed to keep pets, like cats or dogs.	1 2 3 4 5	
Moving to a new home is fun.	1 2 3 4 5	
Searching the Internet is the best way to find a new apartment or house.	1 2 3 4 5	
You should meet your neighbors before moving to a new home.	1 2 3 4 5	

**POSSIBLE ANSWERS**



**Exercise 2 Rephrase the words in bold**

- 1) Even though the dangerous criminals were seen **outer edge** of town, the townspeople were still scared.
- 2) From the outside it looks rather old, but inside it's got **all the modern conveniences** — even a microwave oven.
- 3) His landlord has threatened to **force** him **to leave** if he doesn't pay the rent soon.
- 4) Events over the last year have created a **helpful and supportive neighbourhood**.
- 5) I'd like to buy a run-down house and **update** it.
- 6) Could we **change** the small bedroom into a second bathroom.
- 7) He lives alone until Harry moves in and shares half the rent and payment for **gas, electricity, water**.
- 8) On moving in they threw a huge **party to celebrate a new home**.



- 9) Thank you for choosing InterShanghai Real Estate, we will help you *let out* your home fast!
- 10) The restaurants were cheap, wonderfully varied and *possible to reach by walking*.

## Questions

*Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.*

1. What kind of property do you live in?
2. How long have you lived there?
3. Do you plan to live there for a long time?
4. Is there anything about your house you would like to change?
5. What's the difference between where you are living now and your last home?
6. What do you think living spaces will be like in the future?
7. What are the advantages of living in a house compared to an apartment?
8. Do you think that everyone would like to live in a larger home?
9. Describe a home you have visited that you really liked.

## Lesson 8 Sport

**extreme sport** – a sport that is exciting but also dangerous such as skydiving

*-Esther became interested in **extreme sports** when she tried bungee jump on a trip to New Zealand.*

**to keep fit** – to keep the body in good physical condition by exercising regularly

*-I do several things to **keep fit** but dancing is the one I enjoy the most.*

**fitness fanatic** – to be obsessed with keeping fit

*-Dylan is a real **fitness fanatic** and goes to the gym every day.*

**strenuous exercise** – exercise that needs a lot of physical effort.

*-I used to hate **strenuous exercise** until I took up running to lose weight and now really enjoy it.*

**to take up** (a sport) – to start playing a sport.

*-I have always wanted to **take up** archery and am going to join the new club that has just started in my area.*

**to warm up** – to prepare for strenuous activity by doing gentle exercise first

*-We always **warm up** before we start our workout session in the gym.*

**to be the hot/firm favourite** - to be the person/team that everyone believes and expects will win a race, match, etc

*-With Barcelona out of the competition, Arsenal are now **hot favourites** to win the cup.*

**an athletics track** – a sporting facility with a track for running and areas for other sports such as high jump, long jump and javelin throwing

*- Each summer we have a big competition for all the schools in our area down at the local **athletics track**.*

**pitch** – a surface on which a particular sport is played, such as a football pitch or baseball pitch, that is marked out with lines

*-Victor felt nervous as he waited with his team to go out onto the **pitch** for the first big match of the season.*

**coach** – an expert who trains someone learning or improving a skill

*- The **coach** made them focus on their tackling skills as this was a weakness in their game.*

**reserve** – an extra player who is ready to play if needed

*-Narong was pleased to be selected as a **reserve** but really hoped he'd have a chance to play.*



**to set a record** – to achieve the best result in a particular sport

*-I knew my jump was a good one but I couldn't believe it when I learnt I'd **set a new long jump record** for my college.*

**to shatter a record** - to break a record by a large margin

*-His performance shattered all previous records.*

**kit** – special clothing and equipment that you use when you take part in a particular activity, especially a sport

*-Mandy was furious when her son decided to give up playing football just after she'd bought him some new **kit**.*

**a home game** – a sports match played in the teams own stadium

*-I'm so glad my team has a **home game** this week as my car has broken down.*

**an away game** – a sports match played in the opposing team's stadium

*- I don't enjoy playing **away games** as much as home games as fewer of our own supporters are there.*

**to cool down** – to end a session of strenuous activity with gentle exercises to allow the heart rate to come down and the body return to a near resting state.

*-It's important to **cool down** after exercising hard as this helps to prevent injury.*

**to be out of condition** – to be not physical fit (unfit)

*-My friend is so **out of condition** that she gets out of breath walking up the stairs.*

**to work out** – to exercise, usually in a gym.

*-Dhruv **worked out** at the gym three evenings a week.*

**the runner(s)-up** - the person or team who come(s) second in a race/tournament/championship

*-Who wants to come second? No one remembers **the runner-up**.*

**to bulk up** – to make your body bigger and heavier, especially by gaining more muscle

*-He felt so much stronger since he started working out with weights and his body was really beginning to **bulk up**.*

**boot camp** – a short, intensive, and rigorous course of training

*-William couldn't believe he'd agreed to go along to the **boot camp** with his friend. He didn't even like exercising.*

**a draw** – when two competitors or teams get the same score

*-The score was 34-34 so the basketball match was a **draw**.*

**umpire** – a referee in sports such as tennis and cricket

*-The **umpire** ruled that the ball was out of court.*

**a course** - you play golf at a golf course/you watch horse racing at a race course

*-St Andrews in Scotland is the most famous golf **course** in the world.*

**to be all square** - to have equal points. [Note: two all: two goals, two sets each]

*-After eighteen holes, Irons and Eastwood **were all square**.*

**a workout** – a session of exercises, usually in a gym.

*-Cressida found that a **workout** at the gym helped her de-stress after a hard day at work.*

**an upset** - a surprising result in which the person or team that everyone expects to lose beats the person or team that everyone expects to win [Note : outsider: one not thought likely to win]

*- In one of the biggest tennis **upsets** of the year, world number one Flavia Capurro was beaten in straight sets by fourteen-year-old Jan Kovic in yesterday's opening*

**amateur** – a person who engages in a pursuit, especially a sport, on an unpaid basis.

*-Although he only played rugby in an **amateur** team, it was his dream to turn professional one day.*

**to thrash** - to beat sb/another team, etc very convincingly

*Twelve goals to one! We didn't just beat them, we **thrashed** them!*

**supporter** – someone who admires a sports team and watches them play regularly

*-I've been a Manchester United **supporter** all my life and watch live games wherever I can.*

**contest** – a competition, often involving two people

*-Tosin was very nervous before the **contest** as he was up against a very good boxer from Cuba.*

**tournament** – a competition for teams or single players in which a series of games is played, and the winners of each game play against each other until only one winner is left

*-The school team arrived home with a large trophy after winning the regional hockey tournament.*

**to compete** – to take part in a competition or sports event

*-Jolene was so excited about **competing** in her first professional golf competition.*

**a personal best** – to get a better score or achieve a faster time in your sport than you've ever done before

*-Although Hicham didn't win the 400m, he achieved a **personal best** of 45.38 seconds.*

**Exercise 1 Sports Idioms.** Each example has an idiom with a color word. Read the example carefully to find the meaning of the idiom. Then look at the definitions that follow the examples. Write the idiom next to its definition.

**blow away the competition**

*I thought it was going to be a challenging race but he **blew away the competition**.*

**neck and neck**

*Coming down the home straight, the two front-runners were **neck and neck** until Yoshi edged ahead as they reached the finish line.*

**front-runner**

*There were some excellent gymnasts in the competition but Nadia was definitely the **front-runner** and the one to beat.*

**to get second wind**

*He began to struggle in the final stages of the marathon but hearing the crowd cheer him on, he **got second wind** and finished in the top twenty.*

**underdog**

*The British skiing team were definitely the **underdogs** in the competition so everyone was shocked when they got third place.*

1. \_\_\_\_\_ when two competitors are level with each other and have an equal chance of winning
2. \_\_\_\_\_ to experience renewed energy after a period of fatigue
3. \_\_\_\_\_ the person or team considered most likely to win
4. \_\_\_\_\_ a competitor thought to have little chance of doing well or winning
5. \_\_\_\_\_ to easily beat the opposing competitor or team.

**Exercise 2** Read the text below and decide which answer (A, B, C, or D) best fits each gap.

He was playing for his country now. He stood on the tee and looked down the first fairway. His caddy passed him a club. He told himself that this was an easy 1) ....., and that England, his team, were 2) ..... favourites to win the match. He had to be mentally strong, and he reminded himself that the last time he had played here he had 3) ..... the course record by an amazing six strokes, that the last time England had played Listonia, England had 4) ..... them 18 -2. The scoreboard behind him read England 3, Listonia 3. They were all 5) ..... He had to stay focused. He had won the Australian Open and been the runner-6) ..... behind Tiger Irons in the US Masters. He was far better than his opponent. There would be no 7) ..... in this game.

He was going to win. He walked up to his ball. One practice swing and swoosh. His club cut through the air. He heard the crowd gasp and he looked up.... He had missed the ball. Completely.

- |              |            |             |              |
|--------------|------------|-------------|--------------|
| 1. A court   | B course   | C pitch     | D field      |
| 2. A hot     | B heavy    | C rank      | D full       |
| 3. A burst   | B cracked  | C shattered | D splintered |
| 4. A slapped | B smacked  | C bashed    | D thrashed   |
| 5. A equal   | B balanced | C tied      | D square     |
| 6. A over    | B down     | C up        | D through    |
| 7. A upturns | B upstarts | C upstages  | D upsets     |

## Questions

*Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.*

1. Do you like sport?
2. What sports did you do at school?
3. How important is keeping fit to you?
4. What do you do to keep fit?
5. Is violence a problem at sporting events in your country?
6. What are the benefits of international sports events?
7. Do you think people in your country exercise enough? If not, why?
8. Do you think competitive sport should be part of the school curriculum?
9. Describe a sports club you belong to or used to belong to.

## Lesson 9 Shopping

**window shopping** – the activity of looking at goods for sale, especially in shop window displays, without the intention of buying anything

*-One of my favourite activities on a Saturday is to go **window shopping** with my friends to see the latest fashions.*

**bargain hunting** – looking for products that are good value for money, usually because they are on sale at a lower price than normal

*-I love **bargain hunting** and feel great when I find something I need at a knock-down price.*

**browse** – looking at things in one or more shops without a firm intention to buy anything  
*-When I go into town, I often **browse** around the clothes shops to see if I can pick up any bargains.*

**retail therapy** – the practice of buying things in order to make yourself feel better when you are unhappy  
*-I need some **retail therapy** to help me get over the disappointment of not getting a promotion at work.*

**on sale / on offer** - for sale at a reduced price  
*-Umbrellas are **on sale** at the moment so I'm going to buy one ready for the rainy season.*

**a shopaholic** – someone who loves shopping and does it often, sometimes to the point of it being an addiction

*-My friend Sally is a true **shopaholic** but I do worry about her as she can't really afford all the designer clothes she buys.*

**take something back** – return an unwanted item to a shop  
*-I'm going to have to **take** this jacket **back** to the shop as the colour doesn't match my skirt.*

**to return an item** - to take or send something back to the retail outlet it was purchased from

*-I'll have to **return** the jumper I bought online as they sent the wrong size.*

**to give someone the hard sell** – try to sell someone something in a forceful way

*-When I said I needed to go away and think about it before buying the car, the salesman tried the **hard sell** on me.*

**shoplifting** - take goods from a shop without paying for them  
*-My cousin was caught **shoplifting** again and might be sent to prison this time.*

**over-priced** – to cost more than you think it is worth  
*-The sunglasses made me look really cool but they were **over-priced** so I didn't buy them.*



**market trader / market vendor** – a person who runs a stall at a market

*-I was late getting into town and many of the **market traders** were already packing away their stalls.*

**checkout** – the place where payment is made for goods, especially in a supermarket  
*-The girl on the **checkout** was very friendly and chatted as she took the payment for my groceries.*

**trolley** – a large container with wheels that you use to put products in, especially in a supermarket

*-It's important to pack your **trolley** carefully so that your fruit and eggs don't get squashed under heavy items.*

**second-hand** – something that is for sale but has been used before  
*-I often browse the **second-hand** clothes shops to see if they've got anything worth having in my size.*

**refund** – money given back to a customer when they return a product they are not happy with

*-I took the faulty clock back to the shop and asked for a **refund**.*

**hit the shops / stores** – to go on a shopping spree (a short period of time in which someone buys a lot of things)

*-I'm taking a bus into the city with some friends on Saturday and we're going to **hit the shops**.*

**an impulse buy** – an unplanned purchase when something is bought suddenly without careful thought

*-My waterproof jacket was an **impulse buy** as I was actually looking for some new walking boots, but it was such a bargain that I just had to get it.*

**flea market** – a group of stalls selling old furniture or clothes  
*-The **flea market** in Portobello Road, London, started in the 1800s and is still popular with both locals and tourists.*

**shopping mall** – a large enclosed shopping area from which traffic is excluded  
*-The first time I visited a **shopping mall** I was so excited to see so many big brand name shops all in one place.*

**gift voucher** – a card that you buy at a shop to give as a gift, which entitles the person to exchange it for goods worth the same amount  
*-I often give my nieces and nephew **gift vouchers** for their birthdays so that they can buy what they want overspend with one.*

**receipt** – a piece of paper showing the amount of money you have paid for something used as proof of purchase  
*-I always keep the **receipt** when I buy something in case I have to return it.*

**the real McCoy** – genuine, not fake  
*-I was worried that the gold bracelet I bought in the market wasn't made of real gold but I showed it my uncle who's a jeweller and he said it's **the real McCoy**.*

**going for a song** – on sale for a very low price  
*I was glad I went to the end of season sale at the garden centre as many of the plants were **going for a song**.*

**to pick up a bargain / to snap up a bargain** – to buy something cheaply  
*-She **picked up** some great **bargains** in the sale.*

**knock-down price** – extremely cheap or costing much less than the usual amount  
*-Now that spring is here, they're selling off winter coats at a **knock-down price**.*

**to slash prices** – to reduce prices a great deal  
*-Mr Patel is closing down his clothes shop and has **slashed prices** to sell off his stock.*

**price tag** – a label that states the price of an item  
*-When I see an item of clothing I like, I check the **price tag** first to see if I can afford it.*

**to be value for money** – to be worth the cost  
*-My new laptop was quite expensive but has all the latest features so I think it was good **value for money**.*

**to save up** – to put money aside for something until the required amount is reached  
*-Khalil was **saving up** to buy a new bicycle.*

**haggle** – to negotiate the cost of an item  
*-I had to really **haggle** with the car salesman to get the price I wanted.*

**a good deal** – describes the price not the object or item. If you want to use it to describe an object or item, you need to say "a good deal on [noun]."  
*-**Jane**: "Your sister bought a new car? How much did she pay?"*  
***Jackie**: "She got a good deal. She only paid \$5,000."*

**Stingy** – It's not always the store that charges too much. Sometimes, the price is fair but you don't want to spend much money.

*-My new boyfriend is so **stingy**—he never gives enough for tip at restaurants.*

**Exercise 1 Fill the gaps in the sentences below with the following idioms in the correct form.**

To shoplift	To take shop	To buy a lemon
To set up shop	To shop around	Be like a bull in a China shop
To shop	To pay through the nose	To close up shop (shut up shop)
To be all over the shop	To put all your bags in one basket	To shop till you drop

1. Ashley is such a shopaholic. If you go to London with her, take comfortable shoes, because you'll \_\_\_\_\_!
2. After Shawn got drunk, he was \_\_\_\_\_. We got kicked out of the pub because he broke all of our glasses!
3. We had to \_\_\_\_\_ for our room because it was a long weekend and most of the hotels were fully booked.
4. "Your bedroom's a mess! You've left your toys \_\_\_\_\_. Tidy everything up at once!"
5. The man was arrested \_\_\_\_\_ when the jewelry store employee found a ring in his pocket.
6. It's important to \_\_\_\_\_ in different stores so you can get the best price before you buy something expensive.
7. Buying a car is a scary thing. It's a significant purchase, and everyone wants to avoid \_\_\_\_\_.
8. I went out with these doctors last night. It got a bit boring because they \_\_\_\_\_ all evening.
9. The bank approved my business so we can \_\_\_\_\_ next month. I'll finally have my own business.
10. "How did the police find out that he had stolen the money? His girlfriend \_\_\_\_\_ him. She rang the police and told them!"
11. I'm applying for several jobs because I don't really want to \_\_\_\_\_.
12. Paul says high taxes and global competition have forced him to \_\_\_\_\_.

**Match the idioms above with their definitions:**

1. \_\_\_\_\_ To be clumsy or careless.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ To pay too much for something.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ To visit a number of shops to compare prices.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ To be scattered in a lot of different places.
5. \_\_\_\_\_ To tell someone in authority of someone else's wrong doings.
6. \_\_\_\_\_ To risk everything on one person or thing.
7. \_\_\_\_\_ To buy something that proves to be defective.



8. \_\_\_\_\_ To go on an extremely long shopping trip.
9. \_\_\_\_\_ To talk about work when not working.
10. \_\_\_\_\_ To stop doing business.
11. \_\_\_\_\_ To steal goods from a shop.
12. \_\_\_\_\_ To establish a business or an organization.

**Exercise 2** *The words in bold below have been jumbled. Swap them around so that the sentences make sense.*

1. These shoes are very nice, but they're terribly **going for a song**.
2. We'll **haggle** your money if you aren't satisfied.
3. She enjoyed a little **impulse buy** in Hong Kong yesterday.
4. I prefer leather gloves – the real McCoy, not plastic rubbish.
5. Thousands of **overpriced** queued up for hours.
6. The clothes of my favorite brand are **bargain hunters** in the neighborhood shop.
7. I'll pay the sticker price because I do not want to **refund** with the trader.
8. I'd wanted the bag for years, but in the end it was a(n) **retail therapy**.

**Exercise 3** *Choose one of the following situations and act it out*

### Role play 1

#### Student A

You are in an ice cream parlour. You have forgotten your wallet at home, but you have some money in your pockets. Yet it is not enough and you are in a hurry. You ask for a discount.



#### Student B

You work in an ice-cream parlour. Customers often irritate you by asking discounts. Your boss is very strict and would fire you if you gave any. Always ask for the full price.



### Role play 2

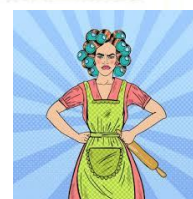
#### Student A:

You work at a food shop. You do not accept complaints unless the customer shows you the receipt. You would lose your job, but you need the money.



#### Student B:

You are a housewife. You are cooking for an important event and you find out that the milk you have just bought is sour. You go back to the shop to complain. You didn't keep the receipt.



### Roleplay 3

Your children wanted you to buy them an expensive toy. You don't have the money. Tell them what happened at the Toy store.



### Roleplay 4

Your neighbor lent you her new dress. You lost it. Make up a story how you lost it.



## Questions

*Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.*

1. How do you feel about shopping?
2. What types of shops do you use regularly?
3. What changes have you seen in those shops in the past few years?
4. Do you like shopping on the internet?
5. What kinds of things do you buy online?
6. Do you agree or disagree that women spend more time shopping than men?
7. Do people generally prefer to buy products from their own or from other countries?
8. Why do you think some people purchase things that they do not need?
9. Describe your favourite shop.

## Lesson 10 Travel and Tourism



**accommodation**- a room or building in which you stay during holidays or live.

*-While I'm travelling, my favourite types of accommodation are hotels.*

**all holiday**- a time after you lost your job.

*-He lost his job yesterday. Now it's all holiday for him.*

**all-inclusive**- a hotel deal where the price includes accommodation, meals and drinks at any time.

*-I've never thought that hotels with all-inclusive service are so comfortable! You can grab a piece of cake at 6 a.m. or get a cocktail at midnight.*

**half-board** - if you request 'half-board' at a hotel, breakfast and dinner would be included in the hotel price (as part of the package).

*-John and Lily liked their tour with half-board service. They spent breakfasts and dinners in the hotel and bought lunches in the nearby cafes.*

**full-board** - if you request 'full-board' at a hotel, that would include all three meals in the price of your accommodation.

**self-catering** - a holiday deal where meals are not provided.

*-Mary thinks that self-catering is neither pleasant nor efficient.*

**brehtaking view** - an amazing view.

*-I've seen many breathtaking views during my journey to Paris.*

**holiday resort (tourist resort)**- a place where lots of people go for a holiday.

*-Last year my family went on a journey to London. We lived in a great tourist resort.*

**hordes of tourists** - crowds of tourists.

*-Hordes of tourist can be seen during summer near the city park.*

**in the middle of nowhere** - in a place that is far away from where most people live.

*-My grand-mother lives in the middle of nowhere, but she loves her old little village.*

**local crafts** - things made in the region.

*-My sister bought some amazing local crafts on her trip to India.*

**out of season** - not within the main holiday period.

*-I decided to go on a journey with my friends out of season.*

**package tour** - a holiday at a fixed price in which the travel company arranges your travel, hotels, and sometimes meals for you:

*-We bought a cheap package tour to Italy and stayed in a big hotel by the sea.*

**picturesque village** - a nice, beautiful village.

*-My grandparents live in a picturesque village.*

**places of interest** - memorable and honorable places.

*-My native city has a variety of places of interest.*

**campground (or campsite)** - a place where people can camp when on holiday

*- What I like the most about spending the summers in BC is its many beautiful family campgrounds.*

**touristy** - a place where a lot of tourists go and it has many things for them to buy and do (often seen as something negative)

*- My hometown used to be a pretty little town, but now it's become very touristy.*

**in season (antonym: out of season)** - at the time of year when people want to travel or take a holiday

*- Naturally, hotel rooms are much more expensive in season.*

**rental** - an arrangement to rent something such as a house, car or bike

*- When planning a holiday, I always look for house rentals near the city.*

**retreat** - withdraw to a quiet or secluded place.

*-After the funeral he retreated to Scotland.*

**amenity** - a desirable or useful feature or facility of a building or place.

*-The property is situated in a convenient location, close to all local amenities.*

**busman's holiday** - when you spend your free time similarly to the time when you work. This expression comes from the idea that a bus driver would spend his holiday traveling somewhere on a bus.

*-Unfortunately, many people spend a busman's holiday nowadays.*

**charter flight** - a cheap regular flight.

*-Due to our modest budget, we had to take a charter-flight.*

**check-in desk** - the place at the airport where you register for your flight and deposit your luggage.

**far-off destination** - a distant place.

*-Australia is a far-off destination, nonetheless I want to visit it.*

**getting away from it all** - escaping in order to rest from a daily routine.

*-After I passed my exams, I wanted to get away from it all for at least a couple of days.*

**go off the beaten track** - to visit an uncommon place.

*-Unlike my brother, I prefer to go off the beaten track.*

**guided tour** - a tour in which a group of people is guided by an expert.

*-Guided tours are a great way to learn about different places of interest.*

**head for** - go in a direction for.  
*-I'm heading for France for my next holidays.*

**short break** - a little holiday.

*-My father had a short break this year, I hope he'll be able to relax some more.*

**stunning landscape** - a beautiful countryside.

*-Stunning landscapes are only one of many reasons why I want to visit Africa.*

**tourist attractions** - places which tourists tend to visit.

*-Despite not being a tourist attraction, new fountain is very popular among the locals.*

**tourist trap** - place with many tourists.

*-We've visited many tourists traps lately.*

**wildlife safari** - an observational holiday, mainly in Africa.

*-I'd love to go on a wildlife safari sometime.*

**youth hostel** - a cheap hotel.

*-During our trip we stayed in a hostel, because we didn't have enough money for a hotel.*

**holiday destination** - where you go for a holiday.

*-We chose New York as our holiday destination for the next summer.*

**holiday of a lifetime** - a very special holiday, once in a lifetime.

*-Last year me and my family had a holiday of a lifetime in Italy.*

**promenade** - a leisurely walk, or sometimes a ride or drive, taken in a public place so as to meet or be seen by others.

*-an evening promenade*

**jaunt** - a short excursion or journey made for pleasure.  
*- 'her regular jaunts to Europe'*

**sabbatical** - A period of paid leave granted to a university teacher or other worker for study or travel, traditionally one year for every seven years worked.  
*-She's away on sabbatical.*

**junket** - an extravagant trip or celebration, in particular one enjoyed by a government official at public expense.

*-By some good fortune I'm not paying for this junket.*

**itinerary** - a planned route or journey.

*-His itinerary included an official visit to Canada.*

**regatta** - a sporting event consisting of a series of boat or yacht races.

*-Potomac cleanup began in the 1960s and the river has since rebuilt its reputation on first-class events like sailing regattas and bass fishing tournaments.*

**diversion** - an activity that diverts the mind from tedious or serious concerns; a recreation or pastime.

*-Our chief diversion was reading.*

**ecotourism** - going on holiday to places of natural beauty in a way that causes less damage to the environment

*- Efforts are being made to promote local environmental awareness of the importance of the area and to encourage ecotourism.*

***Exercise 1 Use the words from the box below to fill in the gaps in sentences 1-12.***

retreat(s)	amenity(les)	jaunt	sabbatical
capacity	promenade(s)	hiatus	keepsake(s)
regatta(s)	diversion(s)	itinerary	junket

1. The hotel we stayed at had a great range of \_\_\_\_\_, and, as a result, we barely felt the need to venture out all week.
2. When we arrived, we were informed that the hotel was full to \_\_\_\_\_, and that our room was no longer available due to an administrative error that had seen it double-booked.
3. A Sunday \_\_\_\_\_ to the hills is all the holiday I need to feel refreshed and ready to face another week of work.
4. The government-sponsored \_\_\_\_\_ was ostensibly a trade trip but in reality it was a holiday by any other name.
5. He purchased a traditional drum as a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ to remember his trip by.
6. They strolled along the \_\_\_\_\_ hand-in-hand and watched the sun set over the still ocean.
7. Our Economics lecturer is on \_\_\_\_\_ for the next six months, which means we'll have someone new teaching us this semester.
8. The band took a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ for three months to have a much-needed break from one another.
9. He is staying at a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ up in the mountains for a few weeks; apparently isolating himself from the outside world is just the form of \_\_\_\_\_ he needs right now to help him recover from his breakdown.
10. We changed our \_\_\_\_\_ somewhat from the original plan and decided to give ourselves some more \_\_\_\_\_ to relax and do nothing; we realised you were right about our schedule being too \_\_\_\_\_ and unrealistic.
11. This year's \_\_\_\_\_ is predicted to be the best-attended for many a year with a crowd of 10,000 expected to turn out to see the boats off.
12. For me, holidays are a welcome \_\_\_\_\_ from the grim realities of working life.

**Exercise 2 Match the words or phrases in Column A with their strongest collocations in Column B.**

Column A	Answer	Column B
(a) toilet		(i) luggage
(b) carry-on		(ii) lodge
(c) cab		(iii) bag
(d) foreign-exchange		(iv) sickness
(e) ski		(v) year
(f) cabin		(vi) miles
(g) departure		(vii) occupancy
(h) double		(viii) counter
(i) air		(ix) gate
(j) travel		(x) crew
(k) gap		(xi) fare

**Which of the collocations above:**

1. is a term used to describe a long break students often take before starting their third-level education?
2. is a form of accommodation?
3. is a type of hotel-room booking?

**Select an appropriate collocation from those you matched above to fill each gap in the following sentences:**

4. The \_\_\_\_\_ from the airport to the hotel was considerably less than I had feared it might be; I read horror stories before I got here of how tourists are frequently ripped off.
5. My \_\_\_\_\_ exceeded the weight limit and had to be put in the hold.
6. The \_\_\_\_\_ was changed at the last minute, causing considerable confusion amongst passengers wishing to board the flight.
7. I got 1,000 bonus \_\_\_\_\_ for using my frequent flyer number when booking.

## Questions

*Answer the following questions. Use the words from this unit.*

1. Have you done much travelling?
2. What kind of places have you visited in your life?
3. When you visit new places, what do you like to do?
4. Do you prefer travelling alone or in a group?
5. What is the best season to travel in your country?
6. Would you say your country is a good place for travellers to visit?
7. What would you recommend a foreigner to visit in your country?
8. Do you think your hometown is a good place for a holiday?
9. Do people in your country like to travel?
10. How has travelling changed, compared to several decades ago?
11. When do people travel (as tourists), whom do they usually go with?
12. Do you think travel can (or, does) change people's ways of thinking?
13. Describe a beautiful place you once visited.



## Lesson 11 Well Worth Watching

### Classic Movie Corner

If you are looking for a great movie to spend time with this weekend, here are two classics that won't disappoint you, even if you have seen them before.

#### Wild Strawberries (1957)



Ingmar Bergman's *Wild Strawberries* has been **hailed** as a masterpiece, and it is a film that deserves its reputation.

Bergman wrote and directed the film. The movie takes viewers into the mind of Isak Borg, an elderly gentleman, as he embarks on a long car trip to receive an honorary degree. The **cinematography** brilliantly uses black-and-white contrasts to show his disturbed thoughts. **Surreal** dream sequences take us into his past and into his **disconcerted** mind. Clocks without hands and an examination room with strange questions are among the unusual experiences Dr. Borg faces. The **juxtapositions** of old age and youth (both Borg's youth and the young people he meets on his journey) force us, as well as the doctor, to examine life and our actions. As this is a film you will want to discuss after viewing, invite your friends over to share ideas on what the dream sequences might mean and what Bergman may have wanted people to gain from seeing the movie.

The film stars Victor Sjöström, Bibi Andersson, Ingrid Thulin, Gunnar Björnstrand, and Max Von Sydow. Swedish. 90 minutes.

#### Psycho (1960)



Alfred Hitchcock's films are a must for the **connoisseur** of the suspense **genre**, and *Psycho* is one of his best films. Whether you have seen it once, twice, or a hundred times, it is worth another viewing, and if you have never seen it, it is about time you did. Hitchcock was marvelously **attuned** to the darker sides of human nature, and he was able to convey the fears and desires of lust and greed in fascinating images. In the famous shower scene, for example, Hitchcock uses **montage** to create the suspense. Through careful editing, he creates tension in the audience while barely showing the plunging knife touch the victim. In fact, Hitchcock put seventy-eight short shots together to create the scene. For many people, *Psycho* **epitomizes** the suspense movie. It holds all the thrills an audience expects from the unexpected. Hitchcock masterfully used lighting, camera movements, and music to create the terror one craves in a suspense movie, unlike many of the disappointing horror films of today that reveal too much, too fast, and too predictably. Norman Bates continues to reign as one of the scariest characters in film history.

The film stars Anthony Perkins, Vera Miles, John Gavin, Martin Balsam, John McIntire, and Janet Leigh. American. 108 minutes.



**Exercise 1 Predicting.** For each set, write the definition on the line next to the word to which it belongs. If you are unsure, return to the reading on page \_\_, and underline any context clues you find. After you've made your predictions, check your answers with the help of dictionary. Place a checkmark in the box next to each word whose definition you missed.

**Set One**

fantastic                      approved enthusiastically                      disturbed  
the art of motion picture photography                      acts of placing close together

- 1. **hailed** (line 9) \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. **cinematography** (line 18) \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. **surreal** (line 20) \_\_\_\_\_
- 4. **disconcerted** (line 21) \_\_\_\_\_
- 5. **juxtapositions** (line 25) \_\_\_\_\_

**Set Two**

a style                      a film editing technique                      a person who can judge the best in a field  
serves as a typical or perfect example of                      adjusted

- 6. **connoisseur** (line 39) \_\_\_\_\_
- 7. **genre** (line 39) \_\_\_\_\_
- 8. **attuned** (line 44) \_\_\_\_\_
- 9. **montage** (line 48) \_\_\_\_\_
- 10. **epitomizes** (line 53) \_\_\_\_\_

**Exercise 2 Finish the sentences. Use each word once.**

**VOCABULARY LIST**

epitomized                      attuned                      connoisseur                      surreal                      juxtaposition  
montage                      hailed                      disconcerted                      genre                      cinematography

- 1. My father is a chocolate \_\_\_\_\_ ; he will eat nothing but the finest European chocolates.
- 2. The newspaper reviewer loved the concert; she \_\_\_\_\_ it as the best performance in the symphony's twenty-year history.

3. The \_\_\_\_\_ of scenes on a quiet beach with the freeway traffic really showed that the character needed to escape the pressures of the big city.
4. The vivid colors used in the film caused me to pay attention to the \_\_\_\_\_ over the other elements such as music and plot.
5. By being \_\_\_\_\_ to the latest trends, some producers can create a movie that capitalizes on a fad such as skateboarding or disco dancing.
6. It is easy to become \_\_\_\_\_ in today's multiplex theaters; I went to get popcorn and couldn't find my way back without asking an usher for directions.
7. On movie night we make a bowl of popcorn, and we each select a film from our favorite \_\_\_\_\_ to watch. I pick a musical, and my husband chooses an action film.
8. In *Battleship Potemkin*, Eisenstein's skillful editing of scenes showing the poor treatment of the sailors creates a powerful \_\_\_\_\_ that depicts the men's discontent.
9. The scene where the man threw the puppy off the roof \_\_\_\_\_ his evil nature.
10. It was a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ experience when I woke up in a hotel room and thought I was in my own bedroom.

## Questions

### *Answer the following questions*

1. What is your favorite movie genre?
2. What might happen in a surreal dream?
3. What would look unusual juxtaposed next to a piece of fruit?
4. What are you a connoisseur of, or what would you like to be a connoisseur of?
5. What can you do to be better attuned to the feelings of others?
6. Which movie star do you think epitomizes style?
7. What movie do you think has beautiful cinematography?
8. What could happen in a movie to make you feel disconcerted?.
9. What would you hail as a great achievement of humankind?.
10. If you were to create a montage showing the first day of kindergarten, what are three images you would use?

## Lesson 12 The Human Brain

1 The brain is the most complex organ in the human body. It produces our every thought, action, memory, feeling and experience of the world. This jelly-like mass of tissue, weighing in at around 1.4 kilograms, contains a staggering one hundred billion nerve cells, or neurons. The complexity of the connectivity between these cells is mind-boggling. Each neuron can make contact with thousands or even tens of thousands of others, via tiny structures called synapses. Our brains form a million new connections for every second of our lives. The pattern and strength of the connections is constantly changing and no two brains are alike. It is in these changing connections that memories are stored, habits learned and personalities shaped, by reinforcing certain patterns of brain activity, and losing others.

2 While people often speak of their “grey matter“, the brain also contains white matter. The grey matter is the cell bodies of the neurons, while the white matter is the branching network of thread-like tendrils – called dendrites and axons – that spread out from the cell bodies to connect to other neurons. But the brain also has another, even more numerous type of cell, called glial cells. These outnumber neurons ten times over. Once thought to be support cells, they are now known to amplify neural signals and to be as important as neurons in mental calculations. There are many different types of neuron, only one of which is unique to humans and the other great apes, the so called spindle cells.

3 Brain structure is shaped partly by genes, but largely by experience. Only relatively recently it was discovered that new brain cells are being born throughout our lives – a process called neurogenesis. The brain has bursts of growth and then periods of consolidation, when excess connections are pruned. The most notable bursts are in the first two or three years of life, during puberty, and also a final burst in young adulthood. How a brain ages also depends on genes and lifestyle too. Exercising the brain and giving it the right diet can be just as important as it is for the rest of the body.

4 The neurons in our brains communicate in a variety of ways. Signals pass between them by the release and capture of neurotransmitter and neuromodulator chemicals, such as glutamate, dopamine, acetylcholine, noradrenalin, serotonin and endorphins. Some neurochemicals work in the synapse, passing specific messages from release sites to collection sites, called receptors. Others also spread their influence more widely, like a radio signal, making whole brain regions more or less sensitive.

***Exercise 1 Choose the correct word to complete each sentence. Look for words that the underlined words combine with in the article.***

1. The skin is the largest organ in the \_\_\_\_\_ body.
2. Psychologists disagree as to how exactly memories are \_\_\_\_\_ in the brain.
3. Humans share almost all of their genes with the other \_\_\_\_\_ apes such as gorillas.
4. As children become young adults they have \_\_\_\_\_ of growth.
5. It is important that animals in captivity are given the \_\_\_\_\_ diet.
6. People have approached the problem in a variety of \_\_\_\_\_.

***Exercise 2 Find words in the text which have an opposite meaning:***

- |                      |                             |                      |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. simple ( para 1)  | 4. are fewer than ( para 2) | 7. initial (para 3)  |
| 2. converge (para 2) | 5. diminish (para 2)        | 8. general (para 4)  |
| 3. scarce ( para 2)  | 6. wholly ( para 3)         | 9. restrict (para 4) |

***Exercise 3 These words from the text can be used in a number of different ways. Write sentences exemplifying three different uses for each of them.***

matter      pass      formed      cells

**Questions**

***Answer the following questions***

1. What are some of the benefits of having a good memory?
2. Are there any things that are especially important for people to memorize?
3. Do you think having a good memory is important for students?
4. Why do people often forget small things?
5. Describe a childhood memory you remember well.

## Lesson 13 Albert Einstein: Fact or Fiction



Was Albert Einstein really a poor student, did he almost become the president of Israel and what, if anything, did he have to do with the development of the atomic bomb? Separate Einstein myth from reality and explore some of the most startling chapters from the life story of the 20th century's preeminent intellectual.

### Is it true that Einstein helped invent the atomic bomb?

No. In 1939, when he learned that scientists in Berlin had figured out how to split a uranium atom, Einstein wrote a letter to President Roosevelt urging him to do whatever it took to make sure American scientists were the first to build an atomic bomb. (He was a committed pacifist, but the prospect of nuclear weapons in the hands of the Nazis was so terrifying, he later wrote that "I did not see any [other] way out.") However, because of his left-wing political beliefs, the U.S. Army denied Einstein the security clearances he needed to be a part of the Manhattan Project, and so his role in the development of this deadly technology was an indirect one.

### Is it true that many American officials believed that Einstein was a Soviet spy?

Yes. Because of his controversial political beliefs-his support for socialism, civil rights, and nuclear disarmament, for example-many anti-Communist crusaders believed that Einstein was a dangerous subversive. Some, like FBI director J. Edgar Hoover, even thought he was a spy. For 22 years, Hoover's agents tapped Einstein's phones, opened his mail, rifled through his trash and even bugged his secretary's nephew's house, all to prove that he was more radical (as his 1,500-page FBI dossier noted) than "even Stalin himself."

### Did Einstein really almost become the president of Israel?

Yes. In 1952, Israel's first president, Chaim Weizmann, asked his friend Albert Einstein ("the greatest Jew alive," Weizmann said) if he would be willing to lead the young nation. Though the Israelis assured him that "complete facility and freedom to pursue your great scientific work would be afforded by a government and people who are fully conscious of the supreme significance of your labors," Einstein turned down the offer. For one thing, though he was very sympathetic to Israel, he was never an ardent Zionist-he believed in "friendly and fruitful" cooperation between Jews and Arabs-and for another, he worried that he lacked the interpersonal skills to be a world leader. Still, Einstein added, "my relationship to the Jewish people has become my strongest human bond, ever since I became fully aware of our precarious situation among the nations of the world," and he was "deeply moved" by Weizmann's offer.

### Is it true that Einstein was a lousy student?

In some ways, yes. When he was very young, Einstein's parents worried that he had a learning disability because he was very slow to learn to talk. (He also avoided other children and had extraordinary temper tantrums.) When he started school, he did very well-he was a creative and persistent problem-solver-but he hated the rote, disciplined style of the teachers at his Munich school, and he dropped out when he was 15. Then, when he took the entrance examination for a polytechnic school in Zurich, he flunked. (He passed the math part, but failed the botany, zoology and language sections.) Einstein kept studying and was admitted to the polytechnic institute the following year, but even then he continued to struggle: His professors thought that he was smart but much too pleased with himself, and some doubted that he would graduate. He did, but not by much-which is how the young physicist found himself working in the Swiss Patent Office instead of at a school or university.

### Is it true that Einstein's first wife contributed to the discoveries that made her husband famous?

Some researchers think that she did (for example, in 1905 she told a friend that "we finished some important work that will make my husband world famous"), but most agree that, while Mileva Maric was a talented physicist in her own right and a valuable sounding-board for her husband's ideas, she did not make substantial contributions to his most famous work. However, her scientific ambitions were certainly belittled and overlooked, especially by her husband. Einstein actually treated his wife quite badly: He had (and flaunted) many affairs; he was distinctly unhelpful around the house; and he made Maric obey a long list of humiliating rules ("You must answer me at once when I speak to you," for example.) The two divorced in 1919 and Einstein married his cousin Elsa.

***Exercise 1 Complete the sentences with your own words according to the text.***

- 1) The term ‘ardent Zionist’ \_\_\_\_\_.
- 2) Einstein’s attitude towards his wife \_\_\_\_\_.
- 3) Weizmann’s offer \_\_\_\_\_.
- 4) While some researchers, \_\_\_\_\_.
- 5) J.Edgar Hoover’s efforts \_\_\_\_\_.
- 6) Manhattan Project \_\_\_\_\_.
- 7) Einstein’s political view \_\_\_\_\_.

***Exercise 2 Match the words with their definitions.***

- |  |                  |
|--|------------------|
| 1) Something that people wrongly believe to be true  | a) humiliating   |
| 2) Likely to change or become dangerous without warning                                    | b) contribute    |
| 3) Making you feel ashamed and embarrassed   | c) lousy         |
| 4) Someone who believes that violence is wrong and refuses to fight in wars                | d) turn down     |
| 5) To divide or break something into several parts   | e) controversial |
| 6) A subject, opinion or decision which people don’t approve of or disagree about          | f) pursue        |
| 7) Intended to destroy the power or influence of a government or a belief                  | g) lack          |
| 8) A person or group who believes that important political or social changes are necessary | h) spy           |
| 9) To fail a test or course  | i) radical       |
| 10) Bad or unpleasant  | j) precarious    |
| 11) To not accept an offer or request  | k) split         |
| 12) To follow a course of activity   | l) pacifist      |
| 13) To not have any or enough of something that you need                                   | m) flunk         |
|  | n) myth          |
|  | o) subversive    |

***Exercise 3 Explain these famous quotes of Einstein with your own words (Use at least 60 words for each).***

- “Everything should be made as simple as possible, but not simpler.”
- “I know not with what weapons World War 3 will be fought, but World War 4 will be fought with sticks and stones.”
- “A person starts to live when he can live outside himself.”
- “Logic will get you from A to B. Imagination will take you everywhere.”
- “It has become appallingly obvious that our technology has exceeded our humanity.”

## Lesson 14: Crime and Punishment

### Woman loses Mercy Plea

**AUSTIN, Texas (AP) – The state’s highest criminal court rejected convicted killer Karla Faye Tucker’s bid for clemency, to keep from becoming the first woman executed in Texas since the US Civil War. The Court of Criminal Appeals on Wednesday turned aside her argument that the state’s clemency process is unconstitutional.**

§2 Ms Tucker, who is scheduled to die Tuesday by lethal injection, has asked the board of Pardons and Paroles to commute her sentence to life in prison. The board can deny her request or forward a recommendation to Gov. George W. Bush.

§3 Ms Tucker, 38, was condemned for murdering a man and woman with a pickax during a 1983 break-in. She has since insisted she found God behind bars and would be content spending the rest of her life in prison doing his work for the rehabilitation of young criminals.

§4 In interviews organized by her prison minister-husband, Dana Brown, she insists she’s a new person, content to spend her life in prison doing God’s work and setting an example for young people. “We all have the ability, after we’ve done something horrible, to make a change for the good,” Ms Tucker, 38, said earnestly on CBS television. “I’m so far removed from the person I used to be out there. For me, what’s weird is thinking back on some of the things I used to do, and thinking, ‘I did that?’”

§5 A spokeswoman for Christian Coalition founder Pat Robertson said Wednesday his 700 Club television program will broadcast the last prison interview with Ms Tucker on the day she’s scheduled to be executed. Robertson, who supports the death penalty, has said Ms Tucker should be spared to continue preaching the word of the Lord to fellow convicts. The interview was conducted on Tuesday.

§6 “She feels very strongly about what the Lord has done to change her life,” said Robertson’s spokeswoman, Patty Silverman. “She wanted to be sure that the message of what God did in her life got out.”

§7 Texas last executed a woman in 1863, when Chipita Rodriguez was hanged for the murder of a horse trader. The only woman executed in the United States since the Supreme Court allowed capital punishment to resume in 1976 was Velma Barfield. She died by injection in North Carolina in 1984 for poisoning her boyfriend.

(taken from Athens News, Jan 30th, 1998)



***Exercise 1 Find a word or expression in the text which has a similar meaning to the following.***

- 1 to refuse to accept a request (v) (§1) .....
- 2 willingness not to punish someone too severely (n) (§1) .....
- 3 to plan that something will happen at a particular time (v) (§2) .....
- 4 to change a punishment to a less severe one (v) (§2) .....
- 5 helping someone to live a useful life again after they have been in prison (n) (§3) .....
- 6 very seriously (adv) (§4) .....
- 7 someone who starts a business, organization, school, etc. (n) (§5) .....
- 8 someone who has been proved to be guilty of a crime and sent to prison (n) (§5) .....
- 9 to kill someone, especially legally as a punishment for a serious crime (v) (§5,7) .....
- 10 to start doing something again after a pause or interruption (v) (§7) .....

***Exercise 2 Read the article and answer the following questions.***

1. What crime did Karla Tucker commit?  
.....
2. What sentence did she get?  
.....
3. Does she claim to be innocent?  
.....
4. What has she asked the Board of Pardons and Paroles?  
.....
5. How does she say she is going to spend her life if her request is granted?  
.....
6. Is she married?



[illegible]

A reporter is interviewing Karla Tucker a week before her scheduled execution. Work with your partner to prepare and act out the interview.

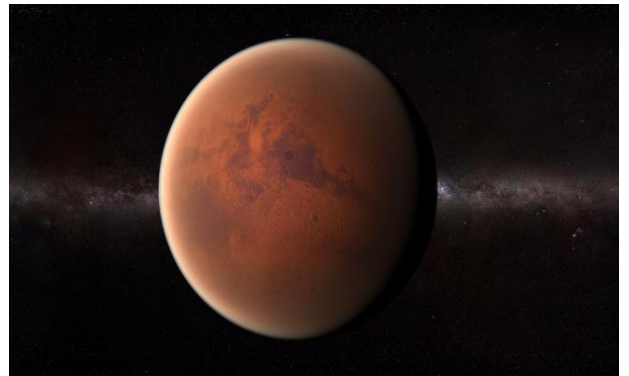
## Questions

### *Answer the following questions*

1. Do you believe Karla Tucker is a new person now, different from the person she used to be?
2. Do you think she deserves to be executed?
3. What is another name for capital punishment?
4. Do you support capital punishment?
5. Do you agree that capital punishment is an act of revenge?
6. Do you believe that capital punishment deters (prevents) people from committing a crime?
7. Would you agree that it is better to spare a criminal than to kill an innocent man?
8. Do you agree that the death penalty should be replaced by life in prison?
9. Does the death penalty exist in your country?
10. Who was the last person to be executed in your country? What crime did he commit and how did he die?

## Lesson 15 Life on Mars

A new study published in the journal Science shows definitive evidence of organic matter on the surface of Mars. The data was collected by NASA's nuclear-powered rover Curiosity. It confirms earlier findings that the Red Planet once contained carbon-based compounds. These compounds – also called organic molecules – are essential ingredients for life as scientists understand it. The organic molecules were found in Mars's Gale Crater, a large area that may



have been a watery lake over three billion years ago. The rover encountered traces of the molecule in rocks extracted from the area. The rocks also contain sulfur, which scientists speculate helped preserve the organics even when the rocks were exposed to the harsh radiation on the surface of the planet. Scientists are quick to state that the presence of these organic molecules is not sufficient evidence for ancient life on Mars, as the molecules could have been formed by non-living processes. But it's still one of the most astonishing discoveries, which could lead to future revelations. Especially when one considers the other startling find that Curiosity uncovered around five years ago. The rover analyses the air around it periodically, and in 2014 it found the air contained another of the most basic organic molecules and a key ingredient of natural gas: methane. One of the characteristics of methane is that it only survives a few hundred years. This means that something, somewhere on Mars, is replenishing the supply. According to NASA, Mars emits thousands of tons of methane at a time. The level of methane rises and falls at seasonal intervals in the year, almost as if the planet is breathing it. NASA suspects the methane comes from deep under the surface of the planet. The variations in temperature on the surface of Mars cause the molecule to flow upwards at higher or lower levels. For example, in the Martian winter the gas could get trapped in underground icy crystals. These crystals, called clathrates, melt in the summer and release the gas. However, the source of the methane is still a complete mystery. The world of astrobiology considers both of these studies as historical milestones. According to this information, Mars is not a dead planet. On the contrary, it is quite active and may be changing and becoming more habitable. Of course, this means further research is necessary. Scientists say they need to send new equipment to Mars, equipment that can measure the air and soil with more precision. There are already missions underway. The European Space Agency's ExoMars ship lands in 2020 and will be able to drill into the ground on Mars to analyse what it finds. Additionally, NASA is sending another Mars rover in the same year to collect samples of Martian soil and return them to Earth. The possibility of life on Mars has fascinated humans for generations. It has been the subject of endless science-fiction novels and films. Are we alone in the universe or have there been other life forms within our Solar System? If the current missions to the Red Planet continue, it looks as if we may discover the answer very soon.

***Exercise 1 Complete the sentences with the correct form of the word in CAPITALS.***

1. The vehicle works using a pair of large .....-powered batteries. SUN
2. The data is not ..... to prove the existence of life. SUFFICE
3. The ..... shook the science world. REVEAL
4. It's far too early to reach any ..... conclusions. DEFINITE
5. This tool measures tiny ..... in temperature. VARY
6. The rover can pick up tiny samples with exact ..... . PRECISE
7. We are going to analyse the ..... back at the lab. FIND
8. This process is observed in all ..... from plants to animals. ORGANIC

***Exercise 2 Circle the word that does not belong.***

1. a. sulfur      b. cardboard      c. methane      d. carbon
2. a. astonishing      b. amazing      c. tedious      d. remarkable
3. a. data      b. query      c. evidence      d. findings
4. a. speculate      b. suspect      c. consider      d. rehearse
5. a. periodically      b. repeatedly      c. consistently      d. frequently

***Exercise 3 Are the sentences true or false or is the information not given?***

1. The study in the journal Science was written by NASA scientists. \_\_\_\_\_
2. This is not the first study to suggest that life existed on Mars in the past. \_\_\_\_\_
3. A scientific vehicle found very small elements of an organic molecule within water extracted from the planet. \_\_\_\_\_
4. It is believed that this conclusively proves that there was once life on the planet. \_\_\_\_\_5.
5. Methane is a natural molecule that is a sign of life. \_\_\_\_\_
6. All organic molecules have a limited lifespan. \_\_\_\_\_
7. Mars can be said to have a winter and a summer. \_\_\_\_\_
8. There are at least two more scientific expeditions heading to Mars. \_\_\_\_\_

***Discussion***

Do you think people will live on Mars?

## Lesson 16 The Importance of Hello

Greetings are a **socialization** behavior that most people take for granted because greetings are so **pervasive** in society. But from a young age, people are taught the appropriate greetings for different circumstances.

- 5 Studying everyday life can help us better understand why we act the ways we do. Sociologist Erving Goffman points out that greetings are part of our face-to-face contacts, phone conversations, and letters.

- One area that greetings illuminate is **status**. For example, which person says “hello” first and how someone is greeted can be part of the **stratification** system in a society. In the past, a man removed his hat and bowed to greet a prince or king; this behavior showed his lower rank in the society. This greeting became truncated over time. Later, people began to greet equals by just lifting the hat and then by touching the hat. Finally, a motion toward the hat was enough of a greeting among friends.

- Greetings also show cultural differences. In France, people kiss each other on the cheeks as a friendly, everyday greeting, but this type of behavior is not the **norm** in the United States. In fact, activities that are acceptable in one country may seem odd or even be **taboo** in another country. Learning what is acceptable and what is prohibited is important for travelers, especially for those conducting international business. In the United States, most business introductions begin with a firm, short (three- to four-second) handshake. In Europe, business associates also shake hands, but the handshake is usually more formal. Business greetings in Europe rarely display the friendly backslaps that are sometimes seen in the United States. In Japan, people customarily bow as a greeting, and many business people have learned to look carefully at how the bow is done. The depth of a bow reflects the status between the two people. In Arab countries, men often greet each other with a hand on the right shoulder and a kiss on each cheek. Though a handshake is usually used when meeting people from other regions, it may be done with two hands and be more of a handhold. In Latin American countries, male friends hug each other when they meet, and women kiss each other on the cheeks. In business settings, the handshake is typically the norm at first; however, after a third or fourth meeting, a hug might be given. Visitors are generally allowed some flexibility in greeting ceremonies, but because greetings are so ingrained, a native of a country may be **ostracized** if he or she fails to follow proper behavior.






- Linguist C. A. Ferguson, as an informal experiment, decided to **deviate** from **conventional** greeting behavior at work. For two days in a row, he didn’t respond to his secretary’s “good morning.” He reported that the atmosphere was unpleasant on the first day and tense on the second day. By the third day, to **alleviate** the stress and save their working relationship, he discontinued the experiment. What people say and do in what may seem like simple greetings can have more importance than people imagine.



**Exercise 1 Predicting.** For each set, write the definition on the line next to the word to which it belongs. If you are unsure, return to the reading on page \_\_, and underline any context clues you find. After you've made your predictions, check your answers with the help of dictionary. Place a checkmark in the box next to each word whose definition you missed.






**Set One**

standing, especially social standing      a standard      the act of developing levels of class  
a learning process      having the quality to spread throughout

-  socialization (line 1 ) \_\_\_\_\_
-  pervasive (line 2) \_\_\_\_\_
-  status (line 9) \_\_\_\_\_
-  stratification (line 11) \_\_\_\_\_
-  norm (line 22) \_\_\_\_\_

**Set Two**

Excluded      to relieve      forbidden from use      to move away from a set behavior      customary

-  taboo (line 23) \_\_\_\_\_
-  ostracized (line 35) \_\_\_\_\_
-  deviate (line 36) \_\_\_\_\_
-  conventional (line 3 6 ) \_\_\_\_\_
-  alleviate (line 3 9 ) \_\_\_\_\_

**Exercise 2 Put T for true or F for false next to each statement.**

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. A group might consider ostracizing someone with an unpleasant odor.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Ox-drawn carts are pervasive in American society.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. A massage can help to alleviate stress.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. One's status in society is often determined by one's job.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Spending the weekend skiing in Switzerland is the norm for most students.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Riding a pogo stick is a conventional method of transportation.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Blowing bubbles with one's gum is considered taboo in the classroom.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. There is no type of stratification in the military.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. A flooded road can cause people to deviate from an intended route.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Socialization can take place at the dinner table.



**Exercise 3 Finish the reading using the vocabulary words. Use each word once.**

**VOCABULARY LIST**

alleviate	norm	pervasive	conventional	socialization
status	taboo	deviate	ostracized	stratification

**Fitting In**

The years spent in school are certainly an important part of the (i)\_\_\_\_\_ process. It is during school hours that children learn how to get along with others and how different groups act. Certainly (2)\_\_\_\_\_ is part of the schoolyard. Some students are the “in” group and have special privileges, while others are considered “outsiders.”



One's (3)\_\_\_\_\_ in school can help determine whether one is invited to parties or teased during recess. Those who (J)\_\_\_\_\_ from the accepted standards, whether by wearing out-of-style clothes or not keeping up on the latest slang, can expect to be criticized. In extreme cases, these students may even be (5)\_\_\_\_\_. What is considered right and wrong can change quickly. One week it may be (6)\_\_\_\_\_ to wear stripes, and the next week stripes can be all the rage. To J7)\_\_\_\_\_ the stress of trying to fit in, parents should give their children love and encouragement at home. The need to fit in, however, is (\$)\_\_\_\_\_ in society, so parents should balance accepting some requests for the latest gadgets with giving in to every childhood whim. What was the (?)\_\_\_\_\_ when parents went to school and what is the standard today can vary greatly, and parents must be willing to change their ideas of what is and isn't acceptable. The (10)\_\_\_\_\_ wisdom that “father knows best” may not always hold true in a rapidly changing world.

## Questions

### *Answer the following questions*

1. Where can you see socialization taking place?
2. What are pervasive problems in today's society?
3. What jobs have a high status in American society?
4. What institutions use stratification?
5. What situations might cause someone to deviate from his or her regular behavior?
6. What norms are found in the classroom?
7. What topics are usually considered taboo at dinner parties?
8. Why might someone be ostracized from a group?
9. What are conventional Mother's or Father's Day gifts?
10. What do you do to alleviate pain when you are sick?



## Lesson 17 “ May I Have 30 % of Your Attention , Please?”

Today it's possible to be productive , keep in constant contact with associates, and have fun at the same time. At least that is what ads for the latest digital gizmos claim. While writing an email to your boss or finishing a paper for your economics class, you can check for live updates on a tennis match halfway around the world or load songs into your portable media device. The boss expects you to prepare a sale's report for tomorrow's meeting. No problem. You can do it and read a movie review at the same time. Or can you?

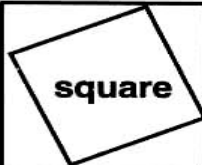

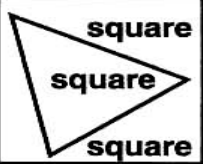
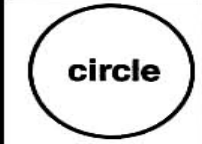
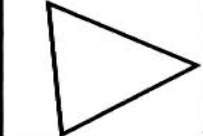


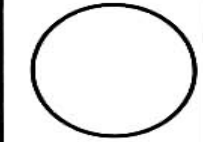


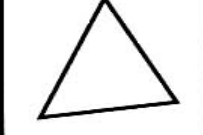

Multitasking, the popular term for this behavior, originally referred to the process by which computers can multitask with a single microprocessor, then certainly the much bigger human brain can train itself to do the same and enjoy the benefits of increased productivity. We humans are quite adept at letting our minds wander while performing a routine motor skill. We can do the dinner dishes while thinking about our next vacation or chew gum while reading a newspaper. But psychologists ask this question: Do multitasking humans operate effectively and efficiently when they really need to concentrate?

The evidence suggests that the answer is no. one problem is interference, or what psychologists call the “Stroop effect”. Back in the 1930s, the psychologist John Ridley Stroop showed there is a danger of error when the brain receives unexpected information while carrying out a routine task. To see what he found, try this experiment on yourself:

As quickly as possible, say the name of each shape in Column 1 out loud. Then do the same for Column 2. Then do the same for Column 3. If you are a good reader, most likely you completed the first column effortlessly, went a bit slower in the second column, and hesitated some, or even made an error, in the third column. Because you are much quicker at reading words out loud than naming shapes, you had difficulty ignoring the incorrect information that you read. Of course, this drill is a bit unnatural and designed to be confusing, but it shows that multitaskers are vulnerable to error and hesitation if they get interference from the wrong set of stimuli while switching between tasks. Imagine the damage a multitasking driver or air traffic controller could do if incorrect information intruded at the wrong time.

Research also suggest that switching between tasks significantly delays completion. If the two tasks are very routine and not too much alike- say, humming along to a new tune while diapering a squirming baby – the brain does not need to switch between the tasks

because the two require different input channels. The humming requires listening and singing, whereas the diapering requires sight and the use of arm and hand muscles. But when a similar kind of attention is needed, the place slows as the brain must switch back and forth between the two tasks.

Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
		
		
		
		

In a study reported in the *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, Rubenstein, Meyer and Evans measured the amount of time lost when people switch between tasks such as solving math problems and identifying shapes.

They discovered that as the tasks become less familiar, the area of the brain that mediates task switching and assigns mental resources takes longer to operate. Because each task requires a different set of rules, it seems the brain needs time to activate the appropriate set. With complex tasks, the switching delays add up, making multitasking less efficient than concentrating on one task at a time. Other researchers report that the brain shows less, not more, neural activity when simultaneously attempting two complex tasks even when a different area of the brain is used for each task. And less brain activity comes at a price. In one study, subjects were instructed to write a report and check their email. The multitaskers took one and a half times longer than those who completed one task before starting another.

This more leisurely work pace will no doubt appeal to many. But the problems with multitasking go beyond the issue of time management. If switching takes time – perhaps a half-second or more – that could be long enough to distract a driver who is fiddling with a cell phone or scrolling through a complicated digital display on a car dashboard. Constant switching is also mentally stressful and may lead to a diminished capacity to remember facts and learn new skills. The brain simply may not get the time it needs to build and maintain neural connections and access memory.

All these negatives do not mean that you should never “whistle while you work” or sneak a peak at a ballgame while studying chemistry. But what about the boss who says “I need that website up by Friday and can you take my calls while I’m out” or the digital showoff who sits through a university lecture while text-messaging on a tiny cell phone screen and nodding to the beat of music piped into barely visible earphones? Remind them of this: The multitasking machinery of our digital world was the most likely developed by very single-minded people focused intently on single task.

***Exercise 1 Mark each sentence as T (true) or F(false) according to the information in reading 1. Use the dictionary to help you understand new words***

- ..... 1. Some of the research on which this article was based predates the age of digital technology.
- ..... 2. The writer believes that the human brain can be train to multitask effectively like a computer.
- ..... 3. Processing two sets of stimuli simultaneously diminishes the chance for error.
- ..... 4. Multitasking is possible when the tasks are routine and very simple.
- ..... 5. Multitasking can have detrimental effects on a person’s memory over time.
- ..... 6. When multitaskers perform poorly, it is purely due to switching delays.
- ..... 7. Trying to do two complicated jobs at the same time leads to an increase in brain activity.
- ..... 8. The people who developed the digital tools we use today probably had to multitask in order to do so.

**Exercise 2 Complete the table**

Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb/Conjunction
Benefit	benefit	beneficial	beneficially
beneficiary			
Complexity	.....	complex	.....
complex	.....		.....
evidence	.....	evident	evidently
	.....		
Identity	identify	Identified	identifiably
identification		identifiable	
Instruction	instruct	Instructive	instructionally
instructor		instructional	
issue	issue	.....	.....
		.....	.....
lecture	lecture	.....	.....
		.....	.....
mediation	mediate	.....	.....
		.....	.....
negative	negate	negative	negatively
negativity			
psychology	.....	psychological	psychologically
psychologist	.....		
requirement	require	required	.....
			.....
Research	research	.....	.....
researcher		.....	.....
.....	.....	.....	whereas
.....	.....	.....	

**Read these comments on multitasking. Fill in the blank with a target word from the chart on page \_ that completes the sentence in a grammatical and meaningful way. Be sure to use them in correct form.**

- Many in the working world today complain that multitasking is a ..... for anyone who wants to get ahead.
- Despite ..... that multitasking waste time, a great number of workers say they are expected to work on many tasks at once.
- ..... suggests that the human brain cannot match a computer's ability to switch back and forth between tasks.
- An outside party was brought in to ..... the dispute.
- ..... are interested in studying what the human brain is doing while a multitasking.
- Multitasking can be ..... when tasks are routine and relaxing.
- One ..... effect of multitasking is a diminished ability to perform each task.

8. Researchers have found that the learning new things has ..... benefits for older people, improving their brain function and their outlook on life

## Questions

### *Answer the following questions*

1. Can you concentrate on two things at the exact same time? Try this: Think about the taste of ice cream while you add the numbers 71 and 56
2. Picture in your mind the faces of two people you know. Can you see them at the same time, or do you switch back and forth?
3. Are you more productive when you work on a single project when you work on several projects at the same time?

## Lesson 18 Why Does Music Move Us?

*Science gets closer to the intersection of biology and creativity*



Researchers are only now beginning to unlock the secrets of the brain. It seems like every month some new study or another comes along to explain why we get addicted to nicotine, or how our neural pathways were changed because we studied piano as children, or how meditation alters our brainwave patterns.

Isolating which part of the brain is responsible for moving your big toe is a neat trick. But what about "softer" functions like figuring out how judgment is formed or music is made? "Why Music Moves Us: The Cognitive Neuroscience of Music," a conference at Swedish Medical Center in Seattle last month, tried to apply some scientific paint stripper, to ask some basic questions about how the brain "hears" and translates sound into music.

We know how the ear catches sound, and that sound waves are translated into neurons that travel to the brain through some 30,000 auditory nerves from each ear. But how is it that the brain translates those neurons into something we recognize as music? Scans show that the brain is much more actively engaged with music than with speech. But there is no actual physical sound in your brain. No notes. No music. Only neurons.

The idea of pitch is a mental phenomenon, says Robert Zatorre, professor of neuroscience at McGill University in Montreal. Only the way sounds are organized makes them interesting. Brain scans show that different parts of the brain register activity depending on the kind of music played. Dissonance, for example, is generally perceived as unpleasant, and it provokes reactions in a different region of the brain than consonant harmonies do.

Music is a basic human condition. We're born primed to pick up on beat regularities and able to put sound in some sort of coherent order. All cultures have music, and the ability to recognize music comes before speech. The brain is wired with reward and avoidance circuitry, and music, like sex or cocaine, rates high in the reward region.

There is strong evidence that our attraction to music isn't just for enjoyment. Music helps build community. And patients who have suffered strokes or other brain injuries often show dramatic improvement in their recovery if music or rhythm is played during therapy, reported Michael Thaut, professor of music and neuroscience at Colorado State University.

Our understanding of how the brain perceives music is still rudimentary, and researchers haven't even developed reliable tests to measure what we want to know about some of the most basic brain functions. Trying to measure, for example, if the brain has a different electrical reaction to music it likes than to music it doesn't is quite difficult because "like" and "dislike" are subjective terms that are hard to quantify scientifically.

Still, it's clear that our perceptions of the world have physical roots in the brain, and those perceptions can be altered. Studies have shown, for example, that the recognition of pitch can be altered by as much as 1½ tones with medication.

Mark Tramo, director of the Institute for Music & Brain Science at Harvard Medical School, told the conference that while the field of studying the neuroscience of how we perceive music is still young, some day we'll know enough to be able to plant tiny neuro-bionic chips in the brain to alter perceptions and "fix" problems. It doesn't take much imagination to project a little further out and imagine a day when we start to understand how the brain processes ideas or "produces" creativity.

What if it turns out that art and creativity are merely the product of a series of switches in the brain firing off in the right sequence?

What a downer. Artists have always occupied a special place in society in part because no one -- even artists themselves -- has been able to pin down the essential act of making art and explain how inspiration and creativity work. Without a rational explanation for the process of creating art, it's much easier to romanticize the artist and attribute quasi-mystical or religious qualities to artistic ideals.

But what if we are able to eventually reduce creativity to biochemical formulas? Surely that would change the way we look at artists, maybe take the mystery out of their art. If we could create neuro-bionic chips to cure brain disorders, why not pills that induce creativity on demand? If you created under the influence, would that seem like cheating, somehow? Surely some might claim that neuro-induced art would give some artists unfair advantage over others. Should we care? After all, if good art is really the thing, then who cares how it was created?

Of course alcohol and drugs are already part of artistic lore, and rather than devalue art, they tend to add to the legend of the artist. And art is so much a product of experience that even if one was able to unlock biologically enhanced creativity, it's doubtful that it would result in a surge of "super-art."

Still, as science gets closer to the intersection of biology and creativity, and the mystery of the artistic impulse is graphed and charted, it's worth pondering what we consider to be the essential qualities that make art unique.

***Exercise 1 Read these sentences paraphrased from Reading. Then, scan the article to find the original sentences. Write the line number of the original on the line.***

- ..... 1. Listening to music activates the brain more than listening to speech does.  
..... 2. Music is a universal experience for all humans.  
..... 3. The facts suggest that music is for more than just pleasure.  
..... 4. The way we view the world is largely determined by the physical properties of our brains.  
..... 5. We can artificially alter our perception of music.  
..... 6. No doubt we would see artists differently.

***Exercise 2 Using your dictionary, decide which meaning of the word physical is expressed in each sentence. Match it with the definition on the right. Compare answers with a partner.***

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| ..... 1. Pitch is a physical property of sound.  | a. relating to the body   |
| ..... 2. The game became very physical in the 4 <sup>th</sup> quarter.                         | b. relating to natural things that can be observed or measured. |
| ..... 3. Ray Harryhausen's stop-motion characters are more physically expressive than puppets. | c. involving bodily force and contact.                          |

**The adjective and verb *prime* has several meanings in different contexts.**

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| a. main, most important, most likely, most typical concern/ | <i>prime</i> example/ reason/ aim/ suspect/ target/ cause/ mover  |
| b. the best, the most perfect or excellent                  | <i>prime</i> position/ location/ cut (of meat)/ <i>prime</i> time (television)  |
| c. the most productive time                                 | in one's <i>prime</i> ; past one's <i>prime</i> ; in the <i>prime</i> of life   |
| d. to be prepared or readied                                | <i>primed</i> to learn/ to listen/ to respond/ for action   |
| e. prepare something for use or to get it started           | <i>prime</i> wood (for painting); <i>prime</i> an explosive; <i>prime</i> the economy; <i>prime</i> someone to take over a job or task. |

***Exercise 3 Which meaning of the word prime is expressed in each sentence? Match the sentences with the definitions in the above box. Compare answers with a partner.***

- ..... 1. We are born primed to pick up on beat regularities and able to put sound in some sort of coherent order.
- ..... 2. Prime seats for the show cost over \$500 each.
- ..... 3. In his final Olympics, he was obviously way past his prime and performed poorly.
- ..... 4. Harryhausen's prime concern was to make the figures more realistic and expressive.
- ..... 5. To prime the state's economy, the governor cut taxes on businesses and individuals.

## **Questions**

***Answer the following questions***

1. What types of music do you like to listen to?
2. Are there any kinds of music that you dislike?
3. Do you ever go to music gigs?
4. Does your country have a traditional type of music or dance?
5. Why do you think older and younger generations prefer different types of music?
6. Do you think that music should be a compulsory subject in schools?
7. Describe your favourite music group or band.



## Lesson 19 Google: A brief History

If you type into Google's search engine the question "How does Google work?", Google itself offers a curious explanation: PigeonRank. According to this obvious joke, Google uses clusters of trained pigeons to "compute the relative value of web pages faster than human

editors or machine-based algorithms." Pigeons, they tell us, can spot minute differences between web pages and will peck when a relevant result appears on the screen. Pages with more pecks move to the top of the list. Google assures us that the pigeons are well treated and not overworked.



**Google founders Larry Page and Sergey Brin**

Two things are clear. Google wants the workings of its successful page-ranking search engine to remain secret, and Google does not mind if you believe pigeons are involved. Fooling aside, what actually accounts for Google's success? How does the search engine, in 0.18 seconds, find 273,000,000 pages relating to "Batman" and put the ones you are most likely to be interested in near the top of the list? How does Google make any money doing this?

The Google story begins in 1996 at Stanford University in California. Two graduate students, Larry Page and Sergey Brin, wanted to find a better way to search websites. Current search engines ranked search results according to how frequently the search words appeared on a page. This approach had several disadvantages. Users had to sort through too many listings to find relevant information. Plus, people could trick search engines to get their page listed at the top of a search query. A user who types in "Batman" does not want to see a web site selling sports equipment at the top of the rankings. Larry Page and Sergey Brin hypothesized that a page is more valuable if other sites link to it. If someone links to a page, then the page has at least some importance. If a very important website links to

the page, that indicates even greater importance. So Brin and Page designed a search engine that could "crawl" the web, download every web page, and analyze its relevance using a secret, constantly changing formula. Pages with higher scores get listed toward the top.

Unable to sell their search engine software at the \$1 million asking price to companies like Yahoo!, the two left Stanford in the fall of 1998 to found Google.com. The obvious superiority of their search engine quickly attracted financial backing. So the two set up a data center in a garage and several rooms of a house, a venue they soon outgrew as the popularity of their search engine increased. In less than a year, prominent investors provided (25 million to aggressively grow the company and improve its search engine. Sergey Brin promised a perfect search engine that "will process and understand all the information in the world" and without charging anyone to use it.

But could Google make money? A free search engine that worked well quickly attracted users, an increase of about 50 percent each month, but that required investing in more computing power, and expensive supercomputers could cost \$800,000. To avoid this expense, Brin and Page purchased thousands of ordinary PCs. Using software they designed, they linked these computers together to make the equivalent of dozens of supercomputers with impressive storage space—all this for about one third the cost of what their competitors were paying for computing power. To deal with the inevitable problem of individual computers failing, Brin and Page wrote software that simply ignored a failing computer rather than bothering to replace it. By locating computers in multiple locations and duplicating their functions, they were protected against losing data when trouble occurred.

Even with operating costs kept down, the company still needed to generate cash. One obvious tactic was to sell advertising space on Google's home page. By the end of 1999, Google averaged 7 million searches each day. But research showed that large banner ads and pop-up ads seemed more annoying to the user than profitable for the advertiser. Users already loved Google's uncluttered and easy-to-use home page. Why crowd it with ads for products that users were not interested in? Brin and Page had a second problem with ads. Advertisers did not want to spend on advertising unless their ad was near the top of the search results. If Google pleased advertisers, relevance to the user would no longer be the primary page-ranking consideration.

Brin and Page's solution allows ads but does not bias the page ranking results in favor of advertisers. The Google home page remains free of ads. On search results pages, ads are text-only and appear in a clearly marked "sponsored links" area along the right margin of the page. To place an ad, advertisers bid on specific "keywords" that relate to the products they sell. If the user searches for "running shoes," a dozen or more ads appear because advertisers suspect that the user wants to buy running shoes. If the user types in "gorilla species," few or no ads will appear since the user is most likely not interested in purchasing anything.

The cost of an ad ranges from a few cents per click to \$30 or more, depending on how much advertisers are willing to bid. Since advertisers are charged only if the user clicks on their ads, advertisers must maintain an acceptable "click-through rate" for each keyword. If the click-through rate is too low, Google suspends the ad or places it lower on the page even if it outbid other ads. Ads clicked on frequently are assumed to be relevant and not likely to bother users. By clicking or not clicking, users decide what ads appear. Clever, indeed, but does it work? In 2001, at a time when most dot-coms were closing their doors, Google earned a profit of \$7 million, and in 2002, \$100 million. Pay-per-click advertising worked.

In 2004, the privately-owned company arranged for an initial public offering (IPO) of shares. Taking their company public was a frightening prospect for Brin and Page. It would raise lots of cash, but it also meant competing companies could see how profitable Google had become, and shareholders might have the power to change the company's goals. On August 19, 2004, Google went public, offering 19,605,052 of its 270 million shares at \$85 per share on the NASDAQ stock exchange. At the end of the first day of trading, over 22 million shares changed hands, with the shares valued at \$100.34. Google now had a market capitalization of \$23 billion dollars. In late 2007, the price of a single share of Google peaked at \$716 U.S. per share, making Google one of the highest priced companies in the United States.

Drawing on that success, Google continues to expand its services to achieve its goal of making all the information in the world available online. Google Books, for example, aims to have searchable versions of every book ever published online, including rare books from university library collections. Google Earth offers up-close satellite photographs of the entire planet. In October 2006, Google announced its purchase of YouTube, the popular online video site, for \$1.65 billion. And its Android technology has made Google a strong competitor in the smart-phone market. To strengthen its position, Google announced in August 2011 that it was acquiring Motorola Mobility Inc., a major producer of smartphones.

Has Google reached its peak? Can it keep growing and generate enough sales to justify the high price of its stock? So far Google is financially sound. Google's earnings have continued to rise, with profits of \$8.5 billion U.S. on sales of over (29 billion in 2010, while holding nearly \$40 billion in cash—numbers that suggest that Google can continue expanding without taking on debt. Larry Page and Sergey Brin are no doubt brilliant and innovative, but the odds say they will make mistakes, and other bright people may figure out a way to cut into their search engine business. Plus, as a company grows, its talent becomes diluted. Has Google already captured so much of the Internet search and advertising market that it will now have to expand into areas where Google's brilliant team has less expertise?

If you want to follow the ongoing Google story, it is simple. Just type "goog" into Google's search engine to see how its stock is doing.

***Exercise 1 Imagine that you need to check some information in Reading on page\_for report. Scan the article quickly to find answers to these questions. First think about the word you will scan for.***

1. Where did the two founders of Google get started on their project?
2. What word did the reading use to describe the way the Google search engine works?
3. In what year was Google founded?
4. Did Google lose money during the years when the dot-com bubble burst?
5. What does IPO stand for?
6. Did Google have a lot of debts at the time the article was written?

***Exercise 2 Complete the table***

Noun	Verb	Adjective	Adverb
Bias	bias	biased unbiased	.....
Computer computation	compute	computational computed	computationally
constant	.....	constant	constantly

editor	edit	edited	.....
edition		editorial	
editorial			
Formula	formulate	formulaic	formulaically
founder	found	Founded	.....
		unfounded	
relevance	.....	Relevant	relevantly
		irrelevant	

***Fill in the blanks with a target word from the chart that completes the sentence in a grammatical and meaningful way. Be sure to use the correct form.***

1. Many dot-coms in the late 1990s were .....on an unsound business model.
2. The business was under ..... pressure to expand into new markets.
3. A complicated algorithm ..... the importance of each web page for the purposes of ranking it.
4. What's Google's ..... for success?
5. I know he's a hardworker and wants the job, but unfortunately that's not really ..... We need someone with real expertise in the field.
6. The websites of many reputable newspapers lack the careful ..... of the print editions. They are full of errors.

***Exercise 3 The word bias has technical and non-technical uses. Which meaning of the word bias is expressed in each sentence? Match the sentence on the left with the definition on the right. Compare answers with a partner.***

..... 1. Since the defendant was a relative, the judge rescued himself to avoid any charges of bias.

..... 2. The results of the research are biased because they did not include a broad enough sample of students.

..... 3. The course covers world history, but with a bias toward the Renaissance.

..... 4. Brin and Page's solution allows ads but does not bias the page ranking results in favour of advertisers.

..... 5. She assured both sides that she had nothing at stake in the outcome and was trained to make an unbiased judgement.

a. favouritism toward one side in an argument, decision, or report

b. actions or attitudes favouring one group over another

c. favouring or focusing on one aspect of a broad subject

d. not favouring one side or the other

e. having an error in a statistical study

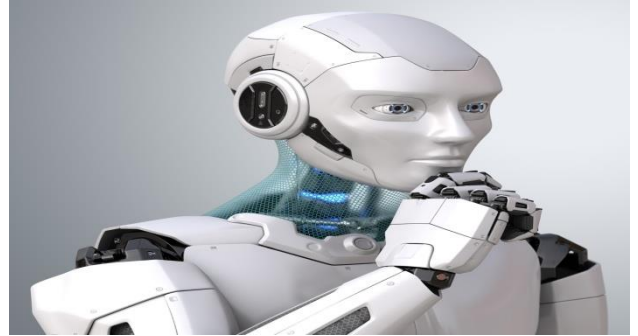
## Questions

*Answer the following questions*

1. When you hear the name Google, do you have a positive, negative, or neutral attitude toward the company? Why?
2. Do you use internet much during the day?
3. What do you usually do on the internet?
4. What are some of the advantages of internet?
5. What according to you are the disadvantages of Internet?
6. Do people in your country use internet a lot?
7. Do you do any shopping on internet?

## Lesson 20 Robots ‘R’ Us

Human experience is marked by a refusal to obey our limitations. We’ve escaped the ground, we’ve escaped the planet, and now, after thousands of years of effort, our quest to build machines that emulate our own appearance, movement and intelligence is leading us to the point where we will escape the two most fundamental confines of all: our bodies and our minds. Once this point comes—once the accelerating pace of technological change allows us to build machines that not only equal but surpass human intelligence—we’ll see cyborgs (machine-enhanced humans like the Six Million Dollar Man), androids (human-robot hybrids like Data in Star Trek) and other combinations beyond what we can even imagine.



Although the ancient Greeks were among the first to build machines that could emulate the intelligence and natural movements of people (developments invigorated by the Greeks’ musings that human intelligence might also be governed by natural laws), these efforts flowered in the European Renaissance, which produced the first androids with lifelike movements. These included a mandolin-playing lady, constructed in 1540 by Italian inventor Gianello Torriano. In 1772 Swiss watchmaker Pierre Jaquet-Droz built a pensive child named L’crivain (The Writer) that could write passages with a pen. L’crivain’s brain was a mechanical computer that was impressive for its complexity even by today’s standards.

Such inventions led scientists and philosophers to speculate that the human brain itself was just an elaborate automaton. Wilhelm Leibniz, a contemporary of Isaac Newton, wrote around 1700: “What if these theories are really true, and we were magically shrunk and put into someone’s brain while he was thinking. We would see all the pumps, pistons, gears and levers working away, and we would be able to describe their workings completely, in mechanical terms, thereby completely describing the thought processes of the brain. But that description would nowhere contain any mention of thought! It would contain nothing but descriptions of pumps, pistons, levers!”

Leibniz was on to something. There are indeed pumps, pistons and levers inside our brain—we now recognize them as neurotransmitters, ion channels and the other molecular components of the neural machinery. And although we don’t yet fully understand the details of how these little machines create thought, our ignorance won’t last much longer.

The word “robot” originated almost a century ago. Czech dramatist Karel Capek first used the term in his 1921 play R.U.R. (for “Rossum’s Universal Robots”), creating it from the Czech word “robota,” meaning obli-ga-tory work. In the play, he describes the invention of intelligent biomechanical machines intended as servants for their human creators. While lacking charm and goodwill, his robots brought together all the elements of machine intelligence: vision, touch sensitivity, pattern recognition, decision making, world knowledge, fine motor coordination and even a measure of common sense.

Capek intended his intelligent machines to be evil in their perfection, their perfect rationality scornful of human frailty. These robots ultimately rise up against their masters and destroy all humankind, a dystopian notion that has been echoed in much science fiction since.

The specter of machine intelligence enslaving its creators has continued to impress itself on the public consciousness. But more significantly, Capek's robots introduced the idea of the robot as an imitation or substitute for a human being. The idea has been reinforced throughout the 20th century, as androids engaged the popular imagination in fiction and film, from Rosie to C-3PO and the Terminator. The first generation of modern robots were, however, a far cry from these anthropomorphic visions, and most robot builders have made no attempt to mimic humans. The Unimate, a popular assembly-line robot from the 1960s, was capable only of moving its one arm in several directions and opening and closing its gripper. Today there are more than two million Roomba robots scurrying around performing a task (vacuuming) that used to be done by humans, but they look more like fast turtles than maids. Most robots will continue to be utilitarian devices designed to carry out specific tasks. But when we think of the word "robot," Capek's century-old concept of machines made in our own image still dominates our imagination and inspires our goals.

The aspiration to build human-level androids can be regarded as the ultimate challenge in artificial intelligence. To do it, we need to understand not just human cognition but also our physical skill-it is, after all, a critical part of what the brain does. Coordinating intention with movement in a complex environment is largely the responsibility of the cerebellum, which comprises more than half the neurons in the brain. And the body itself represents much of our complexity: There is more information in the human genome, which describes the human body, than in the design of the brain.

We are making tremendous strides toward being able to understand how the brain works. The performance/price ratio, capacity and bandwidth of every type of information technology, electronic and biological alike, is doubling about every year. I call this pervasive phenomenon the law of accelerating returns. Our grasp of biology is proceeding at an accelerating pace, also exponentially increasing every year. It took scientists five years to be able to sequence HIV, for example, but the SARS virus required only 31 days. The amount of genetic data that's been sequenced has doubled every year since the human genome project began in 1990, and the cost per base pair has come down by half each year, from \$10 in 1990 to about a penny today. We are making comparable gains in understanding how the genome expresses itself in proteins and in understanding how a broad range of biological mechanisms work. Indeed, we are augmenting and re-creating nearly every organ and system in the human body: hearts and pancreases, joints and muscles.

The same progression applies to our knowledge of the human brain. The three-dimensional resolution of brain scans has been exponentially increasing, and the latest generation of scanners can image individual neuronal connections firing in real time. The amount of data that scientists are gathering on the brain is similarly increasing every year. And they are showing that this information can be understood by converting it into models and simulations of brain regions, some two dozen of which have already been completed. IBM also recently began an ambitious effort to model a substantial part of the cerebral cortex in incredible detail.

If we are to re-create the powers of the human brain, we first need to understand how complex it is. There are 100 billion neurons, each with thousands of connections and each connection containing about 1,000 neural pathways. I've estimated the amount of information required to characterize the state of a mature brain at thousands of trillions of bytes: a lot of complexity.

But the design of the brain is a billion times as simple as this. How do we know? The design of the human brain-and body-is stored in the genome, and the genome doesn't contain that much information. There are three billion rungs of DNA in the human genome: six billion bits, or 800 million bytes. It is replete with redundancies, however; one lengthy sequence called ALU is repeated 300,000 times. Since we know the genome's structure, we can compress its information to only 30 million to 100 million bytes, which is smaller than the code for Microsoft Word. About half of this contains the design of the human brain.

The brain can be described in just 15 million to 50 million bytes because most of its wiring is random at birth. For example, the trillions of connections in the cerebellum are described by only a handful of genes. This means that most of the cerebellum wiring in the infant brain is chaotic. The system is designed to be self-organizing, though, so as the child learns to walk and talk and catch a fly ball, the cerebellum gets filled with meaningful information.

My point is not that the brain is simple, but that the design is at a level of complexity that we can fathom and manage. And by applying the law of accelerating returns to the problem of analyzing the brain's complexity, we can reasonably forecast that there will be exhaustive models and simulations of all several hundred regions of the human brain within about 20 years.

Once we understand how the mind operates, we will be able to program detailed descriptions of these principles into inexpensive computers, which, by the late 2020s, will be thousands of times as powerful as the human brain-another consequence of the law of accelerating returns. So we will have both the hardware and software to achieve human-level intelligence in a machine by 2029. We will also by then be able to construct fully humanlike androids at exquisite levels of detail and send blood-cell-size robots into our bodies and brains to keep us healthy from inside and to augment our intellect. By the time we succeed in building such machines, we will have become part machine ourselves. We will, in other words, finally transcend what we have so long thought of as the ultimate limitations: our bodies and minds.

***Exercise 1 Mark each sentence as T(true) or F (false) according to the information in Reading.***

- ..... 1. Ray Kurzweil sees advanced cyborg and android robots as inevitable.
- ..... 2. Karel Capek saw robots as a threat to humans.
- ..... 3. According to Kurzweil, we have trouble seeing utilitarian devices as being true robots.
- ..... 4. Kurzweil believes we have underestimated the complexity of the human brain.
- ..... 5. As our technological capabilities increase, technology becomes more and more expensive.
- ..... 6. The actual structure of the brain is less complex than the code for some computer programs.



1. The library's capacity is inadequate for the number of books in the collection.
  - a. power to do something
  - b. the amount of physical space
2. The Three Laws of Robotics are a code of conduct devised by science fiction writer Issak Asimov
  - a. the secret system of letters or numbers
  - b. a set of principles
3. This notion was first expressed in a short story by Asimov
  - a. an idea or opinion
  - b. an impulse or desire
4. He had a sudden notion to call an old friend of his.
  - a. an idea or opinion
  - b. an impulse or desire
5. The scientist recorded his theories in a code that we are just now beginning to understand.
  - a. set of principles
  - b. a secret system of letters or numbers
6. Although I don't agree with him, I'm impressed by his intellectual capacity.
  - a. power to do something
  - b. amount of physical space

*Answer the following questions*

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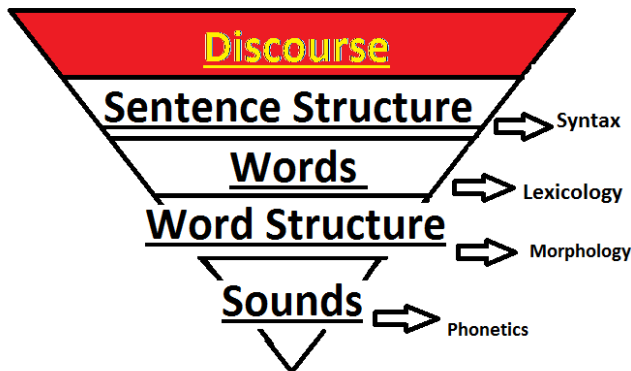
## Lesson 21 What is Discourse Analysis?

### What is Discourse?

There are 3 ways of defining discourse:



1) **Formalist:** Formalists are Discourse Analysts who define discourse formally - describing it in terms of the formal units which make up language. Discourse is language above the sentence. It is to do with the collective meaning communicated by the sentence.



2) **Functionalist:** Functionalists are Discourse Analysts who define discourse in terms of its function - what it is used for. Discourse is essentially language use and language is used in social events to "communicate ideas, beliefs and express emotion". Therefore, discourse can be defined as language behaviour linked to a social practice. There are many different types of social situation, and so it follows that there are different types of discourse appropriate to each one. For example, the discourse of law is unique to the legal profession, and used to write legal documents in as much depth as possible to avoid vagueness and ambiguity.

3) **System of thought:** By far the most complex, abstract definition of discourse given by analysts is that it is a 'system of thought'. By this they mean that there is no such thing as a universal truth. Let me explain: Truth/knowledge is dependent upon particular historical/cultural information, e.g. ideologies and beliefs. This is why while we talk about terrorists, others might talk of freedom fighters. These two completely different ways of seeing one thing demonstrate the fact that discourses shape reality.



Discourse Analysis (DA) is a modern discipline of the social sciences that covers a wide variety of different sociolinguistic approaches. It aims to study



social sciences that and analyse the use

of discourse in at least one of the ways that we have explained already, often, this means working with more than one or even all of the ways we have described.

Analysis of discourse looks not only at the basic level of what is said, but takes into consideration the surrounding social and historical contexts. As Sam Kirkham mentions in the video below, someone studying discourse may look at the implications of describing a person as a 'terrorist' as opposed to a 'freedom fighter'. To expand, 'terrorist' is a term that brings negative connotations of evil and violence, whereas 'freedom fighter' has positive connotations of fighting towards political upheaval of dictatorships. So, one term is looked upon a lot more favourably than the other, and this is what a Discourse Analyst would consider. For example, discourse analysts who are interested in how written media are used to influence people will look at their chosen text and analyse how a particular world view is put across.

### How is Discourse Analysis studied?

The first thing to say about methods for studying discourse, is that Discourse Analysis is not itself a research method, but rather a field that uses other branches of linguistics to look at the ways in which communication takes place between people in varying contexts and with varying motives. Here are a couple of areas a discourse analyst might look at.

- *Conversation Analysis*  
The study of social interaction. This can encompass both verbal language and non-verbal language such as body language.
- *Interactional Sociolinguistics*  
A subdiscipline of sociolinguistics that takes interaction into account when studying the meaning created by language users.
- *Pragmatics*  
Considers how meaning is constructed beyond the literal meaning of an utterance as well as focusing on implied meanings.

These areas would be of particular interest to someone who is studying face to face interactions or the way in which films and TV portray people. For example, a researcher may use some of these disciplines to look at the way the TV shows such as 'Friends' portray everyday life. They would then ask if these portrayals are accurate and what effect, if any, they have on people's perceptions and attitudes.

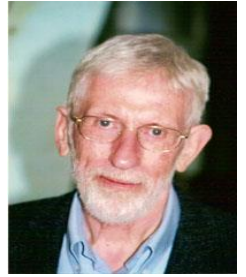
### Stylistics

A researcher interested in written media such as newspapers would also use stylistics to assess their chosen sources. Stylistics is a practice of linguistics that studies and interprets texts. It links literary criticism and linguistics together, but remains descriptive. Here are some of the key terms that discourse analysts will use from the area of stylistics:

#### *Active or Passive voice*

- The use of an active verb gives a clear picture of who performed a particular action, and to whom, for example: "Police **attack** protestors".

- The use of a passive verb states what has been done, and to whom, but does not blame anyone in particular for the action, for example: "Protestors **attacked**".
- Alternatively, nominalisation can be used, where the noun form of the verb is used to create even more ambiguity, for example: "**Attack on** protestors".



### *Naming*

- The ways in which people are named can also perpetuate ideologies. For example, the newspaper headline "five Asian youths involved in armed robbery" creates a very different picture than "five young men involved in armed robbery".
- Similarly, the way people are described in texts, or after giving quotes can present two different pictures, for example: "Dr Sarah Jones" creates a different picture than "Single mother of two, Sarah Jones".

### *Pre-modifiers*

- Pre-modified nouns can present varying views of a topic. For example, "gay marriage" or "same-sex marriage" implies that this is essentially different from hetero-sexual marriage.

### *Indirect quotes*

- This is particularly common, when the results of a poll are being used, for example "poll shows 70% oppose gay marriage", however there may be no evidence of reported speech saying this.

Many sociolinguists have looked into the study of discourse, leading to the discipline we now recognise as Discourse Analysis. DA has grown in popularity in the the social sciences since the 1950s due to the hard work of many key researchers, so on this page we will look at three of the most important people involved with the development of Discourse Analysis.

It was perhaps the French philosopher, **Michel Foucault**, who laid the foundations for many social theorists and discourse analysis itself. The theories of Foucault have actually led to a specialised variant of discourse analysis, called Foucauldian Discourse Analysis. In 1972, Foucault wrote "Nothing has any meaning outside of discourse", and the point he was trying to make here was that discourse creates a social context and gives meaning to anything that is spoken about. This includes institutional objects such as power and knowledge and discourse analysts work from these ideas about social objects to look for the truth in their structures.



**Norman Fairclough** is a key researcher in discourse analysis, although the principle of his work is concentrated on the variant of Critical Discourse Analysis, which looks at how power and ideology are reproduced through language. He is considered as one of the founders of Critical Discourse Analysis, and his first book *Language and Power* (1989) was all about looking at discourse usage and how it

related to unequal measures of power. This is one of the key concepts in CDA: considering how language reproduces power, and the effect of this in society.

Teun Adrianus van Dijk is a prominent scholar, who currently lectures at the Pompeu Fabra University in Barcelona, Spain. Van Dijk has published many books on Discourse Analysis and Critical Discourse Analysis, with the bulk of his work looking at racism in discourse. This is important work for the social sciences as understanding how racist ideologies are reproduced by 'symbolic elites' (a term used by van Dijk to refer to politicians and journalists among others) is key to working towards cutting racism and prejudices out of society.

Discourse has been studied for thousands of years. The **Ancient Greeks** were considered the first to look at discourse.

**1950s:** The term Discourse Analysis first came into common usage, making it a fairly modern addition to the discipline of linguistics. It was really in the time that followed this that key theories and approaches were developed.

**1969-1970s:** Michel Foucault published his 'Archaeology of Knowledge'. This work is considered the birth of modern day Discourse Analysis, and more about Foucault and his influential theories can be found on the 'Who does Discourse Analysis?' page. He continued to shape the field of Discourse Analysis with his later work.



**1980s:** People such as Van Dijk and Fairclough were looking into variants of Discourse Analysis, showing just how much this discipline had grown as a social science.

**1990s:** Van Dijk used Critical Discourse Analysis to look at racism. This was key in highlighting how certain features of language portrayed differing attitudes and prejudices in politics and the press.

As 'Discourse Analysis' covers just about any analysis of a text, there isn't really a specific place where it has to be studied and conducted. Discourse can be seen everywhere, so a discourse analysis can arguably be conducted anywhere.

However, here are a few locations of where historical incidents in discourse analysis have occurred:

- **Germany:** Stylistician Leo Spitzer (originally from Austria) produces the *Stilstudien* (Style Studies) in 1928. This is often attributed as being the earliest form of a Discourse Analysis; its influence became widespread. So much so that Michel Foucault himself translated it into French, which popularised it beyond the parameters of scholars.
- **Peru:** Using the model of Discourse Analysis theorised by American linguist Zellig Harris, James A Lauriault/Loriot, a linguist from America journeyed to Peru and formed logical, mathematical rules that went beyond the simple sentence structure.
- **Worldwide:** In the late 1960s/70s, approaches to Discourse Analysis were developed universally. This time however, they began to cross reference with many of the social sciences such as: Semiotics, Sociolinguistics, Pragmatics and Psycholinguistics.
- **Europe:** As mentioned earlier, Foucault became a key theorist in the idea of discourse as a system of thought in the 20th Century. Since then, he has been regarded as a catalyst in the development of Discourse Analysis.

There are many reasons why we may want to study Discourse Analysis:

- By studying Discourse Analysis, you'd be promoting yourself as a "critical consumer of information". This means that you'd begin to view the way newspapers encouraged you to look at something one way but not another. A common example is the "freedom fighter/terrorist".
- According to discourse analysts, our language always seeks a particular response when we use it. Usually, it's a cognitive process (i.e. an unconscious decision), making it interesting to a linguist. For example, look at the way these two common utterances are expressed:

a) *"Are you sure you want to go out?"*

b) *"How come you want to go out?"*

As you can see, both a) and b) concern the same query. However, if you were to say utterance a), then the likely result you'd be seeking would be for the person you're addressing to not go out. In contrast, utterance b) would be less demanding; it is more of an actual query than a dissuasive device.

## Questions

1. What is Discourse?
2. What is Discourse Analysis?
3. How is Discourse Analysis studied?
4. Which scholars have looked into the study of discourse?
5. When was Discourse Analysis studied?
6. Where was Discourse Analysis studied?
7. Why is Discourse Analysis studied?

## Lesson 22 Text and Discourse

The **main difference** between text and discourse is that the **text does not specify an agent whereas the discourse specifies the agent of the information**. Thus, a text is necessarily non-interactive while discourse is necessarily interactive.

Even though the two terms text and discourse are used interchangeably with concern to literary analytical studies, these two are two diverging subjects. This confusion arises due to the similar nature of the two in their literary analytical studies as textual analysis and discourse analysis.

### TEXT VERSUS DISCOURSE

TEXT	DISCOURSE
A written form of communication information, which is a non-interactive nature	A spoken, written, visual or audial form, communicating information that is interactive in nature
Agent is not crucial	Agent is crucial
Non-interactive in nature	Interactive in nature
Grammatical cohesion and structure of sentences are analyzed	Agents involved in the communication, the social purpose and the medium utilized are analyzed
Usually in written form	Can be either in written, verbal, visual or audio form
Ex: press reports, street signs, documents, etc.	Ex: dialogues, conversations, interactions in audio-visual programmes, etc.
	Visit <a href="http://www.PEDIAA.com">www.PEDIAA.com</a>

### What is a Text?

A text includes some information, specifically in the written form or printed form. Thus, it is noteworthy that the agent of a text is not crucial: there may or may not be an agent. And the agent has no direct impact of the content to the reader. For example, consider the text in a subject textbook, an essay, or a press release where the information is merely reported with or without an agent or the speaker. The information present in a text is usually non-interactive, or it does not contain an indication of conversational speech. Thus, the reader only reads and becomes aware of the facts presents. As defined by the Linguistic glossary terms, text is “a sequence of paragraphs that represents an extended unit of speech.” Therefore, the grammatical cohesion is a fundamental factor in a text.



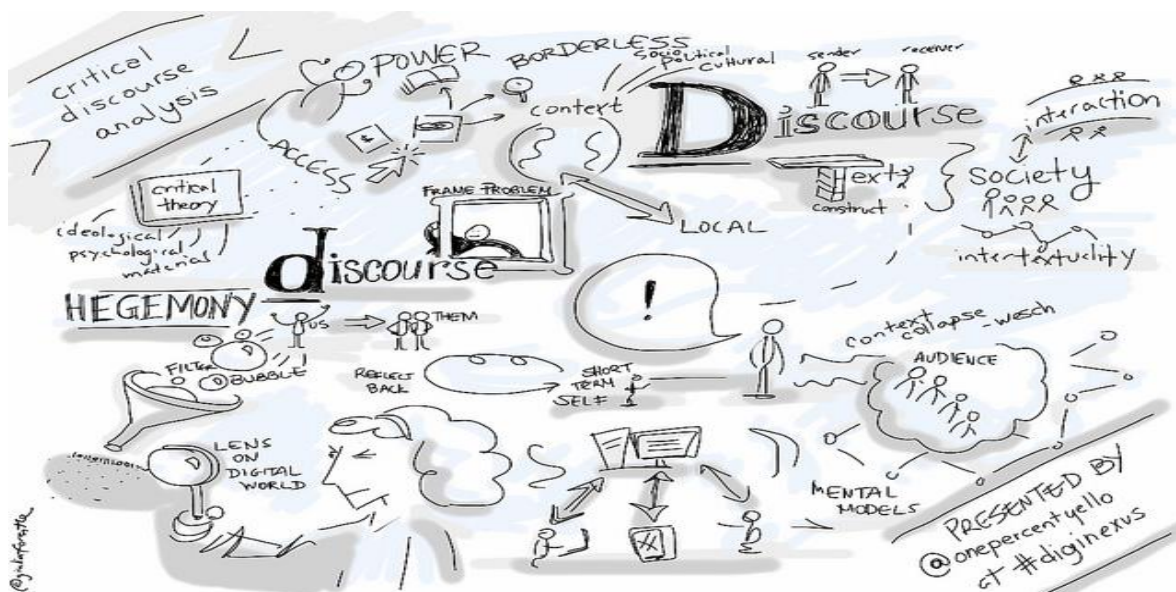
In order to analyze the content of a text, one should be aware of the linguistic and grammatical categories of the language, and the information provided according to the meaning, grammatical devices used, structure, meaning, etc. Therefore, by analyzing the overall structure of the text, one is able to grasp the meaning of the text. Thus, textual analysis, in brief, is the analysis of these grammatically cohesive sentences, imparting some information.

However, in literary studies, there are several text types: narrative texts, descriptive texts, expository texts, etc. in which discourse can be included as well.

### What is Discourse?

A discourse is necessarily interactive, which means there is always an agent to the information in discourse. In simple terms, discourse is often conversational communications between people. Therefore, under linguistics and literary theory, discourse is defined as “a social event of multi-layered communication in a variety of media: verbal, textual, visual and audial, that has an **interactive social purpose**.”

Thus, interactive quality is a primary requirement in discourse. In other words, the existence of an agent to the information defines what discourse means. Therefore, unlike a text, a discourse can have cohesive sentences as well as utterances of the communicating agents. In other words, discourse depicts the usage of language in for social purposes. This is the basic difference between text and discourse.



Therefore, to analyze a discourse, one should study the persons or the agents involved in the communication (who to whom), the purpose of them (the social purpose), and medium used (verbal, written, audio or visual). Thus, to grasp the meaning of discourse, one should analyze all these three basic elements in the discourse.

### Similarity Between Text and Discourse

- Both text and discourse usually consist of sentences which communication information.



## Difference Between Text and Discourse

### Definition

Text is usually a written form of communication information, which is a non-interactive nature. In contrast, discourse can be from spoken, written, visual and audial form, communicating information that is interactive in nature.

*Agent.* The agent is not crucial for the text. However, the agent is crucial, and it is that what makes up a discourse. This is the main difference between text and discourse.

*Nature.* Also, the text is non-interactive in nature; on the contrary, discourse is interactive in nature.

*Analysis Parts.* In a text, the grammatical cohesion and the structure of sentences are analyzed whereas, in discourse, the agents involved in the communication, the social purpose and the medium utilized are analyzed to comprehend the meaning of it. This is an important difference between text and discourse.

*Medium or Form.* Furthermore, the text is usually in written form whereas discourse can be either in written, verbal, visual or audio form.

*Examples.* Examples of texts include press reports, street signs, documents, etc. whereas discourse can be dialogues, conversations, interactions in audio-visual programmes, etc, anything that depicts the social usage of the language.

Text and discourse create varied confusion due to the interchangeable use of these two terms in varied contexts. However, these two are distinctive aspects of linguistics and communication studies. A text is necessarily non-interactive while discourse is necessarily interactive. Therefore, a text does not necessarily indicate an agent whereas the agent is a crucial element in a discourse. This is the main difference between text and discourse.

While there are instances where and individuals who use text and discourse as basically synonymous terms, there is a difference in their definitions as regards agents (who and whom) and purpose fulfilled. In text, agents are not a critical factor: there may agents, there may not be. For example, in CERN press release text, there are none: information is being reported, that's all. In a novel's text, there are agents, such as Elizabeth and Darcy in *Pride and Prejudice*, who carry on a conversational discourse amongst themselves that the reader observes. The propose of text, therefore, is to relay or communicate information and may often be **non-interactive**, meaning the reader of the text is an observer.

While **discourse** is used in a nontechnical sense to mean conversational communication, linguistics, narratology and literary theory have developed a technical meaning to **discourse**. It is this meaning that confuses the issue of the difference between text and discourse. To start with, conversational discourse as between you and your friend or Elizabeth and Darcy is a behavioral event, called a recognizable speech event, that has individual purpose. Contrastingly, discourse in linguistics, narratology, and literary theory is a social event of multi-layered communication in a variety of media (verbal, textual, visual, audial) that has an **interactive** social purpose.

To study text, you study the written words that communicate some information: structure, theme, meaning, rhetorical devices, etc. To study discourse, you study who is communicating with whom through what medium and for what social purpose. Let's use this answer as an example. To study or analyze the **text**, you will note the overall structure and (most importantly!) you will grasp the meaning of the content as it answers your question. To study or analyze the **discourse**, you will determine who is communicating with whom through what medium and for what social purpose.

Let's analyze discourse together. In this answer I am communicating with you through a textual medium--but not you alone. I am also communicating with the larger social group made up of anyone who reads this after you do--and the discourse goes two ways as you or others comment upon, makes notes about, talk about, etc. my side of the discourse. This answer builds an intricate social network of participants in a multiple-direction interactive discourse. What is the purpose of this discourse? Well, that is more complex; there may be many levels of purpose.

Of the many, the most obvious purpose is to answer your question and differentiate between text and discourse. Another purpose is for me to articulate ideas about concepts that are important to me. Another purpose is to respect your--and other readers--personal background and educational system while I do so. This is discourse: it has multiple interactive layers and it has multiple complex social purpose.

The same analysis can be applied to your conversation with your friend and to the text of *Pride and Prejudice*: you can find the multiple layers in various media that comprise the social event and the various purposes of discourse. **In summary:** Text is a behavioral non-interactive event restricted to your experience with understanding its characteristics and its meaning or information as its singular purpose. Discourse, in any medium, is a social interactive event with many layers of communication and many layers of purpose.

***Exercise 1- Fill in the gaps. Use “discourse” or “text” in spaces provided.***

1. .... serves to indicate not only the immediate context of, e.g. a conversation, a job interview, etc., but also the hidden conditions that govern such situations of language use. That is, how people use their language in their social contexts.
2. .... is Language above the level of a sentence
3. .... is defined In terms of its being a physical product
4. .... is viewed as a process

5. In linguistics, ..... is generally considered to be the use of written or spoken language in a social context.
6. To study or analyze the **text**, you will note the overall structure and (most importantly!) you will grasp the meaning of the content as it answers your question.
7. To study or analyze the **discourse**, you will determine who is communicating with whom through what medium and for what social purpose.
8. Text is a behavioral non-interactive event restricted to your experience with understanding its characteristics and its meaning or information as its singular purpose.

## Lesson 23 Text context of situation

According to Halliday and Hasan (1985: 12), texts cannot be approached without reference to the situation as the context “in which texts unfold and in which they are to be interpreted”. They distinguish three situational parameters that help communicants make predictions about the kinds of meaning that are being exchanged. These are: field, tenor and mode of discourse. 1. Field of discourse Field of discourse refers to “what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place: what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential component?” Field of discourse plays a vital role in the context of text. It is one of the three basic elements in the textual internal world and external world. Fields of discourse can be nontechnical, as is the case with the general topics that we deal with in the course of our daily life. Or they can be technical or specialist as in linguistics, law, engineering, physics, computer science and many other fields.

In specialist fields lexical mutuality of text, specific structures and certain grammatical patterns belonging to the field of discourse are employed in an appropriate way, for example, terms like plasmodium, anthelmintics, antimalarials and prophylactics in medicine; terms like hydrogen, neutron and molecule in physics; terms like generic, diachronic, phylogentetic and archiphoneme in linguistics.

### 2. Tenor of discourse

According to Halliday and Hasan, tenor of discourse refers to “who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their statuses and roles: what kinds of role relationship obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved?” (Halliday and Hasan, 1985: 12) Tenor of discourse indicates the relationship between discourse participants (e.g. speaker/writer and hearer/reader) as manifested in language use. Participants’ relationship varies from one group to another. It may be that of a patient and a doctor, a mother and her child, a teacher and a student, etc.

As far as addresser and addressee are different in terms of categories, one would always expect the language used between them to vary from one set or group to another. Language which is used between husband and wife is usually expected to be informal whatever the subject matter, whereas the language which is employed by a politician making a speech in a conference is nearly formal.

3. Mode of discourse Mode of discourse is a term that refers to “what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organisation of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two?) and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like” (Halliday and Hasan, 1985: 12).

Mode of discourse is the third basic strand of register. It is the formal strand in which language is used, or to put it in Halliday’s terms, it refers to what part the language is playing. Mode can take spoken as well as written forms, each of which divides into different sub-divisions. Speaking can be non-spontaneous, as in acting or reciting, or spontaneous, as in conversing. As far as writing is concerned, there are various categories such as material written to be read aloud as in political speeches, material written to be spoken (e.g. in acting), and material written to be read which covers a wide range of writings includes newspapers, books of various sorts, journals, magazines, etc.

**Exercise 1 Deconstructing and analysing a text. Find a text and complete the table**

---

Name of text:

**Field**

*What is the text about?*

*What is the content?*

Evidence from the text

*Is the content common sense or specialised?*

Evidence from the text

**Tenor**

*What is the relationship between the author and the reader?*

*Is the relationship personal or impersonal?*

Evidence from the text

*Is the relationship formal or informal?*

Evidence from the text

*Is the author an expert and the reader a novice? Or are they both equal?*

Evidence from the text

**Mode**

*How is the text constructed?*

*Is it written-like or spoken-like?*

Evidence from the text

*Is it planned or spontaneous?*

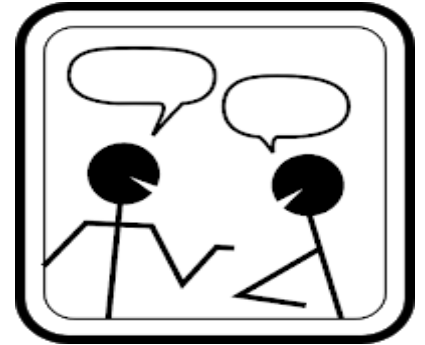
Evidence from the text

*What media does it use? (Multimedia presentation, written report, video, etc)*

Evidence from the text

## Lesson 24 Discourse functions: Transactional and Interactional

The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs. While some linguists may concentrate on determining the formal properties of a language, the discourse analyst is committed to an investigation of what that language is used for. While the formal approach has a long tradition, manifested innumerable volumes of grammar, the functional approach is less well documented. Attempts to provide even a general test of labels for the principal functions of language



have resulted in vague, and often confusing, terminology. We will adopt only two terms to describe the major functions of language and emphasise that this division is an analytic convenience. It would be unlikely that, on any occasion, a natural language utterance would be used to fulfil only one function, to the total exclusion of the other. That function which language serves in the expression of 'content' we will describe transactional, and that function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes we will describe as interactional. Our distinction, 'transactional/ interactional', stands in general correspondence to the functional dichotomies – 'representative/ expressive', found in Bühler (1934), 'referential/ emotive' (Jakobson, 1960), 'ideational/ interpersonal' (Halliday, 1970b) and descriptive/ social-expressive' (Lyons, 1977).

### *The transactional view*

Linguists and linguistic philosophers tend to adopt limited approach to the functions of language in society. While they frequently acknowledge that language may be used to perform many communicative functions, they nonetheless make the general assumption that the most important function is the communication of information. Thus Lyons (1977: 32) observes that the notion of communication is readily used 'of feelings, moods and attitudes' but suggests that he will be primarily interested in 'the intentional transmission of factual, or propositional, information'. Similarly Bennett (1976: 5) remarks 'it seems likely that communication is primarily a matter of a speaker's seeking either to inform a hearer of something or to enjoin some action upon him'. The value of the use of language to transmit information is well embedded in our cultural mythology. We all believe that it is the faculty of language which has enabled the human race to develop diverse cultures, each with its distinctive social customs, religious observances, laws, oral traditions, patterns of trading, and so on. We all believe, moreover, that it is the acquisition of written language which has permitted the development within some of these cultures of philosophy, science and literature (see Goody, 1977). We all believe that this development is made possible by the ability to transfer information through the use of language, which enables man to utilise the knowledge of his forebears, and the knowledge of other men in other cultures. We shall call the language which is used to convey 'factual or , propositional information' primarily transactional language. In I primarily transactional language we assume that what the speaker I (or writer) has primarily in mind is the efficient transference of information. Language used in such a situation is primarily 'mess~e-0-fiented'. It is important that the recipient gets the informative detail correct. Thus if a policeman gives directions to a traveller, a doctor tells a nurse how to administer medicine to a patient, a householder puts in an insurance claim, a shop assistant explains the relative merits of two types of knitting wool, or a scientist describes an experiment, in each case it matters that the speaker should make what he says (or-writes)\_clear. There will be unfortunate (even disastrous) consequences in the real world if the message is not properly understood by the recipient.

### *The interactional view*

Whereas linguists, philosophers of language and psycholinguists have, in general, paid particular attention to the use of language for the transmission of 'factual or propositional information', sociologists and sociolinguists have been particularly concerned with the use of language to establish and maintain social relationships. In sociological and anthropological literature the *phatic* use of language has been frequently commented on - particularly the conventional use of language to open talk-exchanges and to close them. Conversational analysts have been particularly concerned with the use of language to negotiate role-relationships, peer-solidarity, the exchange of turns in a conversation, the-saving of face of both speaker and hearer (cf. Labov, 1972a; Brown and Levinson, 1978; Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974; Lakoff, 1973). It is clearly the case that a great deal of -- everyday human interaction is characterised by the primarily interpersonal rather than the primarily transactional use of language. When two strangers are standing shivering at a bus-stop in an icy wind and one turns to the other and says 'My goodness, it's cold', it is difficult to suppose that the primary intention of the speaker is to convey information. It seems much more reasonable to suggest that the speaker is indicating a readiness to be friendly and to talk. Indeed a great deal of ordinary everyday conversation appears to consist of one individual commenting on something which is present to both him and his listener. The weather is of course the most quoted example of this in British English. However a great deal of-casual conversation contains phrases and echoes of phrases which appear more to be-intended as contributions to a conversation than to be taken as instances of information-giving. Thus a woman on a bus describing the way a mutual friend has been behaving, getting out of bed too soon after an operation, concludes her turn in the conversation by saying:

*Aye, she's an awfy woman. (awfy = Sc awful)*

This might be taken as an informative summary. Her neighbour then says reflectively (having been supportively uttering *aye, aye* throughout the first speaker's turn):

*Aye, she's an awfy woman.*

Pirsig (1976 : 3 13) remarks of such a conversation: 'the conversation's pace intrigues me. It isn't intended to go anywhere, just fill Introduction: linguistic forms and functions the time of day . . . on and on and on with no point or purpose other than to fill the time, like the rocking of a chair.' What seems to be primarily at issue here is the sharing of a common point of view. Brown & Levinson point out the importance for social relationships of establishing common ground and agreeing on points of view, and illustrate the lengths to which speakers in different cultures will go to maintain an appearance of ' agreement, and they remark 'agreement may also be stressed by; *repeating* part or all of what the preceding speaker has said' (1978: "17).

Whereas, as we shall note, written language is, in general, used for primarily transactional purposes, it is possible to find written genres whose purpose is not primarily to inform but to maintain social relationships - 'thank you' letters, love letters, games of consequences, etc.

Brown and Yule (1983) suggest that language has two main functions : interactional and transactional. The interactional function is concerned with the maintenance of social relationships - for example, if two people pass in the street and say ...

*A : Hi, all right?*

*B: Yeah, fine thanks.*

... the function of the exchange is purely interactional - it serves only as an acknowledgement of the relationship, and the answer is conventional - it may not even actually be true.

Transactional discourse, on the other hand, is concerned with the transmission of information. If at the greengrocer's I say ..

*A: Two pounds of cherry tomatoes.*

... it is important that I transmit, and the greengrocer understands, the information accurately : so that for instance I don't end up with three kilos of plum tomatoes. If the greengrocer has any doubts he might ask for further information

*A: Two pounds of cherry tomatoes.*

*B : These ones, or the ones next to the potatoes?*

*A: The ones next to the potatoes*

*B : That's £5*

The "purely interactional" example given above is an example of phatic communion. Most language is, of course, not "purely" transactional or interactional but a mix of both, and for this reason Brown and Yule (ibid) suggest that exchanges are generally better described as *primarily* transactional or interactional. Social chat will contain some information - eg if I'm telling you about my last holiday - but it remains primarily interactional in terms of its function. It doesn't really matter if you don't retain the details. And transactional exchanges will often be interspersed with elements which are there to serve an interactional function. Compare the exchange above with :

*A : Good morning. Can I have two pounds of cherry tomatoes.*

*B : Would you like these ones, or the ones next to the potatoes?*

*A: The ones next to the potatoes please.*

*B: Here you are. That's £5 please.*

*A: Thank you.*

None of the underlined elements are essential for the transmission of information, even though the exchange remains primarily transactional. They serve an interactional function.

Both primarily interactional and transactional language may involve either long or short turns. Eg:

Transactional long turn - a presentation or lecture.

Transactional short turns - the greengrocer's conversation above.

Interactional long turns - recounting an anecdote

Interactional short turns - social chat.

***Exercise 1 Choose one of the following topics. Act out a role play with your partner. Tell whether it's a transactional or an interactional talk.***

✓ Doctor – patient

✓ Customer –bank

✓ Teacher – pupil

✓ Phoning mum

✓ Visiting a friend to hospital

✓ Chatting at a bus stop

✓ Talking to the dog



## Lesson 25 Written and Spoken Discourse

Discourse analysts have made a clear distinction between written and spoken discourse, and gradually they have become aware of the need to study each separately. Thus, there are differences between written and spoken discourse in terms of the regularities governing each of them. Spoken language involves some problems which are absent in written discourse because in written discourse, the writer has usually a little time to think about what to say and how to say it. So, the spoken language involves a degree of spontaneity that is absent in the written language. For that, in spoken language, the speaker may make false starts or slips of the tongue which can be corrected in the ongoing speech. When the speaker utters a given verbal account, it is most probably not preplanned unless when the speech given is presented in terms of a lecture based on a written record. Furthermore, the spoken language can be adjusted according to the interlocutor by the use of some intonational and paralinguistic features available to the speaker. The speaker also can ensure comprehensibility by modifying the utterances then to communicative situation, wherever the interlocutor shows a sign of comprehension (Brown and Yule, 1983).<sup>20</sup> On the other hand, in the written discourse, the writer has also the right to modify some written language where it is necessary, as well as, he has the possibility to check some words in a dictionary wherever he need and to cross others too. Brown and Yule (1983) also emphasize the fact that the written discourse is encountered by the reader, the writer would not be able to clarify the intended meaning any more and thus he can be doubtful about what the receiver can intend from the message conveyed. Cook expressed very explicitly the differences between the spoken and the written discourse emphasizing on their characteristics. Spoken language, as has often been pointed out, happens in time, and must therefore be produced and processed on line. There is no going back and changing or restructuring our words as there is in writing; there is often no time to pause and think, and while we are taking or listening, we cannot stand back and view the discourse in spatial or diagrammatic terms ... (Cook, 1989:115) Although the differences found between written and spoken language, Nunan (1993) pointed that ,the spoken and written text share the same function of characteristics as to get things done , to provide information and to entertain. However, the difference between them is the context; i.e., The situation to what, how and when the text is performed .The written text for example is needed to communicate with people who are not at the same setting, or for those occasions on which a permanent or semi-permanent record is required. Nunan (1993) emphasizes that the characteristic of written and spoken language differ on the basis of the concept of “genre”, where these differences can be observed within the sentences at the level of text structure. Unlike Nunan, Brown and Yule (1983) pointed that there are some differences between speech and writing in terms of language function whereas, spoken language is designed to establish relationship with people, so it has initially an “interactional” function; written language is designed for the

transference of information and so has a “transactional” function; 21 written language is designed for the transference of information and so has a “transactional” function. The distinction between written and spoken language highlights some regularities governing both of them. Text linguists are concerned with “What norms or rules do people adhere to when creating texts? Are texts structured according to recurring principles, is there a hierarchy of units comparable to acts, moves and exchanges, and are there conventional ways of opening and closing texts?”(McCarthy, 1991: 25). The answers to these questions bring out insights about the well formedness of a written text which can be raised in the grammatical regularities, where grammatical cohesion may display cohesive texts. We shall consider some grammatical regularities observable in well-formed written texts, and how the structuring of sentences has implications for units such as paragraphs, and for the progression of whole texts. We shall also look at how the grammar of English offers a limited set of options for creating surface links between the clauses and sentences of a text, otherwise known as cohesion. Basically, most text display links from sentence to sentence in terms of grammatical features such as pronominalisation ,ellipsis (the omission of otherwise expected elements because they are retrievable from the previous text or context ) and conjunction of various kinds . The resources available for grammatical cohesion can be listed finitely and compared across language for translatability and distribution in real texts. (McCarthy, 1991:25)

***Exercise 1 Analysis of written language. Here is a letter that is mostly authentic (only the names and addresses have been changed). Read the letter and complete the analysis task below.***

5 February 2009  
Anna Martin  
1College Street  
Schooltown

Dear Anna,  
Thank you for sending in your application and test for our TESOL Course.  
We are sorry to tell you that your work in the test is not at a high enough level for you to follow a TESOL Course. We need to be sure that the level of English of students on these courses is high because part of the course involves teaching your classmates, some of whom will be at an advanced level.

We feel you need to spend some more time studying general English to improve your English language skills and think about applying for a course at a later date.  
Thank you again for the interest you have shown in our courses.

Yours sincerely,  
Emily Smith Director of  
Studies

*Analysis task: Numbers 1 to 8 are language examples from the letter. Letters a to h are labels for these examples. Match the examples to the labels, then place them in the correct table below: 'key features of a formal letter to a student' or 'features of problem = solution patterning'.*

	Key features of a formal letter to a student	Examples from letter
Label		

	Features of problem - solution patterning	Examples from letter
Label		

#### Labels

- a. Full name and address included at the beginning of the letter.
- b. This outlines the background **situation**.
- c. The salutation uses the first name of the student.
- d. This is used throughout the letter by the writer to indicate that the organisation and not the individual is responding to the student.
- e. This outlines the key **problem** in the letter.
- f. This outlines a **solution** to the problem.
- g. This signals to the reader that the information that follows will be some kind of problem.
- h. This sign off is used because although the letter is official, the writer of the letter knows the name of the person she is writing to.

#### Examples

1. The second paragraph (beginning "We are sorry ...").
2. Yours sincerely,
3. The pronoun 'we' used in the letter.
4. The third paragraph (beginning "We feel you ...")
5. Anna Martin, 1 College Hill, Schooltown
6. the first paragraph (beginning "Thank you for ...")
7. Dear Anna,
8. the word "sorry" (paragraph 2)

***Exercise 2 Analysing spoken language. Below is a piece of authentic spoken language:***

**Line 1. A:** What's different about Tokyo to Auckland?

**Line 2. B:** Well, for a start, it's ... **um** ... I don't know if it's actually bigger in size, but

**Line 3.** bigger population-wise. **Of course**, it's a lot more crowded and a lot busier.

**Line 4. Obviously** the transport system is a lot different – there *is* a transport system **as**

**Line 5. opposed to** Auckland where there's ... **well**, there are buses, **but** not

**Line 6.** as efficient as Tokyo.

***Letters 1 to 8 are pieces of language taken from the text (they have also been highlighted in the text). Letters a to h give definitions or explanations of these bits of language. Match the definitions to the pieces of language.***

Language from the text	Definitions
1. well (line 2)	a. making a contrast
2. for a start (line 2)	b. showing you think the listener already knows this information
3. um (line 2)	c. starting a new topic
4. of course (line 3)	d. adjusting information in a sentence
5. obviously (line 4)	e. showing that you expect the listener to understand because the idea is clear
6. as opposed to (lines 4 – 5)	f. indicating you are going to make your first point
7. well (line 5)	g. introducing a different idea
8. but (line 5)	h. hesitating

***Exercise 3 Creating your own spoken language samples. Letters a to f describe steps in an approach to creating an authentic or semi-authentic recording that you could use in the classroom for the purposes of analysing spoken language with students. Put these steps in the correct order.***

Steps to creating an authentic recording	Order
<b>a.</b> Transcribe the excerpt.	
<b>b.</b> Give students a language task that gets them to notice some useful keyfeatures in the excerpt. You don't need to focus on everything that's there.	
<b>c.</b> Listen to the conversation and find an excerpt that exemplifies someinteresting features of spoken interaction.	
<b>d.</b> Give students the transcript.	
<b>e.</b> Record some native speakers having a conversation or set up an improvised role play of a particular situation.	
<b>f.</b> In class treat the excerpt as a normal listening lesson and get studentsto understand the gist and more detailed information in the text.	

## Lesson 26 Texture and Textuality

Texture and textuality According to Halliday and Hassan (1976) a text is a text rather than a mere sequence of sentences. This is due to the linguistic features that cause sentences to stick together; i.e. what makes sentences constitute a text depends on “cohesive relationships” within and between sentences which create “texture”: «A text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text [...]. The texture is provided by the cohesive relations » (1976:2), what makes any length of text meaningful and coherent has been termed” texture”. Texture is the basis for unity and semantic interdependence without text, and text without texture would just be a group of isolated sentences with no relation to one another. Moreover, cohesion relates to the “semantic ties” within text where by a ties is made when there is some dependent link between items that combine to create meaning. Therefore, texture is created within text when there are properties of coherence and cohesion outside of the apparent grammatical structure of the text.

Texture otherwise referred to as textuality denotes the “property of being a text”. Whereby cohesion seems as a major contributor to them .Thus, textuality defined by DeBeaugrande and Dressler (1981) in terms of communicative function the text is supposed to realize. Textuality is determined by some factors which depend on the participants, the intended message and the setting of occurrence ...etc. Beaugrande and Dressler sum up these factors in seven standards of textuality in which they can fulfil the communicative function of any text. These standards are:

**-Cohesion:** it is the first standard of textuality; it refers to the surface relations between the sentences that create a text .i.e. to create connected sentences within a sequence. The formal surface of the text components works according to grammatical forms and conventions .It helps the reader /hearer to sort out the meaning and uses.

**-Coherence:** it refers to the relations held between the underlying surface text, which is made of concepts and relations and the amount of their relevance to the central thought of the text. Moreover, the concepts refer to the knowledge which can be activated in the mind whereas relations refer to the connection between the surface texts (concept).

**-Intentionality:** it refers to the text producer’s attitudes that the set of linguistic resources of the text should handle the text in a way that fulfil the procedures intentions and communicates the message to be conveyed in an appropriate and successful way.

**-Acceptability:** it concerns to the text receivers’ attitude that the set of linguistic resources the text should provide the receiver an ability to perceive any relevance of the text in question. - **Informativity:** it refers to the extent to which the presented information is known or not to the text receiver; i.e., it refers to the newness or the givenness of the information presented in the text. A text is said to be informative, no matter to its form and content

**- Situationality:** it refers to the factors that make up a text relevant to a situation of occurrence; i.e., it is crucial for cohesion where it can determine what is said, by whom, why, when and where.

**- Intertextuality:** it concerns the factors which make the use of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more. A text, in fact, belongs to a wider receiver is actually able to encounter the intended message.

**Exercise 1** Put these sentences below and write a cohesive, coherent text of eight sentences and fewer.

**George Orwell**

He was born in India.

He was born in 1903.

His real name was Eric Blair.

His father worked in the Bengal  
Civil Service.

He went to Eton.

He left Eton in 1921.

He joined the Imperial Police  
in Burma.

He spent five years working in the  
police force.

He returned to Europe.

He worked in a number of  
menial jobs.

He wrote a book about these  
experiences.

The book was called *Down and Out in Paris and London*.

He fought on the republican side in the Spanish Civil War.

He wrote a book about this experience.

The book was called *Homage to Catalonia*.

It was published in 1938.

He also wrote novels.

His best known novels are *Animal Farm* and *Nineteen Eighty-Four*.

*Animal Farm* was published in 1945.

*Nineteen Eighty-Four* was published in 1949.

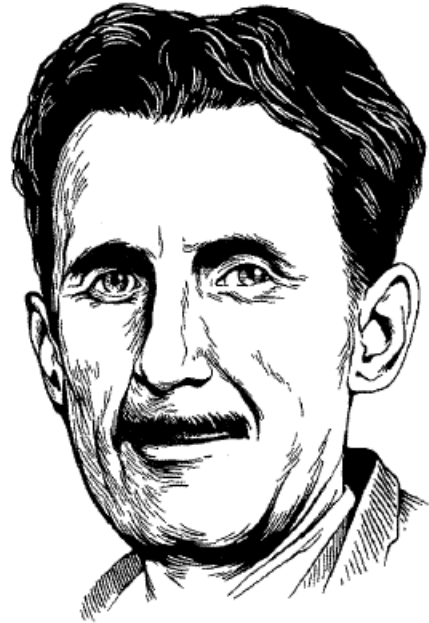
*Animal Farm* is a satire on communism.

*Nineteen Eighty-Four* describes a nightmare future world.

He died in 1950.

He died from tuberculosis.

He was 47.



## Lesson 27 Lexical Cohesion

While the terms ‘cohesion’ and ‘coherence’ tend to crop up together in the literature, the relationship between the two is a contested one: for example, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2) suggest that cohesion brings about coherence. One thing that all writers would agree on, however, is that the use of lexical cohesive ties does not, necessarily, make a text more coherent, or better than another. A text lacking in lexical cohesive ties may be better organized, or the points may have better support than a text with more lexical ties. Having made this important qualification putting lexical cohesion in its place. English has become a lingua franca. It means that English is widely applied in many countries as means of communication. In Indonesia, the English language is the first foreign language that can be taught in Elementary School start from the first grade as a local content subject. Moreover, nowadays English language teaching and learning is not only implemented in elementary school level but also in Kindergarten level.

This is usually referred to as the concept of cohesion: where by relationships between different elements in a text- written or spoken are made explicit. In other words, cohesion can be regarded as is a textual quality attained through the use of grammatical and lexical elements that enable readers to perceive or understand semantic relationships existing both within and between sentences. Grammatical cohesion concerns such matters such as reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunction. All of the facilities mentioned here are published in the market. Since the needs of English books are abundant, publisher produce many books which are written in English. Unfortunately, many people do not comprehend the English written books. This emerges the needs of translation products. Therefore, the publisher produce books which are written in two languages: the first language is in native language and the second one is in foreign language. It is also called as bilingual books. Nowadays, the availability of the bilingual books is abundant. But the research concerning this phenomenon is still limited.

The aims of this paper is to use linguistic tools that are useful in analyzing and understanding any written text. The principles of referencing, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion stated by Halliday and Hasan (1976:304) were applied on the selected short story to reveal the significance of the cohesive elements that are present in the text which provide semantic links among the words, phrases and sentences for the interpretation of meanings that exists within the text thus furnishing the texture of the text and transforming it into a piece of discourse. Understanding how cohesion functions within the text to create semantic links could be beneficial for students of English as a second or foreign language to help decode meaning

Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of one element is dependent upon another one in the text. Cohesion plays a special role in the creation of text because it can provide continuity that exists between one part of a text and another. And readers or listeners can rely on the continuity provided by cohesion to fill in the missing information, which are not present in the text but are necessary to its interpretation. Halliday points out repeatedly in his book the fact that it is the underlying semantic relation that actual has the cohesive power rather than the particular cohesive marker Halliday and Hasan (1976:229). Nevertheless, he insists that it is the presence of the cohesive markers that constitute the texture.

Lexical cohesion is about meaning in text. It concerns the way in which lexical items relate to each other and to other cohesive devices so that textual continuity is created. The seminal work on lexical cohesion is Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) *Cohesion in English*, where it is nevertheless given the shortest treatment of the five types of cohesion identified by the authors. According to Halliday and



Hasan (1976:318), lexical cohesion concerns two distinct but related aspects: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is “the repetition of a lexical item, or the occurrence of asynonym of some kind, in the context of reference; that is, where the two occurrences have the same referent” Halliday & Hasan (1976:318–9), while collocation is the use of “a word that is in some way associated with another word in the preceding text, because it is a direct repetition of it, or is in some sense synonymous with it, or tends to occur in the same lexical environment” (Halliday & Hasan 1976:319). Collocations may include any words that are in some sort of semantic relationship, although Halliday and Hasan (1976:284) draw special attention to superordinates, hyponyms and antonyms. It is to be noted that the conception of collocation, which is exemplified as operating primarily across clauses, is different from the current understanding of the term in corpus linguistics, as is illustrated in some of the contributions to the present issue

Lexical cohesion in this paper, mainly based on the taxonomy of Halliday and Hasan, is subdivided into six types: 1) Repetition 2) Synonymy 3) Antonymy 4) Superordinate 5) General noun 6) Collocation

### **1) Repetition**

According to Paltidge (2000:134) Repetition refers to words that are repeated in the text, as well as words that have changed to reflect tense or number such as feel and felt (reflecting a change in tense) and feeling and feelings (reflecting a change in number).

Repetition is a standard way of achieving lexical cohesion, particularly in science texts, the fact remains that there can be a lot of, what Ting (2003:6) calls, ‘redundant repetition’ in students’ writing. From marking point of view, it may be that teachers are hesitant to draw attention to redundant repetition in student writing: repeating a word does not impede understanding, and neither is overuse necessarily misuse.

### **2) Synonymy**

Synonymy refers to the relationship between words that are similar in meaning such as customers and patrons. Inkpen and Hirst (2006:224– 225) note three types of differences between synonyms/near synonyms: denotational differences, where there is a difference in meaning, for example ‘lie’ is deliberate, ‘misrepresent’ indirect, attitudinal differences for example ‘thin’ is neutral, ‘skinny’ pejorative, and stylistic differences for example in formality: ‘cops’ and ‘police’. True synonyms are few and far between, and research, particularly in corpus linguistics, has helped us discover the different distributions of ‘apparent’ synonyms in different genres, the semantic prosodies that these words have (for example ‘bring about’ tends to be used in positive contexts, ‘cause’ when the consequence is negative), and the different collocation patterns in which synonyms occur. Given such a state of affairs, simply encouraging students to use synonyms for key words in their writing, rather than repeating them, is, in effect, an invitation to commit semantic suicide.

We would not usually expect our students to be sensitive to the above noted points, and yet such knowledge is required to use synonyms successfully. Other than their use in definitions, superordinates (i.e. words which ‘contain’ other words, for example ‘vehicle’ is a superordinate of ‘car’) receive very little attention in the classroom. While many students have heard of the word ‘synonym’, ‘superordinates’ (also called hypernyms) and ‘subordinates’ (hyponyms) are not words typically heard in the EFL writing classroom. It is usually the case that the more specific word is used first in a sentence or text, and then superordinates are used later on, as they contain less information. This being so, subordinates and superordinates cannot be simply switched round in a text.

### **3) Antonymy**

Antonymy refers to opposite or contrastive meanings such as good and bad, happy and sad Paltridge (2000:134). Examples of collocations from Halliday and Hasan (1976:285) are antonyms such as like and hate, wet and dry. In other words, pairs that are drawn from the same lexical set, such as basement and roof, car and brake, mouth and chin.

#### **4) Superordinate**

Definition of superordinates is words which ‘contain’ otherwords, for example ‘vehicle’ is a superordinate of ‘car’) receive little attention in the classroom. While many students have heard of the word ‘synonym’, ‘superordinates’ (also called hypernyms) and ‘subordinates’ (hyponyms) are not words typically heard in the EFL writing classroom. It is usually the case that the more specific word is used first in a sentence or text, and then superordinates are used later on, as they contain less information. This being so, subordinates and superordinates cannot be simply switched round in a text. For example, where ‘Brazil’ and ‘country’ have been switched around from the original text, Brazil seems to refer to a different country to that referred to in the opening words.

#### **5) General word**

General words the ‘general word’ class of Halliday and Hasan overlaps, to a certain extent, with more recent research on nouns, for example Flowerdew’s signalling nouns. These nouns (for example ‘achievement’, ‘problem’, ‘situation’) can be used in a number of ways and they are a useful way for students to refer back to a particular event/state of affairs referred to earlier on (anaphorically) in their writing. The use of lexical cohesive ties has been found to be a significant differentiating factor between native speaker and non native speaker writing, and while it is tempting to postpone a focus on good writing style in the classroom to advanced level classes, this is probably not the best course of action to take. While lexical cohesion is a complex area, and fraught with difficulty, it has been suggested in this paper that there are certain exercise types and awareness-raising activities that can make the subject a rewarding one for students and teachers to explore together in class: there are ways to traverse the minefield of lexical cohesion— indeed, some quite interesting ways.

#### **6) Collocation**

The collocation describes associations between words that tend to co-occur, such as, combinations of adjectives and nouns, as in quality product, snide remarks and discerning customers. It also includes the relationship between verbs and nouns such as eat and food, and pairs of nouns such as friends and neighbours. Collocation “situations happens” is not typical in native speaker corpora—more frequent collocates of ‘situation’ would be ‘arise’ and ‘occur’, and the plural ‘situations’, as already noted, is not very common .

Regarding the second means of achieving lexical cohesion (collocation), Halliday and Hasan (1976:284) define this as ‘cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur’. As Tanskanen (2006:12) notes, collocation is not always considered to be a type of lexical cohesion, and it will not be considered as playing a role in creating lexical cohesion in this paper. However, collocation knowledge will be referred to as a specific type of knowledge which students need to have to enable them to use reiterative lexical cohesive devices correctly.

Halliday and Hasan’s model of lexical cohesion was developed further by Hasan, in part of her contribution to Halliday and Hasan, where he developed the notions of repetition, synonymy, hyponymy and meronymy. Continuing within this tradition, Martin developed a framework for a more detailed account of lexical relations, including Hasan’s categories. In addition collocation “was factored out into various kinds of ‘nuclear’ relation” (Martin 2001:38), which consisted of elaboration, extension, and enhancement (as developed by Halliday 1994) for the clause complex. Martin used

the term 'ideation' to refer to lexical relations "as they are deployed to construe institutional activity." (Martin 2001:38).

In Halliday and Hasan's (1976: 4) influential work *Cohesion in English*, the authors explain that cohesion is a semantic concept. They divide cohesion into two broad areas: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. The former includes reference for example three blind mice, substitution for example: My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharper one, ellipsis for example: Which hat will you wear? This is the best, and conjunction for example use of the words but, yet, so, etc. The bulk of Halliday and Hasan's book concerns itself with discussing these types of cohesive ties, and books aimed at developing academic reading and writing skills have given considerable attention to reference and conjunction and their roles in helping texts hang together. Even though lexical cohesion is the more pervasive in creating textual cohesion.

## **2) Elements forming lexical cohesive relations**

In this section we focus on the items that are selected for the investigation of lexical cohesion. The major questions concern the part of speech of the items and multi-word units. The question of which parts of speech to include in the analysis, is highly relevant in lexical cohesion. Certain relations tend to be realized with items of a certain part of speech. For instance, while collocation relations often contain verbs, hyponymy/hyperonymy and meronymy/holonymy are typical meaning relations between nouns. According to Berzlánovich et al (2008: 18) makes a clear distinction between grammatical items (members of a closed system, for example, personal pronouns and demonstratives) and lexical items (members of an open set) according to their contribution to cohesion.

According to Plag (2002:90) declares that 'affix' as a bound morpheme that attaches to bases. Although this seems like a clear definition, there are at least two major problems. First, it is not always easy to say whether something is a bound morpheme or a free morpheme, and second, it is not always obvious whether something should be regarded as a root or an affix. There are two elements forming word such as suffix and prefix:

### **a) Suffix**

Nominal suffixes are often employed to derive abstract nouns from verbs, adjectives and nouns. Such abstract nouns can denote actions, results of actions, or other related concepts, but also properties, qualities and the like. Another large group of nominal suffixes derives person nouns of various sorts. Very often, these meanings are extended to other, related senses so that practically each suffix can be shown to be able to express more than one meaning, with the semantic domains of different suffixes often overlapping. For example: *naugh+ty= naughty*.

### **b) Prefix**

The prefixes of English can be classified semantically into the following groups. First, there is a large group that quantify over their base words meaning, for example, 'one' (*uni-*, *unilateral*, *unification*), 'twice or two' (*bi-*, *bilateral*). In the following we look in more detail at the negative prefixes and two of their close relatives, *mis-* and *anti-*. The negative prefixes appear to be more complex in their distribution and behavior than most of the other suffixes and their domains overlap considerably.

Moreover, differences in the word forms lead to difficulties which lexical cohesive relation to choose. Previous studies unanimously treat different inflectional and derivational word forms with an identical lemma as repetition links agree with the decision to treat inflectional variants as repetitions, as the inflectional affix only slightly modifies the meaning (e.g., *high* – *highest*, *type-* *types*). However, derivational word forms need further consideration in our project, as derivational affixes may dramatically change the meaning of the word. So far we have treated different derivational word forms as repetitions (e.g., *ster* 'star' – *sterretje* 'little star'). Similarly, *Earth* and *earthly* form a repetition

link Berzalanovich (2008:18). Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 572) follow the same approach, but they note that it is hard to decide in certain cases of derivational variants (e.g., *rational* – *rationalize* – *ration* – *reason*) if they are “close enough to be considered the same item”. They argue that derivational variants based on a still productive derivational process can be regarded as identical. This might suggest that a distinction could be made between derivational forms on the basis of the productivity of the affix.

However, the example of *write* and *writing1* (writing as a process) and *writing2* (writing as the product of the process). While for *write* and *writing1* a repetition link may easily be assigned, *write* and *writing2* fitting into our frame concept may be ranked under collocation. In order to make a final decision on the status of derivational forms, an inventory is being built from the corpus in our project. We argue that the meaning of a compound is always more than the sum of the meaning of its components. With this we do not deny that the construction of the compounds is motivated by the meaning of their components, and the structure of many compounds is more transparent (e.g., *high* + *land* – *highland*) or less transparent (e.g., *high* + *way* – *highway*). In spite of such differences we treat all compounds in the same way in order to maintain systematicity in our analysis. Hence, for example, the compounds *dwarfstar* – *dwarf phase* do not create a repetition link (although their first components are identical), but looking at the meaning of the compounds as a whole we take the lexical cohesive relation between them as collocation. Eventually, our criteria for the selection of the items are semantic. The identity of form is relevant exclusively for the distinction between repetition and synonymy. For this reason, instances of homonymy (e.g., *light* adjective – *light* noun) are not included in our analysis either.

### ***Exercise 1 Find the most important repeated words and phrases in the text:***

A new friendlier style of Commonwealth heads of government meeting was promised yesterday. Chief Emeka Anyaoku, the Commonwealth secretary general, announced that the proceedings, which open formally tomorrow, will include a charity cricket match.

Promised participants include John Major, Bob Hawke, the Australian prime minister, Nawaz Sharif, Pakistan’s prime minister and Michael Manley, the Jamaican prime minister.

But away from sport, there were signs that British hopes of improving the Commonwealth’s human rights record may run into snags.

### ***Exercise 2 Find near-synonyms in the text for the highlighted words:***

Over the past thirty years, **research** in the health **arena** has attracted psychologists, anthropologists and sociologists. The **focus** of psychological research in this area is concerned with individual movies, attitudes and beliefs in relation to both health and **illness**. Anthropological studies, however, are concerned with culture and healthcare. Such studies concentrate on a conception of disease as a cultural product and on the way social and cultural life in the past affect belief about health and illness. In sociological studies, the emphasis is similar but focused more on social relation within a particular social structure with respect to medical care.

***Exercise 3 Let's find synonyms and antonyms in the following text:***

**An apple a day keeps the doctor away**

In most advanced societies, the emphasis today in health care is on prevention, not just treatment or cure. This has shifted the concerns of medicine to teaching people how to be healthy. Prevention aims at relatively uninterrupted good health for most people by avoiding serious illness. Doctors recommend healthy eating and regular exercise-fruit and vegetables and aerobic exercise every day. Of course, even people who stay well and disease-free may experience conditions which cause them serious pain, severe aches or acute discomfort. Hopefully, a high level of health means that rather than experiencing a physical decline, they make rapid improvement.

***Exercise 4 Find the superordinate word amongst these related words:***

Syllabus, computers, teaching practice, tertiary level, administrative tasks, assessment, textbooks, teaching methodology, diploma, classroom, tutorial, student discipline, semester breaks, student union



***Exercise 5 Find hierarchies in the following passage***

**A lecturer's work is never done**

The work of a lecturer at tertiary institutions today is becoming much more demanding. The increase in teaching hours makes it even more difficult to manage the very different kinds of teaching they do-the mass lecture, the small group tutorial and one-to-one sessions. Their administrative load has also grown and unlike secondary school teachers, they must manage without a syllabus or textbook. Their biggest challenge however, is to continue to produce high-level scholarly research in these new circumstances.

***Exercise 6 In this short text, the writer has often misused the word strongly. Correct the wrong collocations using adverbs from the box. Use each adverb once only.***  
**bitterly    strictly    deeply    utterly**

Everyone was complaining strongly when they heard about the new plan. People were strongly shocked to hear that children would be strongly forbidden to use the sports ground and most people were strongly opposed to the new rules. Even people who normally never expressed an opinion were strongly appalled by the proposals.

***Exercise 7 Consolidation. Find types of lexical cohesion in the following passage.***

**I have a dream – Martin Luther King**

I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character.

I have a dream today!

I have a dream that one day, down in Alabama, with its vicious racists, with its governor having his lips dripping with the words of "interposition" and "nullification" -- one day right there in Alabama little black boys and black girls will be able to join hands with little white boys and white girls as sisters and brothers.

I have a dream today!

I have a dream that one day every valley shall be exalted, and every hill and mountain shall be made low, the rough places will be made plain, and the crooked places will be made straight; "and the glory of the Lord shall be revealed and all flesh shall see it together."

## Lesson 28 Grammatical Cohesion. Reference

Halliday and Hassan (1976) provide us with the basic categories of grammatical cohesion pointing that we can systematize this concept by classifying it into a small number of distinct categories, they refer to them as: reference, substitution ellipsis and conjunction; these categories have a theoretical basis and specific types of grammatical cohesion, which has also provide a practical means for describing and analyzing texts.

### Reference

One of the options that grammar of English offers creating surface links between sentences is reference. Halliday and Hassan (1976) point out that reference features can not be semantically interpreted without referring to some other features in the text .Pronouns is the most common linguistic element as referring devices in a textual environment. However, there are other linguistic elements used to fulfill the same function such us: articles, demonstratives and comparatives.

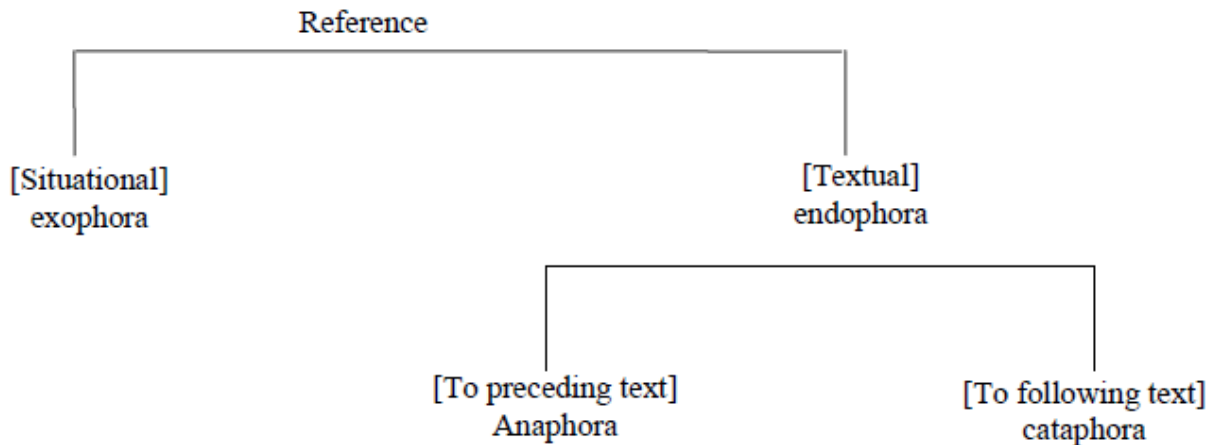
Reference can be accounted as “exophoric” or “endophoric” functions. This is because simply when we refer to a given item, we expect the reader to interpret it by either looking forward, backward and outward. Exophoric involves exercises that require the reader to look out of the text in order to interpret the referent. The reader, thus, has to look beyond or out of the text with a shared world between the reader and the writer. “Exophoric reference directs the receiver ‘out of ‘the text and into an assumed shared world” (McCarthy, 1991: 41). For example, ‘that must have cost a lot of money’ in this example we have to look out of the situation to retrieve the meaning of the sentences (Halliday and Hassan, 1976).

Endophoric function refers to the text itself in its interpretation. Brown and Yule (1983: 192) point that “where their interpretation lies within a text they are called ‘endophoric’ 27 relations and do from cohesive ties within the text”. Endophoric reference is itself two classes: to start with, anaphoric relations is all kinds of activities which involve looking back in texts to find the referent .For example: “it rained day and night for two weeks, the basement flooded and every thing was under water, It spoilt all our calculations” ( McCarthy 1991: 36). Here the first “it” refers to the discourse it self, the second “it” refers to the event of two weeks, or the fact that it rained or flooded; i.e., the whole situation rather than an event in particular, whereas cataphoric relation looks forward for their interpretation, To exemplify the cataphoric reference “she was terribly afraid .All kinds of black memories of her childhood came up to her mind. She could not fight against them as had been her custom because simply Mary Brown was dying at that moment”.

This short text displays a number of cataphoric reference items which involve looking forward for determining what they refer to. In this example, all the pronouns (she /her) refer to Mary Brown. In this cataphoric reference, the referent has been withheld to the last sentence in order to engage the reader’s /the listener’s attention.

Thus, Brown and Yule (1983) state that exophoric and endophoric co- reference need a processor based on mental representation .On the one hand we refer to the world, and on the other hand we refer to the world created by the discourse.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) summarize the types of references in the following diagram:



**Exercise 1** The underlined reference words in the two paragraphs below are either "anaphoric" (referring upward to previously mentioned words), "cataphoric" (referring downward to subsequent words), or "exophoric" (referring to something outside the text). Identify whether the reference words are anaphoric, cataphoric, or exophoric by selecting your choice in the pull-down menu next to each item.

For many years, East German people devised <sup>1</sup>**creative ways** to sneak out of East Germany. Some people dug tunnels; <sup>2</sup>**others** tried crashing through checkpoints with cars, trucks, or busses; <sup>3</sup>**still others** flew out in small airplanes or balloons. One woman tied herself to the bottom of a car and passed through a checkpoint unnoticed. And one family sewed fake Russian uniforms for <sup>4</sup>**themselves**; then, they pretended to be Russian soldiers and simply drove through a checkpoint. Some desperate people tried scrambling over a barbed-wire fence or a wall. <sup>5</sup>**These people** were often shot.

On 21 December 1972, <sup>6</sup>**the Basic Treaty** was signed by East and West Germany, and relations between <sup>7</sup>**the two countries** started to improve. During the next two decades, they began to cooperate with <sup>8</sup>**each other** by sharing cultural and commercial <sup>9</sup>**activities** such as arts exchange programs and joint business ventures. However, East Germans were still dissatisfied, for <sup>10</sup>**their** living standard was lower than <sup>11</sup>**that** of West Germany. <sup>12</sup>**Their** industries produced inferior goods, and <sup>13</sup>**their country** was polluted from inferior mining methods and careless industrial waste.

1. creative ways \_\_\_\_\_
2. others \_\_\_\_\_
3. still \_\_\_\_\_
4. themselves \_\_\_\_\_
5. these people \_\_\_\_\_
6. the Basic Treaty \_\_\_\_\_
7. the two countries \_\_\_\_\_
8. each other \_\_\_\_\_
9. activities \_\_\_\_\_



- 10. their \_\_\_\_\_
- 11. that \_\_\_\_\_
- 12. their \_\_\_\_\_
- 13. their country \_\_\_\_\_

## Lesson 29 Substitution

Halliday and Hassan (1976) state that substitution takes place when one feature (in a text) replaces a previous word or expression, for instance: “I left my pen at home, do you have one?” In this example, “one” is replaced or substitution for “pen”.

It is important to mention that substitution and reference are different in what and where they operate, thus substitution is concerned with relations related with wording .Whereas reference is concerned with relations related with meaning. Substitution is a way to avoid repetition in the text itself; however, reference needs to retrieve its meaning from the situational textual occurrence.

*In terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic form.* (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 89)

As such, we can substitute nouns; verbs and clauses .Kennedy (2003) points out there are three types of substitution nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution.

**Nominal substitution:** where the noun or a nominal group can be replaced by a noun. “One” / “ones” always operate as a head of... nominal group.

*e.g. “there are some new tennis balls in the baf. These ones have lost their bounce”.*

In this example, “tennis balls” is replaced by the item “ones”.

**Verbal substitution:** the verb or a verbal group can be replaced by another verb which is “do”. This functions as a head of verbal group, and it is usually placed at the end of the group.

*e.g. A: Annie says you drink too much.*

*B: So do you?*

Here, “do” substitutes “drink too much”.

**Clausal substitution:** where a clause can be usually substituted by “so” or “not”.

*e.g. A: It is going to rain?*

*B: I think so.*

In this example, the clause “going to rain” is substituted for “so”.

**Exercise 1** say what types of substitutes are used in the examples. What are they replacing?

1. Some took the same tissue time after time. Others took a new one for each bout.
2. Trades Councils should ensure that the local branch of the National Union of Journalists is affiliated. Even if an NUJ branch rejects an approach to join one year, try Gin the following year and keep on asking to join until it does.
3. “Charlotte seems a very pleasant young woman,” said Bingley  
“Oh dear, yes; but you must own she is very plain. Lady Lucas herself has often said so, and envied me Jane’s beauty.”
4. Postmen or women who want to flex their muscles or build up their stamina will be able to use a new health and fitness centre being built specially for them in Clifton Road, Cambridge.

Head postmaster Mr Tony Begley was keen that Cambridge should have such a centre, the only one of its kind outside headquarters in London.

5. A group of people marching on the road should keep to the left. There should be look-outs in front and at the back wearing reflective clothing at night and fluorescent clothing by day. At night the look-out in front should carry a white light and the one at the back should carry a bright red light visible from the rear.
6. I walked past them, letting my left shoulder brush J.D. as I went by. I walked around behind my car and opened the door.  
Henry said, "We'll be watching you close, smart guy."  
"I hope so," I said. "You might learn something."
7. Needless to say, some people object to this: they argue that we should never write "river water" or "soda water" as one word, and so by analogy "groundwater" should be "ground water". They doubtless have a point, but if we never allowed change in the English language we would still be writing as Chaucer did.
8. On Tuesday he was dressed and brushed and allowed to cut back to the city for the day. Though what he did there the wife and girls couldn't imagine. Made a nuisance of himself to his friends, they supposed.... Well, perhaps so. All the same, we cling to our last pleasures as the tree clings to its last leaves.

## Lesson 30 Ellipsis

The relation between substitution and ellipsis is very close because it is merely that ellipsis is “substitution” by zero (0). What is essential in ellipsis is that some elements are omitted from the surface text, but they are still understood. Thus, omission of these elements can be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text. Harmer defines it: “(...) words are deliberately left out of a sentence when the meaning is still clear”. (Harmer, 2004:24). On considering the following example: *“Penny was introduced to a famous author, but even before, she had recognized him”*.

It appeared that the structure of the second clause indicates that there is something left out “introduced to a famous author”, the omission of this feature kept the meaning still clear and there is no need of repetition; Carter et al state that “ellipsis occurs in writing where usually functions textually to avoid repetition where structures would otherwise be redundant” (2000:182).

Starkey (2004) points out that on some occasions; ellipsis is used instead of substitution for the sake of conciseness. For example

**e.g.1:** *Everyone who [can] donate time to a charity should do so.*

**e.g.2:** *Everyone who can donate time to a charity should (0).*

In the first example, where substitution was used, the sentence was some how wordy in comparison to the oth Substitution has three types. Kennedy (2003:324) indicates that “ellipsis is the process by which noun phrase, verb phrase, or clauses are deleted or “understood” when they are absent” the three types of ellipsis are nominal, verbal and clausaler sentence (e.g.2) which seems quite concise as Starkey explains.

**Nominal ellipsis:** means ellipsis within the nominal group, where the omission of nominal group is served a common noun, proper noun or pronoun.

**e.g.** *“My kids practice an awful lot of sport. Both (0) are incredibly energetic”*.

In this example, the omission concerned with “My kids”.

**Verbal ellipsis:** refers to ellipsis within the verbal group where the elliptical verb depends on a preceding verbal group.

**e.g.** *A: have you been working?*

*B: Yes, I have (0).*

Here, the omission of the verbal group depends on what is said before and it is concerned with “been working”.

**Clausal ellipsis:** clausal ellipsis functions as verbal ellipsis, where the omission refers to a clause

**e.g.** *A: why did you only set three places? Paul’s, staying for dinner, isn’t he?*

*B: Is he? He didn’t tell him (0). In this example the omission falls on the “Paul’s, staying for dinner”*

### **Exercise 1 Match the three labels (1., 2., 3.) with the examples (a, b, c):**

#### **Positional categories of ellipsis:**

3 categories of ellipsis according to where the ellipsis occurs within a construction:

1. **INITIAL:** the initial elements are ellipted

2. **MEDIAL:** medial elements are ellipted

3. **FINAL:** the final elements are ellipted

*a) John owns a Volvo and Tom (owns) a BMW.*

*b) I’m happy if you are (happy). I know that we haven’t yet set the record straight, but we will (set the record straight).*

*c) (I) hope he's there. (Of) course he's here. (The) fact is I don't know what to do. (I'm a) afraid he won't be there. (Do you) want a drink? (Have you) got any money? (I'm) sorry I couldn't be there. (I'll) see you later.*

**Exercise 2 Put the examples below (a – l) under the appropriate label (1., 2., 3.). There is always „e.g.“ to indicate where an example (or possibly more examples) should occur:**

**1. NOMINAL ELLIPSIS** =elliptical noun phrases;

- usually results from final ellipsis, i.e. heads and any postmodifiers tend to be ellipted; omission of the head of a noun phrase:

**e.g.**

**2. VERBAL ELLIPSIS:** - the dominant type is final

- typically, the subject and operator (and perhaps other auxiliaries) remain, and the predication is ellipted:

**e.g.**

- another kind of verbal ellipsis omits everything except the lexical verb:

**e.g.**

**3. CLAUSAL ELLIPSIS:**

- involves ellipsis of the whole clause or the whole clause except for an introductory word:

**e.g.**

- a to-infinitive clause may be omitted if it functions as the complementation of a verb or adjective.

An elliptical to-infinitive clause may consist of just the introductory unstressed particle to:

**e.g.**

- in the negative, not is placed before to:

**e.g.**

**Examples:**

- a) Somebody has hidden my notebook, but I don't know who / why / where .*
- b) Has she been crying? - No, laughing.*
- c) She borrowed my pen, although I told her not to .*
- d) Tomorrow's meeting will have to be our first or our last .*
- e) I'm happy if you are .*
- f) If I could have bought a ticket, I would have .*
- g) He had to admit that Sarah's drawings were as good as his own .*
- h) We're bound to win the prize some day. Yes, but when ?*
- i) You can borrow my pen, if you want to .*
- j) You will speak to whomever I tell you to .*
- k) Tom will be playing, but I don't think Martin will (be) .*
- l) Somebody ought to help. Shall I ask Peter to ?*

### **Lesson 31 Discourse/ text context. Implicature**

It is by now widely recognized that discourse understanding involves more than the understanding of what is explicitly said. In order to understand discourse, or as (I shall say here) in order to understand a text, we must understand more than what is encoded in the text itself, and draw inferences. This broader comprehension, which is closely connected with contextual knowledge, is often described as the comprehension of what is presupposed and/or implicated by the text.

There are two main ways in which we can conceive of the role of this broader comprehension (which I will call comprehension of the implicitly conveyed meaning) with respect to the overall understanding of the text.

Sometimes it may seem that the understanding of what a text presupposes or implicates, as well as the contextual knowledge involved in such understanding, are necessary conditions for a full comprehension of the text. If we do not know the circumstances in which a text has been written, or if an utterance is reported to us without any information about the circumstances in which and the goals for which it has been uttered, we may not be able to make sense of it. If we do not share the speaker's pragmatic presuppositions (the assumptions he or she takes for granted in speaking) (Stalnaker [18], [19]), we might misunderstand him or her. As to conversational implicatures, they depend on the assumption that the speaker is observing the Cooperative Principle (Grice [7]: p. 26) and therefore, in order to infer them, the hearer should already know whether, in the circumstances of the ongoing verbal exchange, the Cooperative Principle holds. According to relevance theory (Sperber and Wilson [17]), another pragmatic theory concerned with discourse understanding, in understanding a text we have to take into account the contextual premises which make the speaker's contribution relevant. In all these ways, knowledge of, or at least beliefs about, what may in one word be called "the context" are represented as necessary to the comprehension of the text. This might lead us to conclude that we can, and must, acquire knowledge of or beliefs about the context prior to, and independently of, our understanding of a text.

Suppose, however, that we find ourselves in a situation in which we have little independent access to the context, as it happens in reading, in certain phone calls, or in those cases of face to face interaction in which we know little about our interlocutor and his or her possible aims. Should we despair of making sense of the text we are faced with? In such cases, it might be convenient to exploit all the details of the text in order to project as much of its context as we can. After all, many presuppositions have linguistic markers or triggers, and this enables receivers to detect them even in absence of text-independent information. As to implicatures, it could be claimed that the speaker's observance of the Cooperative Principle must not be known in advance, but can be assumed in absence of evidence contrary to it, so as to allow for the working out of as many implicatures as possible. Finally, relevance theory admits of the possibility of inferring missing contextual premises, when the assumptions which are already available to the hearer do not make the speaker's contribution relevant. In this perspective, context (or more precisely, the representation of context which is associated with the understanding of the text) is not something which has to be given independently of the text, but something constructed in the very process of text understanding.

## Implicature

The notion of implicature, proposed by Grice in 1967 ([7]: pp. 22-40), is well known. In order to characterize the way in which implicatures contribute to changes in the representation of the context, I will recall some of their salient features.

Implicatures are invited inferences in which the inferred proposition bears no truth functional relationship to any utterance contained in the text: when “p” implicates that q, the falsity of q has no consequence on the truth value of p. So, for example,

(1) *Mary is pretty, but intelligent.*

conveys by implicature that Mary, being pretty, is not likely to be intelligent, but is not false nor wholly unacceptable if this is false, since the truth functional conjunction of “Mary is pretty” and “Mary is intelligent” can well be true. Likewise:

(2) *Jane has two children*

(as issued in the framework of a cooperative conversation about how many children certain people have) conveys by implicature that Jane has no more than two children; but is not false if this is false, since, if she has four children, it is still true that she has two.

There are two main ways in which such inferences arise: (a) they can be invited by the fact that a certain word is used, which (because of linguistic conventions) has the function of inviting that inference (as is the case in (1) above, containing “but”: a “conventional” implicature); or (b) they can be required in order to make viable an interpretation of the speaker’s linguistic behaviour as conforming to the Cooperative Principle. So in the case of example (2) (a “conversational” implicature), the implicature arises from the assumption that the speaker is conforming to the Cooperative Principle and, more specifically, is giving as much information as is required by the goals of the conversation.

In case (a), Grice has suggested that the inferences which arise are connected with the performance of “non central” speech acts, namely, further specifications of the central speech acts of asserting, asking, commanding ([7]: pp.121-22, p.362). In this vein, “but” may be taken as indicating an objection, or “therefore” an explanation. This view of conventional implicatures contrasts, however, with the idea also expressed by Grice that they might derive from conventionalizations of generalized conversational implicatures ([7]: p.39): reference to speech act notions does not seem to be necessary in this case. I believe that the connection of certain words conventionally suggesting implicatures with non central speech acts is a puzzling fact, the role of which has still to be thoroughly explained, but I will not tackle this issue here. I shall distinguish conventional from conversational implicature only on the basis of the fact that the former is invited by the use of certain words.

In case (b), in which the Cooperative Principle is involved, the inferences can be drawn on the basis of what is said (the words uttered, considered as the starting point for all the inferences which can be drawn from the text) or on the basis of what is asserted (which may already involve inferences). In the former case, they contribute to the content of the assertion which is actually made; in the latter case,

they associate with the assertion an additional content, which is conveyed together with the assertion but not as a part of its content. So, since the words used in

(3) *You are the cream in my coffee*

(said to a human being) would give rise to a patently false assertion, if this utterance is to be interpreted as giving a cooperative contribution to the conversation, the asserted content must be somewhat different, although related (“You are my pride and joy”) (Grice [7]: p. 34). And in the following exchange

(4) *A: Where’s Bill?*

*B: There’s a yellow VW outside Sue’s house*

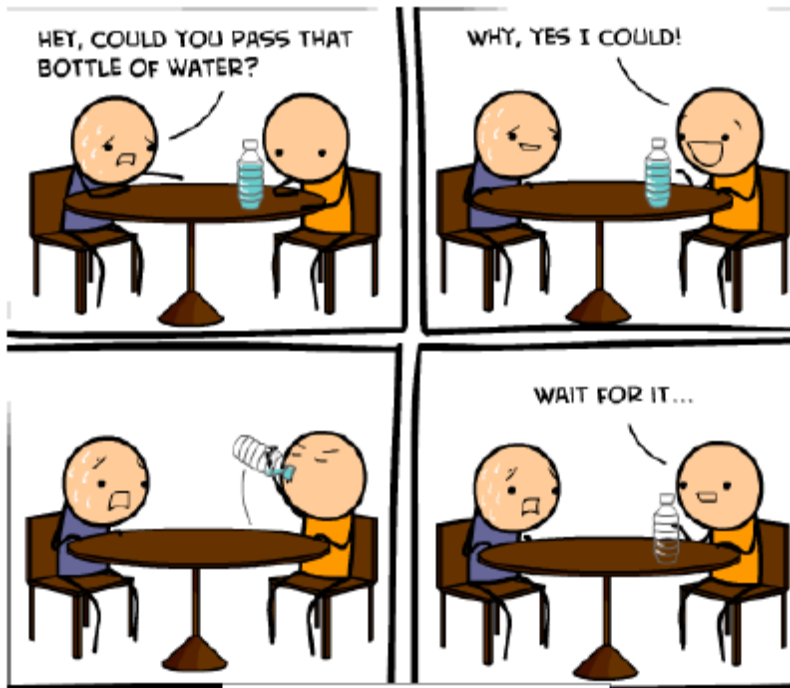
B’s contribution is a relevant answer to A’s question only insofar as it licenses the inference that if Bill has a yellow VW, he may be in Sue’s house (Levinson [11]: p.102).

I have couched my examples as inferences from the utterance of a sentence “p” to its implicature that q. This choice does not reflect one feature of implicature, that is, the fact that in the Gricean framework, what the hearer infers is primarily not the proposition that q, but the proposition that the speaker thinks that q. This is especially true for conversational implicatures, since the requirement for interpreting the speaker as conforming to the Cooperative Principle, on which they depend, is not that q holds, but that the speaker thinks that q. Here, however, we are concerned with text understanding, particularly with the ways in which a text enables its receivers to update their representation of the context. Implicature is relevant for us only insofar as, whether with or without the mediation of the proposition that the speaker thinks that q, it licenses inferences about facts in the objective context. Facts about what the speaker thinks are not necessarily relevant to the goals of an exchange and therefore are not always to be taken into consideration in the representation of the context. I take it that in examples like those I have quoted, the relevant inference which is licensed is about facts in the objective context and, therefore, is not generally about what the speaker thinks.

Thus, implicatures are contributions or additions to the content of the speech act performed by the text unit. Their contribution to the update of the representation of the context is, so to say, on a par with that given by assertions (cfr. Thomason [24]: pp. 351-52). They convey information which either contributes to the information conveyed by assertions, or supplements it. In the former case, the changes in the representation of the context associated with the text can be explained in the same way as for assertion. In the latter case, the speaker is not committed to the truth of the implicated content so strictly as to the truth of the content of an assertion (as is clear from the fact that, when what is implicated is false, the speaker is not responsible for saying something false). Correspondingly, the implicature counts merely as a suggestion, which makes a certain update of the representation of the context available to the participants.



## Examples



Grice's Goals:

**Primary Goal:** Explain the difference between what is said and what is suggested/conveyed/implicit. (Grice uses the word, "implicated" for the latter notion.) Some of Grice's examples:

**Recommendation:** A professor is writing a letter of recommendation for a pupil who is a candidate for a philosophy job, and the professor's letter reads:

"To whom it may concern, Mr. X's command of English is excellent and his attendance at tutorials has been regular. Sincerely, ..."

**What B said:** (Mr. X's command of English is excellent)^(Mr. X's attendance at tutorials has been regular)

**Implicatum:** Mr. X isn't very good at philosophy.

**Petrol:** A is standing by an obviously immobilized car and is approached by B.

A: I am out of petrol.

B: There is a garage around the corner.

**What B said:** There is a garage around the corner.

**Implicatum:** The garage is open and has petrol to sell (or at least B think the garage is open and has petrol to sell).

**Exercise 1** For each of the following, say (a) what the implicature is (Note: in some cases there may be more than one implicature!)

(i) A: Is Sally going to be in at work today?

B: Her car broke down.

(ii) Context: Jane and Fred are going to a movie; tickets cost \$10.

Fred: I have \$9.

(iii) Example from a CNN Interview (circa Obama's election):

A: Is Obama ready?

B: I think he's young.

(iv) I'll invite Mary or Sue.

(v) A: Will you go to dinner with me this evening?

B: I have to finish writing a paper.

## Lesson 32 Presupposition

Semantic presupposition was introduced as a relationship between an assertion and a proposition whose truth is a necessary condition for the assertion to have a truth value (Frege [4], Strawson [22]). This account was meant to capture the ordinary intuition that when the presupposition of an assertion is false, the question whether the assertion is true or false doesn't arise. But the account had also some flaws. It required abandoning standard two-valued logic in favour of a three-valued one. Besides, one of its claims is highly questionable: according to semantic presupposition theorists, if the utterance of an affirmative sentence has a presupposition, the same presupposition is shared by the corresponding negative sentence, so that, for example:

(5a) *John has stopped smoking*

(5b) *John has not stopped smoking*

both presuppose John used to smoke. To this, it can be objected that if John never used to smoke, an utterance of the negative sentence can well be considered as true: John has not stopped smoking (in fact he never used to smoke).

The relationship of the presupposition to the utterance of the positive sentence appears not to be identical to its relationship to the utterance of the negative sentence, since in the latter case the presupposition is cancelable. Since the '70s, a pragmatic conception of presupposition has been preferred to the semantic one. According to this conception, presuppositions are the assumptions shared by speaker and hearer, which form the background of their ongoing discourse (Stalnaker [18], [19]). Some if not all of these shared background assumptions have linguistic markers (or triggers). An utterance can be said to presuppose a proposition when it contains a linguistic element which functions as a presupposition trigger, and is therefore appropriate only if the associated presupposition is among the interlocutors' shared assumptions. A problem for this approach is raised by the informative use of presuppositions. Often utterances which contain presupposition triggers are issued without assuming that the hearer already shares their presupposition or even knowing that he or she does not share it. In these cases, contrary to the theory's predictions, no inappropriateness is felt, but the hearer "accommodates" the presupposition by adding it to his or her own background assumptions (Karttunen [9], Lewis [12]). To describe this phenomenon in the framework of the pragmatic conception of presupposition is undoubtedly difficult and none of the answers which have been proposed (in terms of the speaker pretending to presuppose something: Stalnaker [19], or in terms of the hearer being prepared to add the presupposition to the context without objection: Soames [16]) are fully satisfactory. In fact, a speaker would more successfully pretend to take something for granted by non mentioning it at all; and a hearer might well find an informative presupposition objectionable, without therefore considering the utterance which conveys it as inappropriate (Gauker [5]).

The picture of presupposition I would like to outline aims at recapturing the original intuition that when the proposition presupposed by the utterance of a sentence does not hold, that utterance is in some way out of order. In the perspective adopted here (see §1), we are not interested in background assumptions which have no textual manifestation, but only in those presuppositions which are linguistically triggered. I propose to consider those presuppositions not as shared assumptions, but as assumptions which ought to be shared. If we admit, as we have done above, that conversations are governed by objective contexts (the content of which is selected by

the goals of the conversation), and that only sentences whose presuppositions are satisfied by the objective context are appropriately assertible, it follows that a hearer, by deeming that a presupposition which is triggered by a text is not satisfied by the context, is considering the speaker not merely as being factually wrong, but as violating a normative requirement. Such a judgement on the speaker's linguistic behaviour would lead to a communicative breakdown. In fact, this is what happens when, faced with an assertion whose presupposition does not hold, we feel we do not know how to reply. Given the general tendency to avoid communicative breakdowns, in all the cases in which there is some possibility left that the objective context does satisfy the presupposition, the hearer's default tendency will be to assume that it is so, namely, that the presupposition is in fact satisfied.

What is the function of presuppositions, so conceived, with respect to the representation of context? Presupposed propositions have to be included into the representation of the context associated with a given text just because some utterance belonging to the text is in order only if the presupposition is satisfied by the objective context. Irrespective of whether the presupposed propositions are old or new information for the hearer, and more generally, irrespective of whether they initially belong to the speaker's representation of the context, to the hearer's, to both, or to neither, they must find a place in the representation of the context which is worked out in the process of text understanding. Thus the addition of the content of an assertion to the representation of the context is accompanied by the obligation to add to the representation of the context those presuppositions of it which happen not to be yet there. This obligation, which is not to be confounded with the speaker's commitment relative to an overt assertion, concerns both speaker and hearer and protects the presupposed proposition from challenges, giving rise to the characteristic feeling that the presupposed proposition is, or is to be, "taken for granted".

The function of linguistic presupposition triggers is to indicate that speaker and hearer ought to take the presupposed content for granted. To say that a text has a certain presupposition means, therefore, that it conveys something as having to be taken for granted.

***Exercise 1 For each of the following, say (a) what the presupposition is (Note: in some cases there may be more than one presupposition!)***

1. Tony rose from the breakfast table. He went into his room and opened the window. He was sorry that he had not replied to Lucy.
2. Nicola left her bike in front of the supermarket
3. If I have a wife, then my wife is blonde.
4. Jane no longer writes fiction.
5. Jane stopped drinking wine for breakfast.

6. Smith returned to the scene of the crime.
7. “Bob seems really exhausted.” “Well, part of the problem is that Bob’s children are really obnoxious.
8. Dad: The refrigerator is empty. Where are all the bottles of yogurt?  
Mum: It seems that Tom (the son) is satisfied today
9. Mary’s brother bought three horses
10. You could have talked to the dean.

## Lesson 33 Inference

Drawing conclusions refers to information that is implied or inferred. This means that the information is never clearly stated.

Writers often *tell* you more than they say directly. They give you hints or clues that help you "read between the lines." Using these clues to give you a deeper understanding of your reading is called *inferring*. When you *infer*, you go beyond the surface details to see other meanings that the details suggest or *imply* (not stated). When the meanings of words are not stated clearly in the context of the text, they may be *implied* – that is, suggested or hinted at. When meanings are implied, you may *infer* them.

**Inference** is just a big word that means a *conclusion* or *judgement*. If you infer that something has happened, you do not see, hear, feel, smell, or taste the actual event. But from what you know, it makes sense to think that it has happened. You make inferences everyday. Most of the time you do so without thinking about it. Suppose you are sitting in your car stopped at a red signal light. You hear screeching tires, then a loud crash and breaking glass. You *see nothing*, but you *infer* that there has been a car accident. We all know the sounds of screeching tires and a crash. We know that these sounds *almost always* mean a car accident. But there could be some other reason, and therefore another explanation, for the sounds. Perhaps it was not an accident involving two moving vehicles. Maybe an angry driver rammed a parked car. Or maybe someone played the sound of a car crash from a recording. Making *inferences* means choosing the most likely explanation from the facts at hand.

There are several ways to help you draw conclusions from what an author may be implying. The following are descriptions of the various ways to aid you in reaching a conclusion.

**General Sense.** The meaning of a word may be implied by the general sense of its context, as the meaning of the word *incarcerated* is implied in the following sentence:

Murderers are usually *incarcerated* for longer periods of time than robbers.

You may infer the meaning of *incarcerated* by answering the question "What usually happens to those found guilty of murder or robbery?" What have you inferred as the meaning of the word *incarcerated*?

If you answered that they are locked up in jail, prison, or a penitentiary, you correctly inferred the meaning of *incarcerated*.

**Examples.** When the meaning of the word is not implied by the general sense of its context, it may be implied by examples. For instance,

Those who enjoy belonging to clubs, going to parties, and inviting friends often to their homes for dinner are *gregarious*.

You may infer the meaning of *gregarious* by answering the question, "What word or words describe people who belong to clubs, go to parties a lot, and often invite friends over to their homes for dinner?" What have you inferred as the meaning of the word *gregarious*?

If you answered *social* or something like: "people who enjoy the company of others", you correctly inferred the meaning of *gregarious*.

**Antonyms and Contrasts.** When the meaning of a word is not implied by the general sense of its context or by examples, it may be implied by an antonym or by a contrasting thought in a context. **Antonyms** are words that have opposite meanings, such as happy and sad. For instance,

Ben is fearless, but his brother is *timorous*.

You may infer the meaning of *timorous* by answering the question, "If Ben is fearless and Jim is very different from Ben with regard to fear, then what word describes Jim?"

If you answered a word such as *timid*, or *afraid*, or *fearful*, you inferred the meaning of *timorous*.

A *contrast* in the following sentence implies the meaning of *credence*:

Dad gave *credence* to my story, but Mom's reaction was one of total disbelief.

You may infer the meaning of *credence* by answering the question, "If Mom's reaction was disbelief and Dad's reaction was very different from Mom's, what was Dad's reaction?"

If you answered that Dad believed the story, you correctly inferred the meaning of *credence*; it means *belief*.

**Be Careful of the Meaning You Infer!** When a sentence contains an unfamiliar word, it is sometimes possible to infer the general meaning of the sentence without inferring the exact meaning of the unknown word. For instance,

When we invite the Paulsons for dinner, they never invite us to their home for a meal; however, when we have the Browns to dinner, they always *reciprocate*.

In reading this sentence, some students infer that the Browns are more desirable dinner guests than the Paulsons without inferring the exact meaning of *reciprocate*. Other students conclude that the Browns differ from the Paulsons in that they do something in return when they are invited for dinner; these students conclude correctly that *reciprocate* means "to do something in return."

In drawing conclusions (making inferences), you are really getting at the ultimate meaning of things – what is important, why it is important, how one event influences another, how one happening leads to another.

***Exercise 1 Read each paragraph and answer the questions.***

- 1. Avery watched as her new next-door neighbors moved in. She observed a tall man carrying a bicycle and a kayak into the garage. She also saw a young woman carrying a surfboard through the front door.**

Avery can infer that...

- a. her new neighbors are elderly.
  - b. her new neighbors have several children.
  - c. her new neighbors like to spend time outdoors.
  - d. her new neighbors are kind and generous.
- 2. When Joseph walked into the kitchen, he saw muddy paw prints on the floor. His mother's wet coat was hanging on a chair. Below the coat he spotted his mother's rubber shoes. Joseph looked for his dog, Riley. He found Riley, who was soaking wet, lying on the couch panting.**

Joseph can infer that...

- a. his mother gave Riley a bath.
  - b. Riley played in the yard during a rainstorm.
  - c. Riley dragged the coat outside.
  - d. his mother took Riley for a walk in the rain.
- 3. Kayla made a steak dinner for her family. Her mom and dad each ate two full steaks and had large helpings of mashed potatoes. When the meal was over, everyone's plate was empty.**

Kayla can infer that...

- a. her family enjoyed the meal.
  - b. the steak was too well done.
  - c. a steak dinner is an easy meal to make.
  - d. there will be lots of leftovers.
- 4. Alexander arrived at his grandmother's house at ten o'clock at night. He saw her car in the driveway and the front door was open. The window was lit with a blue-flickering light.**

Alexander can infer that...

- a. his grandmother was reading a book.
- b. his grandmother was not home.
- c. his grandmother was watching television.
- d. his grandmother was sleeping.



- 5. Maggie was getting ready to walk to school. She put on her coat and grabbed her backpack. As she was leaving, her mother said, “I love you. Be careful.”**

You can infer that...

- a. Maggie is in kindergarten or first grade.
  - b. Maggie lives close to school.
  - c. Maggie is never late for school.
  - d. Maggie is excited about going to school.
- 6. Hudson hurried out of the house so he wasn't late for work. He wore overalls and carried a toolbox with wrenches in it. He hopped in his truck and drove off. The sign on his truck said, “Pipe Masters.”**

You can infer that...

- a. Hudson is an auto mechanic.
  - b. Hudson enjoys his job.
  - c. Hudson works as a plumber.
  - d. Hudson is a truck salesman
- 7. Nicole came out of the elevator in her apartment building. She ran to the curb and held up her arm to hail a taxi. When she hopped in, she said, “Please take me to 345 45th Street.”**

You can infer that...

- a. Nicole's car is broken.
  - b. Nicole is going on vacation.
  - c. Nicole is going shopping.
  - d. Nicole lives in a large city.
- 8. Everett held his father's hand as he crossed the busy parking lot. They walked into a grocery store. Everett's dad lifted him into the seat of the shopping cart. “Here,” said dad, “You can hold my shopping list.”**

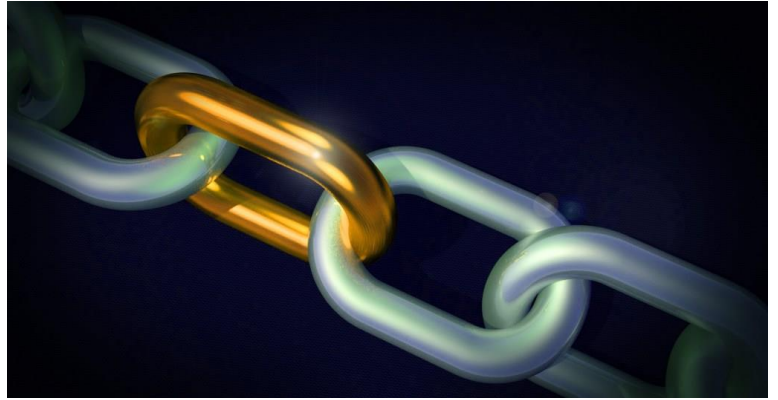
You can infer that...

- a. Everett had never been to a grocery store.
- b. Everett's dad does not shop often.
- c. Everett's dad needs help with the shopping.
- d. Everett is very young.

## Lesson 34 Discourse markers

Discourse markers are words or expressions that link, manage and help to organise sentences. They connect what is written or said with something else. They make no change to the meaning.

They are also often called linking words and, sometimes, *fillers*. They are important to make your speech or text flow and to avoid a series of short unconnected statements.



Discourse markers can be placed in any part of a sentence, including the beginning. We use different types of *discourse markers* for different types of links; informal markers for speech and formal type markers for formal writing, such as essays and reports.

Discourse markers do not always have meanings that you will find in your dictionary. Instead, they provide certain functions such as delaying, filling or hinting at emotions. Discourse markers are important for fluency in English at advanced level. They are important elements of speech and writing for living and working in English-speaking countries.

When speaking or informal writing, such as emails or texts to friends, the following discourse markers are often used. There are many of course, but here are some of the most common.

- **Anyway** – marks a shift away from a topic. *It's sold out, anyway, I didn't want to go.*
- **Actually** – indicates that what you are saying is a surprise to you or is the opposite of what might be imagined or introduces the opposite response to what someone wants or expects. *I thought I didn't like dance shows but actually, I quite enjoyed it. Actually, I'd prefer if you didn't smoke in here.*
- **As I was saying / As I said** – continuing a theme after a change of subject. *As I was saying before I was interrupted, I'd like to go to the cinema. As I said last week, I don't enjoy opera.*
- **Absolutely** – used as a stronger way of saying yes. *A. Would you like a holiday in Thailand? B. Absolutely, when do we go?*
- **Exactly** – used to emphasise what you mean. *What exactly are you talking about? Exactly, that's what I meant.*
- **Okay or OK** – understood or agreed. *Okay, I get it.*
- **Well** – used to indicate an emotion including: annoyance, anger, surprise, disappointment and relief. *Well, that's not what I wanted to hear. Well, I didn't expect that!*
- **Fine** – used informally to indicate that something is not good. *That's another fine mess you've got me into. A. How are you since your wife left you? B, Fine, what do you think*
- **Mind (you)** – used to highlight or stress something you said to avoid misunderstanding. *He couldn't help me, mind you, I know he's busy so it's not his fault.* Or to introduce something else

that needs to be considered. My kids never listen to me. Mind you, I didn't either at their age so I guess it's normal.

- **You know** – indicates that what you're saying is known by the listener. or to check they understand with a question mark. Also used as a filler while you're thinking of what to say next. *Studying economics is hard, you know.*
- **I mean** – introduces a statement to justify what you've said. *It was a tough driving test, I mean I took my test in the rush hour in the rain.*
- **For a start** – introduces the first item of a logical sequence or the most important item of other possibilities. *The driving test in Spain is difficult, for a start it's all in Spanish.*
- **What's more** – introduces a new fact or argument and implies that this new fact or argument is more important than the one just given. Used without contraction for formal speech and writing. *The stock market fell in 2008 and what's more, our pension fund was tied up in stocks.*
- **On top of that** – used to indicate something unpleasant in addition to what you've just said. *I lost my job and on top of that, I was fined for speeding.*
- **To tell you the truth / truth be told** – indicates that what you're saying is honest and open. *To tell you the truth, I was more than a little worried. Truth be told, I'm concerned about the project*
- **To be honest** – explains that you are being truthful about what you're saying, usually with an understanding that the person you're talking to will be disappointed. *To be honest, I don't think your offer is sufficient.*
- **Sort of / kind of** – used to describe that something is partly true but it's not the entire explanation. Or that something is difficult to explain entirely. *Your answer is sort of correct but there's a bit more to it than that. My new car is a kind of blue green colour. Not sure what colour you'd call it.*

## FORMAL AND WRITTEN DISCOURSE MARKERS

Discourse markers for more formal writing situations organise your text logically. They are typical when writing formal letters or when writing essays or reports, especially at work.

They will also be used in formal speaking situations, such as presentations or speeches. For the IELTS writing exam, they are necessary to gain maximum marks under coherence and cohesion which is 25% of the mark.

- **Firstly, secondly, thirdly** – organise your points logically. *Firstly we need to reduce prices on the products. Secondly, we need to upgrade the channel to market etc. etc.*
- **Finally** – marks the final point of a list. *Finally I want to talk about the environment.*
- To begin with –
- **In addition** – provides extra information. *In addition to my earlier point, we also need to think about delivery.*
- **In conclusion** – marks the summary and round up of your essay or speech. *In conclusion, I have demonstrated that savings will be 10%.*
- **In summary** – another way to mark the conclusion. *In summary, the average costs will reduce.*
- **Moreover** – as a further matter, there is even more to tell you. *Moreover, they would have to move home.*

- **On (the) one hand, on the other hand** – introduces two opposing ideas. *On the one hand it's cheaper, on the other hand it means a lot of work to make it worth the trouble.*
- **What is more** – introduces a new fact or argument and implies that this new fact or argument is more important than the one just given. Used with contraction for informal. *The stock market fell in 2008, what is more is that the company had all its assets in stocks.*
- **Furthermore** – introduces an additional fact or argument. *Unemployment rates fell in 2018, furthermore, average salaries rose.*
- **Not only....but also** – used to give emphasis to a second point. This phrase uses *inversions*. *I not only worked in London, but also in Paris.*
- **For example** – used to give an example to show that something is true. *This will never work, for example the spring is broken.*
- **Such as** – introduces an example or examples of what you're talking about. *There are lots of types of car on the road today, such as saloons, hatchbacks and four by fours.*
- **As a result** – introduces what happened because of something. *He failed his exams and, as a result, couldn't attend university.*
- **Consequently** – because of this or as a result. *The road is closed, consequently we'll need to wait until it's open again.*
- **Nevertheless** – despite of what has just been said or written. *There are insufficient funds for the development, nevertheless, we'll continue on the work and hope something turns up.*
- **By / in contrast** – a comparison which introduces something opposite to the first item. *The economy in the EU shrunk by 2%, by contrast, the USA saw growth of nearly 5%.*
- **In comparison** – used to discuss the ways in which two things are different. *Costs have risen in comparison to last year.*
- **In my opinion** – Used to give your opinion or point of view when you are confident of the facts. *In my opinion, it's better to invest in language training as early as possible in our schools.*
- **Of course** – stating something that is known or obvious but important to state. *Of course, children benefit greatly from playing sports.*

**A discourse marker is a word or an expression that organizing our sentences. Also known as linking words, they can be thought of as the glue that connects our sentences together.**

**Formal discourse markers are vital in academic and business texts as they organize the sequencing and connections.**

***Exercise 1 Look at the underlined phrases 1-5. Write them in the table***

- ✓ ..... as I was saying, it really does look like a photo .....
- ✓ ..... The expression on her face is kind of intense .....
- ✓ It sort of looks like a photo .....
- ✓ To be honest it's not really my taste.....
- ✓ To tell you the truth, I still wouldn't want it hanging on my bedroom wall.

**Focusing on the main topic or returning to a previous line of discussion**      **Introducing an opinion or criticism**

**Softening an opinion or criticism**

**Making additional ( often contrasting) points**

***Exercise 2 Add the phrases from the box below to the table in the box above***

Anyway, what I was going to say was, more or less, frankly, mind you, as a matter of fact, as far as ... is concerned, in fact, as for, as regards/ regarding

***Exercise 3 Complete the statements below with one word.***

1. A: \_\_\_\_\_, I don't like Impressionism much  
B: Neither do I. \_\_\_\_\_, I think it has been overexposed.
2. A: Pollocks technique of dripping paint onto canvas was \_\_\_\_\_ strange.  
B: I agree. \_\_\_\_\_ his work did revolutionise modern art.
3. A: I love performance art. \_\_\_\_\_, David Blaine's my hero.  
B: David Blaine? The magician? \_\_\_\_\_, I think he's crazy!
4. A: I love Spanish art. \_\_\_\_\_ Picasso, I think he was the greatest of all time.  
B: Well, yes, he \_\_\_\_\_ invented modern art.
5. A: \_\_\_\_\_ photography Cindy Shermann is currently the most famous artist  
B: Really? \_\_\_\_\_, I have never heard of her

## Lesson 35 Theme and Rheme

The terms theme and rheme have been defined according to various criteria: In the Systemic Functional Grammar, Theme\_ is viewed as "the starting point of the message" (Halliday 1994: 38) and as "an orienter to the text" (Fries 1995:318), providing a framework for the interpretation of the message. These two characteristics of Theme have led to the formulation of hypotheses concerning its usefulness as a guide to the understanding of the text. As a device for organizing meanings, theme does not only operate at the local level, indicating how the writer has chosen to order information within the clause, but also helps to structure the flow of information in ways that shape interpretation of the text as a whole (Martin 1992; 1995); whilst rheme is simply defined as the remaining part that develops the theme ( Jianghong and et al ,2005: 18 ; Wang, 2007:166; Alonso and McCabe (2003:2). In other words, the rheme is what you are saying about the theme - it typically contains unfamiliar or new information, what you want to tell your reader.

In English, the theme usually initiates the sentence and the rheme appears at the end. The decision about which part of the sentence to make the theme and which part that makes the rheme depending on the information that needs to be communicated. The following two sentences are good examples:

*The M1 goes from London to Leeds.*

*The motorway from London to Leeds is called the M1.*

\*While the words in each column describe closely related concepts, it should not be inferred that they are precisely synonymous.

The theme in sentence 1 is "M1". The reader has been introduced to the M1 but does not know where it goes and therefore he needs to be told. Such information is called the rheme. In sentence 2, the theme is "the motorway from London to Leeds". The reader knows there is a motorway from London to Leeds but does not know what it is called, thus "the M1" is the rheme of the second sentence.

### 1. Theme Types

Nikmah (2010: 8), following Halliday's categorization of theme, maintains that the theme can be classified into three categories; topical theme which consists of marked and unmarked theme, interpersonal theme and textual theme which consists of structural conjunction, relative, conjunctive adjunct and continuative.

It is evident from the above context that there are three possible themes found in English. They are: **Topical theme** which is functioning as the point of orientation for the experiential meanings of the clause. It occupies the first position of a clause as in the following declarative clauses:

<i>The cigarettes</i>	<i>contain very harmful materials.</i>
<i>Smoking</i>	<i>causes many diseases</i>
<i>Examination</i>	<i>is a way to test the ability of the examinees.</i>

**Topical Theme****Rheme**

Topical theme is not always realized by nominal groups, but it can also be realized by adverbial groups, prepositional phrases or nominalization of a clause as in the following examples ( the first two ones are prepositional phrases ,the third and fourth ones are adverbial clauses while the last ones are nominal groups):

<i>In the holiday,</i>	<i>I decided to visit.....</i>
<i>At morning,</i>	<i>my mother came.....</i>
<i>Now,</i>	<i>it is clear for anyone who is smoking.....</i>
<i>Nowadays,</i>	<i>Higher education is a huge question...</i>
<i>My friend who is very close to me</i>	<i>is my mother.</i>
<i>How a teacher can evaluate his students</i>	<i>is throughout testing their ability.....</i>
<b>Topical Theme</b>	<b>Rheme</b>

Topical theme may also co-exist with the other two themes, i.e textual and interpersonal themes. Therefore, they are termed as Multiple Theme as it is presented in the following example:

<i>Nor</i>	<i>Do</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>know.....</i>
<b>Textual Theme</b>	<b>Interpersonal</b>	<b>Topical</b>	<b>Rheme</b>

**Interpersonal theme** (vocatives, modal, or mood marking) functions to code the speaker's or writer's personal judgment on meaning as in the following examples:

<i>I hope that</i>	<i>would be of use ....</i>
<i>Please,</i>	<i>show me the way ....</i>
<b>Interpersonal theme</b>	<b>Rheme</b>

and **Textual theme**(discourse markers and conjunctions) relates the meaning of the particular clause to the other parts of the text . It does not express interpersonal or experiential meaning , but it performs cohesive work by connecting one clause to its context ( Eggins : 2004 ) .

<i>Finally,</i>	<i>one of them</i>	<i>told me...</i>
<i>But</i>	<i>unfortunately</i>	<i>I</i>
<b>Textual</b>	<b>Interpersonal</b>	<b>Topical Theme</b>
		<b>Rheme</b>

The following table (which is proposed by Halliday,1994:54 and modified in Wang , 2006:5-6 ) is the most proper one which gives equivalent information about themes and their components.

**Metafunction****Component of Theme****Textual**

- \_ **Continuative** (discourse signallers/ Markers: yes, no, well, oh, now, which signal that a new move is beginning)
- \_ **Structural** (conjunction: and , or, nor, either, neither, but, yet, so, then, when, while, before, after, until, because, even, in case... or WHrelative: which, who, whose, when, where, that...)
- \_ **Conjunctive**: relate the clause to the preceding text such as that is, for

instance; rather; in any case; in fact; in short; actually; and, also, moreover; but, on the other hand; instead; meanwhile, then; likewise; so; if; yet; as to that;

### Interpersonal

\_ **vocative:** any item used to address such as a personal name.

\_ **modal:** any of the modal Adjunct which expresses the speaker's judgment regarding to relevance of the message such as probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe; usually, sometimes, always; occasionally, generally regularly; of course...; I think, in my opinion, personally; frankly, to be honest; honestly; please, kindly; evidently; hopefully; in general; strictly speaking; wisely; to my surprise...

\_ **mood-marking: a finite verbal operator**

\_ **WH (interrogative or relative)**

### Experiential

**Topical (participant, circumstance, process)**

## Thematic progression

One of the writers' tasks is to know how to hook the sentences together in a way that enables them to create a text with both unity of texture and unity of structure. Eggins (1994) believes that "the flow of information in a sentence from Theme to Rheme is important to convey the message effectively. The exchange of information between Theme and Rheme pairings in a text is called Thematic Progression" (in Wang, 2007: 168)

Thematic progression, as understood by Daneš (1974), is the study of how Theme in a text is developed from clause to clause to build larger stretches. Eggins (1994) prefers to use Thematic development instead of Thematic progression. She states that the choice of Theme for any individual clause is generally related to the way information is being developed over the course of the whole text. Daneš (1974) presents three models of Thematic Progression. These are re-iteration, zigzag, and multiple patterns. (in Nikmah, 2010:18)

McCabe (1999) modified the thematic progression scheme proposed by Daneš (ibid) and identified four main patterns of thematic progression: 'constant TP', 'linear TP', 'split theme TP', and 'split rheme progression' that might manifest differently in different genres. These thematic progression are:

1) *Constant thematic progression:* The theme of one clause is derived from the theme of the previous clause;

T ----- R1

T ----- R2

T ----- R3

#### Theme

Salim Mohammed

He

And (he)

When he

He

#### Rheme

was born in UAE.

was very interested in learning English.

always tried to find opportunities to speak English with his friends.

was twelve,

could communicate with his foreign friends freely.



2) *Linear thematic/ zig-zag progression*: The theme of one clause is derived from the rheme of the previous clause;

T1-----R1

T2 (R1) ----- R2

T3 (R2) ----- R3

**Theme**

Outside my window

In the middle of the lawn

The flower bed

The roses

**Rheme**

is a big lawn.

is a flower bed.

is full of roses.

are my favourite flowers.

3) *Derived hyperthematic progression*: Particular themes in subsequent clauses are derived from a hypertheme or from the same overriding theme;

T1 ----- R1

. T2 -----R2

T3 -----R3

**Theme**

The play (T1)

But I(T2)

A young man and a young woman(T3)

I (T4)

But they(T5)

**Rheme**

was interesng,(R1)

didn't enjoy it.(R2/T1)

troubled me.(R3/T2)

turned round and looked at them,(R4/T3)

didn't pay any attention to me.(R5/T4)

4) *Split rhematic progression*: The rheme of the first clause is split into two items, each in turn being taken as a theme element in subsequent clauses.

**Theme**

There (T1)

Whiteface clowns(T2/R1.1)

and (they)(T2/R1.1)

Auguste clowns(T3/R1.2)

They (T3/R1.2)

Character clowns(T4/R1.3)

and (they)(T4/R1.3)

The more recent "New Vaudeville"  
clowns(T5/R1.4)

**Rheme**

are four basic types of clowns.(R1)

cover their face with white make-up(R2)

do a lot of physical stunts like leaping and  
tumbling.(R3)

wear colourful, ill fitting clothing and oversized  
shoes.(R4)

also have bulbous noses and brightly coloured  
wigs.(R4)

Character clowns(T4/R1.3)

may impersonate characters such as a cowboy,  
fireman, tramp or policeman.(R6)

involve the audience in the performance.(R7)

**Exercise 1 Identify Theme and Rheme in the following paragraphs****a) Newspaper article** (from *The Daily Telegraph*, Feb 10, 1999)

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

Theme	Rheme

**b) From A.A. Milne: *Winnie-the-Pooh***

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

Theme	Rheme

## Lesson 36 Main conversational features

**Overlapping** - When you talk and I interrupt, I seldom wait until you have finished speaking. Conversation thus tends to be set of overlapping sets of speaking as one person starts before the other ends. There are two primary ways in which the interrupt of the second person happens. One way is the first person finishes their main point, which is spotted by the second person who interrupts as the first person starts elaborating or slowing. The alternative interrupt happens when the second person butts in earlier than might be expected, for example through enthusiasm, ignorance or in a power move.

**Pause**- A distinction has been drawn between *silent pauses* and *filled pauses* (e.g. *ah*, *er*), and several functions of pause have been established, e.g. for breathing, to mark grammatical boundaries, and to provide time for the planning of new material. Pauses which have a structural function (*juncture pauses*) are distinguished from those involved in hesitation (*hesitation pauses*). Investigations of pausal phenomena have been particularly relevant in relation to developing a theory of speech production. In grammar, the notion of *potential pause* is sometimes used as a technique for establishing word units in a language—pauses being more likely at word boundaries than within words.

**Fillers**- Every conversation involves turn-taking, which means that whenever someone wants to speak and hear a pause, they do so. Pauses are commonly used to indicate that someone's turn has ended, which can create confusion when someone hasn't finished a thought but has paused to form a thought; in order to prevent this confusion, they will use a filler word such as *um*, *er*, or *uh*. The use of a filler word indicates that the other person should continue listening instead of speaking. Filler words generally contain little to no lexical content, but instead provide clues to the listener about how they should interpret what the speaker has said. While there are many different reasons for using filler words, sociolinguists have identified six main reasons for doing so: pausing to give time for the speaker to gather their thoughts, speaking more indirectly in order to encourage politeness, approaching delicate topics gently, emphasizing ideas, providing clues to emotions or behaviors, and communicating uncertainty. The actual words that people use may change (such as the increasing use of *like*), but the meaning and reason why people use them doesn't change.

**Repairs** -are variously classified as 'self-repair' (corrections, etc. made by speakers themselves responsible), vs. 'other-repair' (made by their interlocutors); as 'self-initiated' (made by a speaker without querying or prompting) vs. 'other-initiated' (made in response to querying or prompting).

**Adjacency pairs**- Adjacency pairs refer to 'conversational sequences' in which an utterance by one speaker depends upon an utterance made by another speaker. It is a sequence of two related utterances by two different speakers. The second utterance is always the response to the first. It is known as 'a tied pair' also known as 'illocutionary force'. Pairs of utterances in talk are often mutually dependent. A most obvious example is that a question predicts an answer and that an answer presupposes a question.

**Turn-taking**- is a type of organization in conversation and discourse where participants speak one at a time in alternating turns. In practice, it involves processes for constructing contributions, responding to previous comments, and transitioning to a different speaker, using a variety of linguistic and non-linguistic cues.

**Deixis** (/ˈdaɪksɪs/) refers to words and phrases, such as "me" or "here", that cannot be fully understood without additional contextual information—in this case, the identity of the speaker ("me") and the speaker's location ("here"). Words are deictic if their semantic meaning is fixed but their denoted meaning varies depending on time and/or place. Words or phrases that require contextual information to convey any meaning—for example, English pronouns—are deictic.

**Backchannel** during a conversation occurs when one participant is speaking and another participant interjects responses to the speaker. A backchannel response can be verbal, non-verbal, or both. Backchannel responses are often phatic expressions, primarily serving a social or meta-conversational purpose, such as signifying the listener's attention, understanding, or agreement, rather than conveying significant information. Examples include such expressions as "yeah", "uh-huh", "hmm", and "right".

***Exercise 1 Read Conversation 1 . Identify the main conversational features in the text. Guess whether the text is appropriate or not.***

***Conversation 1***

**Employee:** Uhh, I came across this really funny website the other day... It's, umm, designed to where people can anonymously send an e-mail to an annoying coworker...

**Chairman:** Mmm hmm...

**Employee:** Saying things like, "You really need to use deodorant [laughter]...but we're too shy to tell you"... and they, you know, you just put in their e-mail address...

**Chairman:** Okay

**Employee:** Umm, and it got me thinking about annoying coworkers...

**Chairman:** Okay

**Employee:** Can...Do you have any memories of particularly irritating and annoying people at work?

**Chairman:** Well, I don't remember anyone who was...smelly, ummm  
[laughter]

**Chairman:** But there was there was one guy who was rather irritating, umm, he was, actually, he was someone who I, who I answered to, he was...

**Employee:** He was your manager?

**Chairman:** He was...yeah...he was, he was a manager at my department.

**Employee:** Uh huh.

**Chairman:** And..umm...what he would do would be if myself ..or..or..and one of my colleagues were having a conversation that was in any way, uhh, related to something other than the immediate job that we were working on...

**Employee:** Uh huh.

**Chairman:** ...he would, uhh, jump in there and and and, uhh, tell us off! For doing it...

**Employee:** Really?

**Chairman:** For doing it...yeah!

**Employee:** For just chatting while you were working?

**Chairman:** Yeah, oh yeah! It it could be...you could be sitting at your desk and your friend is sitting across from you and you could say, "So...you have a good weekend, Steve?" and before you've even got a chance to start the conversation, you know, our boss would, would chip in and say [imitating odious boss] "Ah, gentlemen I don't think that's work-related, could we have a bit less chatter please?"

**Employee:** [laughter] No! Did he..

**Chairman:** And he did actually use to speak like that as well.

**Employee:** Really?

**Chairman:** Yeah, that was, that was, his tone of voice was annoying but that wasn't the point, it was, it was just that he wouldn't allow non-work-related topics of conversation. Which...okay...

**Employee:** That's right, because everyone knows that we all work much better and more efficiently when we're miserable.

**Chairman:** [Laughter] Well, yeah... That's uhh, I..he..I don't think he cared about that, but, okay, I mean, if if if that was ... If it was going to be a very draconian and strict regime at work, then I guess that's fair enough. But it wasn't a two-way system and and and this was what was particularly annoying, because when it was lunch time or break time this same manager would not be averse to approaching me and asking me about work-related issues whilst I was trying to eat my lunch or, you know, whilst I was...

**Employee:** OK, and you were on, then, on your own time not on company time while you're eating lunch...

**Chairman:** Oh yeah! Yeah, this this is company allotted, daily company time when you know you're supposed to go out and have a cigarette and do whatever you do on your break time.

**Employee:** But it's really considered your own personal time...

**Chairman:** Absolutely! Yeah...

**Employee:** ...your break from work...

**Chairman:** Yeah

**Employee:** ...and he had no problems encroaching on YOUR time.

**Chairman:** No no.

**Employee:** OK.

**Chairman:** No no..that was...so..

**Employee:** He sounds like somewhat of a jerk.

**Chairman:** It was a..He was a hypocrite, for sure.

**Employee:** Can you do the voice again?

**Chairman:** [Imitating odious manager]: The voice, oh he used to speak like that... "But I don't think this is very work related, so think we should stop now."

**Employee:** [laughs] OK, let's stop now.

## Lesson 37 Types of appropriacy

### What is appropriacy?

Appropriacy refers to whether a word is suitable for the context it is being used in. It is an important aspect of language but an extremely complex one, as decisions about how to say things depend on understanding exactly what is right for the context and the culture. Example: It may be appropriate to say ‘hold on a minute, will you?’ in one context and ‘Could you wait a moment, please?’ in another. In the classroom focusing on inappropriate forms of language and delivery first is a good way to raise awareness of this area. For example, learners can identify inappropriate in language in video material such as comedy programmes, match language to contexts where it can be used, and discuss what is appropriate in their own cultures. In general, it is exposure to a range of authentic material that will help students develop their understanding of appropriacy. Grammar and vocabulary in professional contexts must meet requirements of style and tone.

### Nature of appropriacy

The grammar and vocabulary that enable a particular thing to be said correctly in English is generally quite flexible. However, some choices fit particular situations more suitably than others. For example, it is suitable in everyday conversation to speak of *lions*, but in technical zoological writing to speak of *Felis leo*. And in a letter demanding payment of *unpaid bills* it may be more suitable to speak of an *outstanding sum*, in order not to upset the addressee. It is choices like these that are commonly called “**appropriacy**”.

The first of the above examples illustrates a type of appropriacy known as “**style**”. The second example is more one of “**tone**”. In this post I wish to explore these **two different types of appropriacy** in more depth. In the process, I hope to present and illustrate a wide range of potentially useful vocabulary and grammar.

### Types of Appropriacy: Stylistic appropriacy

Wording that is stylistically appropriate is typical of the style (or type, or “register”) of speaking where it is located. Styles are defined by such features as their subject matter, purpose and medium of communication. In the other parts of this material where style features, the focus is mainly on the particular kind known as “academic”. Most of the language that is mentioned as appropriate to this style is vocabulary, such as *obtain* (rather than *get*), *large* (for *big*), *numerous* (for *a lot of*) and *encounter* (for *come across*).

Academic writing also makes stylistically appropriate grammatical choices. Some verb forms, such as the passive voice, enable unwanted pronouns like *we* to be avoided. Indirect questions are generally preferred to direct ones for introducing a topic. Coordinating conjunctions like *and*, *but* and *so* are not normally found at the start of a sentence.

Other styles of writing include literary, legal, journalistic, advisory and marketing. One characteristic of literary writing is its freedom to report historical speech in direct rather than indirect form. Another is a greater likelihood of poetic words like *host* (= crowd), *mortals* (= humans) and *smite* (= hit).

Legal writing has numerous specialized words, such as *persons* (= people), *parties* (= people who have made an agreement) and *offence/felony* (= crime). Journalistic writing likes short words like *pay* (= wages), *mar* (= spoil), *ban* (= prohibit) and *woo* (= try to persuade with promises). A grammatical feature is dropped *the* before people-describing nouns (e.g. ... *singer Bob Marley*).

Advisory writing is commonly found in government leaflets and product instructions. *You* and *your* are common, as are imperative verbs and modals like *. There* are often headings with a question word and infinitive verb, e.g. *What to Do Next* .

Marketing texts, which seek to promote a good image, present products and services in the most positive possible way. As a result, positive-sounding words are much more common than negative-sounding ones. The messages cannot usually be called untruthful, but sometimes they are so close to it that they can mislead.

Examples of typical but possibly dubious marketing language include *break* to describe a broadcasting interruption for advertisements, *new* for products that have merely been changed (often for the worse), and price *changes* or *adjustments* instead of the more precise *increases*. London Transport notices refer to a *good* service when they mean *normal* and to track *improvement* instead of *maintenance*. A problem with this last is ambiguity: it is easily understood as improvement of the nature of the track when in fact it might only mean restoration of its optimum condition.

Marketing language of a less controversial kind includes imperative verbs that highlight an advantage of a product (*Travel free of charge*), and positive-sounding adjectives in restaurant menus (*a delicious combination of exotic flavours*).

## Tonal Appropriacy

While style is a consequence of the type of speaking that one is engaged in, merely distinguishing one type from another, tone is a consequence of a speaker thinking about emotions that need to be aroused or avoided in the listener. A particular point may be makeable with different tones within a single style, though some tones may help a particular style to be identified. Tonal choices may reflect the culture of the speakers of the language (just like some words).

The following tone types are important:

### 1. Polite

Polite language seeks to prevent the reader being offended. Various ways of communicating politely are mentioned elsewhere within these pages. In spoken interactions, polite requests often begin *I would appreciate it if...* or *I would be grateful if...* . Questions aimed at gaining information – which run the risk of irritating the addressee – will sound politer if asked indirectly rather than directly. The following, for example, are politer equivalents of *What is your name?* and *Where is the library?*:

(a) **Could you tell me (what) your name (is)?**

(b) **I would like to know where the library is.**

For more about this kind of question.

In professional writing, a common situation where polite language is likely to be necessary is discussion of controversial ideas, for example within academic literature reviews. What especially requires politeness here is expressing disagreement with another writer's opinion – an obvious potential cause of hurt feelings. Moreover, the language expressing the actual disagreement is typically restrained. *Cannot agree* is more likely than *disagree* (because it suggests some effort has been made to agree). *Unconvincing* sounds politer than *simplistic* because it is vaguer about the reason for rejection. Similarly useful are *debatable* and *questionable*.



Another strategy, often mentioned in Business English coursebooks, is to put **not very** before the positive equivalent of a negative word. Thus, instead of *useless*, it sounds politer to say **not very useful** and *difficult* can become **not very easy**. For more examples of negative words.

## 2. Image-Conscious

Sometimes one has to say something negative about oneself. Writers who are worried about this causing their reader to judge them unfavourably have various ways of presenting the negative point in the best possible light. **Not very** is again useful. Negative verbs like *have not received* can be put into the *to* form after APPEAR (*We appear not to have received...*). Blunt words like *late*, *lost* and *debt* can be replaced by words that sound somehow less accusing, such as *delayed*, *mislaid* and *outstanding sum*.

## 3. Friendly

Sounding friendly is a particular goal of marketing language. One of the most ubiquitous means of achieving it is “personal” words like **my** and **your**. Most computer users will be familiar with the name **My Computer** that Microsoft used to give to its file-exploring program (along with folder names like **My Music**).

**Your** is very commonly linked with consumer products. Who has not encountered phrases like **your new phone** or **your smart TV**, even when these have been purchased for somebody else? **Your** is also increasingly popular with information documents like bank statements and bills. Even in academic writing, there are some advocates of using **you** more than is traditional – for example in laboratory instructions – in order to sound friendlier.

One problem with such words is that they do not always ring true. **My computer** assumes that the user of the computer is always its owner. The much more neutral **this**, which I personally always used to overwrite **my** with, leaves the ownership open. Thankfully, Microsoft too now seem to have stopped using **my**. However, expressions like **your bill** continue to proliferate. I find this particular one irksome because I see the bill as the sender's not mine!

The problem is further illustrated by an experience I had some years ago, when I sent a short piece about a degree course I was involved in to my university's marketing department. I wrote that **students** would do various things, but when the piece was published, this word had become **you**. I phoned to complain that **you** referred to the reader, who might be a parent or teacher of students rather than the students themselves, but was told that using **you** was “corporate policy”. Sounding friendly, it seemed, was more important than being accurate.

Not all ways of sounding friendly, however, are problematic. For example, much marketing literature these days uses direct questions as topic headings instead of noun phrases – e.g. **Who should I contact?** instead of **Contacts**. The effect is to reflect the listener's point of view rather than the speaker's. In most cases the questions are not isolated but located within lists of so-called “FAQs” (frequently asked questions).

## 4. Status-Influenced

Language changes according to whether it is addressed to somebody in a superior, equal or inferior position. For example, if you are seeking to have an action performed by a superior, you are likely to

use a request, whereas one needing to be performed by an inferior is likely to result in a command. Consider these words uttered by a student to a lecturer:

**(c) Would you mind looking again at what I have written?**

A lecturer wanting a student to do the same thing could easily begin *I want you to look* or *please look* (*please* seems to be becoming more associated in English with commands than requests!). A student speaking to another student, on the other hand, might prefer a suggestion (*why don't you look*). Status-influenced variation is also seen with accusations and complaints. Superiors can generally be more negative in their language than inferiors. Consider these words uttered by an employer to an employee:

**(d) You are failing to act in an appropriate fashion.**

An employee making the same point to their employer would need to avoid the negative *failing*, a possible solution being:

**(e) We wonder whether a different approach might be possible.**

***Exercise 1 Read conversations 1-3 and answer the questions:***

- 1) *Is it an appropriate context? Why? Why not?*
- 2) *Are the addressor and addressee appropriate?*
- 3) *Is the language appropriate?*
- 4) *Is the style appropriate?*

**Note: Conversation 1 is given above**

***Conversation 2***

**Father:** Good Morning, son.

**Son:** Good Morning.

**Father:** How are you doing?

**Son:** I am doing fine. Thank you.

**Father:** How was the traffic coming over here?

**Son:** I am so glad that the traffic was light this morning. No traffic jam and no accidents.

**Father:** That is good. Let's start. Are you ready?

**Son:** Yes, I am.

**Father:** First of all, let me properly introduce myself. I am the Finance Department Manager. As you know there is an open position in my department, and I need to fill this position as soon as possible.

**Son:** Please, tell me a little bit about the position.

**Father:** It is an entry-level position. The new employee will have to work closely with the Accounting department. He will also have to deal with the bank on a daily basis.

**Son:** What type of qualifications do you require?

**Father:** I require a four-year college degree in Finance. Some working experience would be helpful.

**Son:** What kind of experience are you looking for?

**Father:** Doing office work is good. However, since this is an entry-level position, I do not require a lot of experience. I am willing to train the new person.

**Son:** That is great!

**Father:** And tell me a little bit about yourself.

**Son:** I was a student at West Coast University, and I just graduated with a Bachelor degree in Finance. I have been working part-time as a payroll clerk for the last two years.

**Father:** What are you looking for in a job?

**Son:** The job should help me see what Finance is all about. I have learned a lot of Finance theories at school, and now it is time for me to put them into practice.

**Father:** Anything else?

**Son:** I also hope that it will help me grow in my field.

**Father:** What are your strengths? Why should I hire you?

**Son:** I am a hard-working person and a fast learner. I am very eager to learn, and I get along fine with people.

**Father:** OK. Now, let me ask you a few quick questions. You do not mind working long hours, do you?

**Son:** No, I do not.

**Father:** Can you handle pressure?

**Son:** Yes, I can. When I was going to school, I took quite a few courses each semester while working at least twenty hours every week. And, I handled that situation very well.

**Father:** Do you still have any questions for me?

**Son:** No, I think I have a pretty good understanding of the job. I believe that I can handle it with ease, and I hope to have the opportunity to work for you.

**Father:** Nice meeting you. Thank you for coming.

**Son:** Nice meeting you too. Thank you for seeing me.

### *Conversation 3*

**Secretary:** Hello. Quick Time Computers. May I help you?

**Caller:** Yes this is a Farida. May I speak to Fareeha Shahid, please?

**S:** I'm sorry but she's not in right now.

**C:** Okay do you know when she'll be back?

**S:** Uh, yeas she should be here later on this afternoon maybe about 4:30. May I take a message?

**C:** Yeas Ms. Fareeha sent me a brochure derailing your newest line of laptop computers with a description of other software products, but there wasn't any information about after-sales service.

**S:** Oh I'm sorry. Would you like me to fax that to you?

**C:** Yes but our fax is being repaired at the moment and it won't be working until around 2:30. Hum... could you try sending that information around 3:30?

**S:** Sure Could I have your name telephone number and fax number please?

**C:** Yes Farida Zia and the phone number is 6881278. And the fax number is 5881298.

**S:** Okay Farida Is your name spelled F-a-r-e-e-d-a?

**C:** No. It's Farida with "I" "F-a-r-i-d-a."

**S:** All right Miss Farida And your phone number is ..... and the fax number is ..... is that correct?

**C:** Yes it is.

**S:** All right. I'll be sure to send you the fax this afternoon.

**C:** Okay Bye.

***Exercise 2 Listen to the authentic conversation. Identify conversational features of Spoken Discourse. Decide whether the conversation is communicatively appropriate (Stylistic Appropriacy and Tonal appropriacy). Justify your answer with some example.***



Learn Real English - The Wedding Conversation (www.hotplayer.ru).mp3

In any language, different styles of expression are appropriate in different situations. We can go from the formal to the informal, the written to the spoken, from technical language (or jargon) to slang. There are no "rules" as such; nevertheless, there are plenty of features which distinguish formal styles from informal styles. Here are some of them.

### **Principles of English style:**

**Note: these are principles: they are by no means to be considered as "rules".**

- a) The more formal a document is, the more it will use inanimate nouns (i.e. things, processes, ideas, rather than people) as the subjects of sentences.
- b) The more formal language is, the more it is likely to use passive structures.
- c) The more formal language is, the more verbal nouns (i.e. nouns like *development* or *creation* ) it will use.
- d) The more formal a document is, the more words of Latin origin it will use.

### **Conversely**

- a) The more informal or spontaneous language is, the more it will use humans as the subjects of sentences.
- b) The more informal a text is, the less it will use passive structures,
- c) The more informal a text is, the more it will use verb structures where a choice is possible (i.e. *develop* or *create*) instead of verbal nouns.
- b) The more informal or spoken a text is, the more words of Germanic origin it will use.

Here are some examples; in each case, the same idea is expressed using three different levels of formality: look at the different changes that occur, as we move from a formal style to an informal one.

#### ***From formal to informal, written to spoken English***

1. The inclement climatic conditions obliged the President to return earlier than scheduled.

The president was obliged to return earlier than planned due to poor weather conditions.

The president had to go back sooner than planned because the weather was so bad.

2. Please await instructions before dispatching items.

Please wait for instructions before sending items off.

Don't send anything off until you're told to.

3. Essential measures should be undertaken at the earliest opportunity.

One should undertake any necessary measures at the earliest opportunity.

You should do whatever you have to as soon as you can.

4. Prior to the discovery of America, potatoes were not consumed in Europe.

Before America was discovered, potatoes were not eaten in Europe.

Before they discovered America, Europeans didn't eat potatoes.

Written and spoken versions of a language use different styles, different registers. To talk in "written English" may be no more appropriate than to write using a "spoken" variety of English. Generally speaking, written English is always more formal than spoken English. nevertheless, there are informal forms of written English (notably in fiction and in the popular press), and formal styles of spoken English, in particular "discourse", or prepared speech.

Written style can also be affected by the length of sentences used, the length of paragraphs, and other features of punctuation.

***The same idea expressed in six different styles:***

In the following examples, the same message is expressed in six different styles, from an extremely formal written style, to a very informal spoken style. Note in particular how the colour coded word groups evolve.

In order to demonstrate a full range of styles using a single "message", it is necessary to choose a subject or topic which people actually write or talk about in a whole range of contexts. These examples show the different styles, from the very formal to the informal, that could be used for expressing a message about government fiscal policy (or, to put it less formally, government tax policy). Different parts of the message are colour-coded: see how they change from one style to the next. Note that the British currency is formally known as "Sterling", and most often spoken about as "the Pound".

**a) Jargon, very formal.**

This is the style of language used in official reports, technical studies, etc. It is exclusively a style of written English, full of verbal nouns, technical words and passives.

Consequent to the appreciation in the exchange value of Sterling against other currencies, necessary fiscal measures were introduced by the government in order to reduce the likelihood of an import-led consumer spending surge.

**b) Written, formal, clear.**

This is clear, written English, as found in the "quality" press or in documents - even on technical subjects - aimed at ordinary educated readers.

*After the international value of Sterling rose, the government was obliged to take fiscal measures to reduce the likelihood of a surge in consumer spending led by cheaper imports.*

**c) Written style for the general public, discourse, scripted radio or TV news style.**

This is classic English written style, as found in books, popular newspapers, and magazines for the general public. It is the style of formal discourse – discourse being spoken English from a written or "scripted" text.

As the value of Sterling increased compared to other currencies, the government was forced to take tax measures to head off a rapid increase in consumer spending spurred on by cheaper imports.

**d) Formal spoken style - radio, seminar, talk.**

As Sterling's international value went up, the government had to take tax measures to head off a consumer spending boom spurred on by cheaper imports.

**e) Relaxed, informal spoken style: discussion.**

There is plenty of use of prepositional verbs. All actions are now expressed through verbs, not verbal nouns

As the Pound went up in value, the government had to put up taxes to stop consumers splashing out on too many cheap imports.

**f) relaxed, simplified, chat, very informal spoken style;**

**Note the addition of repetition and fillers.**

And you see, the Pound went up and up in value, so as a result the government had to go round putting up taxes, you see, to stop everyone going out and splashing out, spending all their cash on cheap imports.

***Exercise 1 You are going to analyze communicative appropriacy in different cultural contexts. You are provided with sample conversations from British/American culture. Read the conversations, choose one conversation and identify conversational features of it. Compare with your culture and fill in the table.***

**Features proper to  
British/American  
culture**

**Common features**

**Features proper to  
Uzbek (Russian)  
culture**

## **Conversations**

### ***Conversation between an employee and boss (asking for a leave)***

**Employee-** Sir , I have completed the file of Mr. Raj.I have called Mr. Ranjan also and informed him that his loan installment is due.

**Boss-** Ok that is fine but have you called all the people who are supposed to take loan from us.

**Employee:** Sir I have started the work and have called 40% people.

**Boss-** Only forty % people .What you people think ? I gave you this work yesterday evening and it is 12 now .You have not done the work yet.

**Employee:** Sir I need to entertain the customer also .I have to take their queries also .You know sir I have motivated three people to take loan from us .

**Boss-** What do you want to say .If you work something else ,you will not fulfill your other duties.

**Employee:** No sir I will complete it by the evening .

**Boss:** Not by the evening I want it to be done within 2 hours.

**Employee:** Yes sir I will try my best. I need one more favour sir.

**Boss-** Yes tell.

**Employee-** Sir .I need a leave tomorrow.

**Boss-** For which purpose ?

**Employee-** Sir I need to go somewhere tomorrow.

**Boss-** Where ?

**Employee:** Sir, I need to take my mother home from the village.

**Boss-** No you cannot take leave .Tomorrow there may be an important meeting .

**Employee:** Sir .It is very important.

**Boss-** When I have said no means no .

**Employee:** (When he was not interested in giving me the leave then why did he take all the information)

### ***Conversation between a daughter and a father***

**Daughter:** Papa, I want to talk to you about something important. Do you have a few minutes now?

**Father:** I have to leave soon for my card game tonight. Let's make it quick!

**Daughter:** Now that I am older and commute across town to school, I really need a cell phone. I know they are expensive but...

**Father:** (Cutting her off) You always want something—usually a luxury item—even though you know money is tight in this family!

**Daughter:** Papa, a cell phone will help all of us, especially as I take on more responsibility for collecting my sister at her school and doing errands for Mama.

**Father:** Young lady, you do not seem to realize that there are many things my income needs to cover, and I have to decide how to spend it in the best interest of everyone.

**Daughter:** Sorry, Papa, I did not mean to make you angry. I know it is hard to manage so many demands on the budget. I can wait to get a cell phone. Do you think it would be possible to come up with a plan for buying one in the future? I am earning money myself now, helping Aunt Sandra at her market stall. It is very little, but still, if I save, I can have P800 in two months. If I am able to do that, would you consider helping me pay the balance?

**Father:** I guess I could consider that. But don't expect me to pay for your prepaid load!

### ***Conversation between a mother and a son.***

**Mother** – Every time you watch television only. Don't you know your exams are going to start in next week.

**Son** – Yes .I know. I can not study every time.

**Mother** – Who is asking you to study every time but give the sufficient time for your studies.

**Son** – I came from the school at 2. Then at 4 I went for the tuition. Now you want me to study again.

**Mother** – What is time now.

**Son** – It is 9 now.

**Mother** – So what did you do from three hours?

**Son** – Do not I have my own life ?

**Mother** – You are living your life according to you as much as required. When you will get settled in your life then you are free to live your life as you want. We will not interfere in your life. But till then you will have to work according to us.

**Son** – But why. I have right to live according to me.

**Mother** – Yes, you have to live life according to you. You wear what you want. We purchase the things which you want. You took those subjects which you want. We give all the things which you



want. So you are living according to you. But as it is the matter of future, you will have to work under our guidance.

**Son** – This is not done .I want to live a life according to me as it is my life.

**Mother** – Ok my son it is your life. You live according to you but take us out of your life .

**Son** – Why ?

**Mother** – Because you want to live your life according to you.

**Son** – I did not say that. I want you in my life. Without you I am nothing .

**Mother** – But we interfere in your life so we are very bad. We do not want to see you happy.

**Son** – Ok I do agree now. Whatever you say that is for me good. I will study at 10 till then please let me watch TV.

**Mother** – Ok keep your promise.

### ***Conversation between a teacher and a student.***

**Teacher** – Rahul , why did you not complete your homework as I told you to complete that .

**Rahul** – Sir , Â I was ill yesterday .

**Teacher** – Rahul do not tell a lie I saw you outside a picture hall .

**Rahul** – No sir that must be my twine brother.

**Teacher** – Oh very funny . You want to say that you have a twin brother and he looks like you .

**Rahul** – Yes sir

**Teacher** – Have you gone mad ? DO not you know I know your father since my childhood and I know how many sister brother are you ?

**Rahul** – Sorry sir I was joking .

**Teacher** – How dare you to crack a joke ?

**Rahul** – Sir I was scared that you will beat me . When you asked me the question I got scared and said whatever came in my mind .

**Teacher** – Ok Now tell me why you did not complete your homework ?

**Rahul** – Sir yesterday my cousin and my aunt came and I was busy with them . I had to give them the company and could not complete the work .

**Teacher** – O.K. now I want the work to be completed by tomorrow .

**Rahul** –Yes, sir.

### ***Conversation between a husband and a wife.***

**Wife:** So you are late again. Why did you come late today. You told me to get ready at 8 and it is 11 now where were you for last three hours.

**Husband:** Sorry I suddenly had to go for the meeting. I had to attend that. To miss that meeting means to bear the loss of 10 lakhs.

**Wife:** Do not make excuses I am aware of you and your habits. Tell me if you had to go for a meeting then why did not you inform me for that.

**Husband:** I called you up but your mobile was out of coverage area.

**Wife:** Oh What an excuse ! I am here only from the morning and you are saying that my cell was out of coverage. Could you please show me your mobile.

**Husband:** Why do you want to see my mobile ?

**Wife:** I want to check either you called me or not.

**Husband:** Do not you have trust in me .You have trust in mobile but not in your own husband .

**Wife:** No actually I want to check my mobile is there any problem in my mobile and for that I will have to take your mobile as I want to ring my mobile up .So what the problem do you have ?

**Husband:** Actually in the morning I forgot to charge my mobile so while going for the meeting it was switched off . So you can not get your no in dial list.

**Wife:** That's great you always have good reasons . I want to take classes from you. When are we starting our classes.

**Husband:** Do you know one thing you are very rigid . You don't have faith in me, that's why you always fight with me .

**Wife:** How can I trust you when you do not care of me . You did not even told me about your meeting and here I had been waiting for three hours getting ready .Did not you even think about me ?

**Husband:** No I take care of you a lot. I know you must be waiting for me and I did not even inform you. I make you sure that we will go tomorrow.

**Wife:** No you are telling lie. Today also you said the same.

**Husband:** Yes I said but believe me tomorrow I will not repeat it again.

**Wife:** O.k. but what if you repeat it again.

**Husband:** I will do whatever you will say.

### *Conversation between friends.*

**A:** Hurrah! Only ten days to the holidays.

**B:** I know. I have been counting the days. I am just sick of school.

**A:** So am I. What are you going to do with your rit these holidays?

**B:** I should like to go to the hills for a change. But that means money, and I don't think my father will give it to me. What are you going to do?

**A:** Oh, I shall go home. My home is in the hilly part, where it is fairly cool in the summer; and I think I shall find plenty to do there.

**B:** You are lucky. My home is in the plains and it is very hot, and I soon get tired of the small village life.

**A:** Well, look here! Why not come to my home and stay with me for a few weeks?

**B:** That would be fine. But I don't suppose your father would want me there. I should only be in the way.

**A:** Not at all! Father told me last year, when I was at home, that I should bring one of my school-fellow with me, and have a good time. So come along!

**B:** I should love it! It's very kind of you.

**A:** Splendid! We can have some good time together.

**B:** So we shall. Thank awfully.

**A:** Oh! You need not thank me; because I shall myself have a much jollier time with you there than if I were alone.

## **Lesson 39 Genres and Discourse**

## What Is a Genre?

Ever have a friend suggest a movie to go see, but you responded, 'I'm not in the mood for that?' What did you mean? Was it a scary movie and you were in the mood to laugh? Was it a sad movie, but you wanted some action? If so, then you already know about genres.

A **genre** is a broad term that translates from the French to mean 'kind' or 'type.' In entertainment, this can translate to horror, romance, science fiction, etc. In general, these types differ for all sorts of reasons, from the actions in their plots to the feelings they elicit from the audience. However, in literature, there are some more defined genres. It is important to know which genre a piece of work falls into because the reader will already have certain expectations before he even begins to read.

Genre, in broad terms, refers to any works that share certain characteristics. If enough characteristics are in common, then the pieces are said to be in the same genre. In literature, there are four main genres to help the reader focus their expectations for the piece, though these genres can be broken down even further.

### *Types and Characteristics of Genres: Poetry*

A main literary genre is **poetry**. All poems share specific characteristics. For example, poetry is written in lines and stanzas instead of sentences and paragraphs. Some poems follow strict rules as to the number and length of lines and stanzas, whereas many poems are much more free-flowing.

Most poetry is abundant in figurative language. Using devices like a simile, metaphor, hyperbole, onomatopoeia, alliteration, rhyme, and much more, poetry can claim an emphasis on imagination, emotions, and heartfelt ideas.

Poetry is usually shorter than the other genres, but some poems are classified as **epic poetry**, which is long narrative poetry chronicling heroic deeds and serious subject matter. For example, John Milton's epic poem ***Paradise Lost*** focuses on Satan's fall from grace and his following pursuit of revenge.

### *Types and Characteristics of Genres: Fiction*

Poetry, however, is not the only genre that can utilize figurative language. Similarly, **fiction**, which is any work written in prose that is not real, can also use elaborate figurative language. However, fiction is much more structured than poetry. It must be written in sentences and paragraphs with all the proper punctuation and grammar, which makes it prose. Usually, fiction is broken up into chapters, as well.

Since it is based on the imagination, the subject matter in fiction works can be nearly anything. Fiction can take place in the present day, the future, or the past. It can incorporate the most fantastical ideas or follow an everyday life. Some examples of works of fiction are legends, folk tales, fairy tales, short stories, and any novels. For example, the popular ***Hunger Games*** and ***Divergent*** trilogies are fiction which occurs in a post-apocalyptic future.

### *Types and Characteristics of Genres: Nonfiction*

A third broad literary genre is nonfiction. If fiction is fake, then **nonfiction** is the opposite: it comes from real life. Works of nonfiction are all based in real-world experiences. When you read the newspaper, you are reading nonfiction. Other examples include journals, diaries, biographies, autobiographies, and essays.

Nonfiction can also use figurative language; however, it is not as abundant as in poetry and even fiction. Figurative language in this genre generally comes through common phrases which are well-known and used on a daily basis by many. These pieces are written in prose, like fiction, and sometimes even in chapters.

For example, the popular book *Anne Frank: Diary of a Young Girl* is broken up into her specific diary entries. This book is simply a published diary written by a teenage Jewish girl who hid from the Germans in World War II. The diary was found after the girl perished, and her family published it without changing the written words. What Anne wrote was real. It was her life, and a great example of nonfiction.

### Genre categories: fiction and nonfiction

Genre may fall under one of two categories: fiction and non-fiction. Any genre can be either a work of fiction (nonfactual descriptions and events invented by the author) or a work of nonfiction (a communication in which descriptions and events are understood to be factual).

#### Fiction

- Classic – fiction that has become part of an accepted literary canon, widely taught in schools
- Crime/detective – fiction about a crime, how the criminal gets caught, and the repercussions of the crime
- Fable – narration demonstrating a useful truth, especially in which speak as humans; legendary, supernatural tale
- Fairy tale – story about fairies or other magical creatures
- Fan fiction – fiction written by a fan of, and featuring characters from, a particular TV series, movie, or book
- Fantasy – fiction with strange or otherworldly settings or characters; fiction which invites suspension of reality
- Fiction in verse – full-length novels with plot, subplot(s), theme(s), major and minor characters, in which the narrative is presented in verse form (usually free verse)
- Fiction narrative – literary works whose content is produced by the imagination and is not necessarily based on fact
- Folklore – the songs, stories, myths, and proverbs of a people or "folk" as handed down by word of mouth
- Historical fiction – story with fictional characters and events in a historical setting
- Horror – fiction in which events evoke a feeling of dread and sometimes fear in both the characters and the reader
- Humor – Usually a fiction full of fun, fancy, and excitement, meant to entertain and sometimes cause intended laughter; but can be contained in all genres
- Legend – story, sometimes of a national or folk hero, that has a basis in fact but also includes imaginative material
- Magical realism – story where magical or unreal elements play a natural part in an otherwise realistic environment

- Meta fiction (also known as romantic irony in the context of Romantic works of literature) – uses self-reference to draw attention to itself as a work of art while exposing the "truth" of a story
- Mystery – this is fiction dealing with the solution of a crime or the unraveling of secrets
- Mythology – legend or traditional narrative, often based in part on historical events, that reveals human behavior and natural phenomena by its symbolism; often pertaining to the actions of the gods
- Mythopoeia – fiction in which characters from religious mythology, traditional myths, folklore and/or history are recast into a re-imagined realm created by the author
- Picture book – picture storybook is a book with very little words and a lot of pictures, picture stories are usually for little kids
- Realistic fiction – story that is true to life
- Science fiction – story based on the impact of actual, imagined, or potential science, usually set in the future or on other planets
- Short story – fiction of such brevity that it supports no subplots
- Suspense/thriller – fiction about harm about to befall a person or group and the attempts made to evade the harm
- Tall tale – humorous story with blatant exaggerations, such as swaggering heroes who do the impossible with nonchalance
- Western – set in the American Old West frontier and typically set in the late eighteenth to late nineteenth century

#### **Common genres: nonfiction**

- Biography/autobiography – narrative of a person's life; a true story about a real person
- Essay – a short literary composition that reflects the author's outlook or point.
- Owner's manual (also Instruction manual, User's guide) – an instructional book or booklet that is supplied with consumer products such as vehicles, home appliances, firearms, toys and computer peripherals
- Journalism – reporting on news and current events
- Lab Report – a report of an experiment
- Memoir – factual story that focuses on a significant relationship between the writer and a person, place, or object; reads like a short novel
- Narrative nonfiction/personal narrative – factual information about a significant event presented in a format which tells a story
- Reference book – such as a dictionary, thesaurus, encyclopedia, almanac, or atlas
- Self-help book – information with the intention of instructing readers on solving personal problems.
- Speech – public address or discourse
- Textbook – authoritative and detailed factual description of a topic.

#### **Literary fiction vs. genre fiction[edit]**

Literary fiction is a term used to distinguish certain fictional works that possess commonly held qualities to readers outside genre fiction. Literary fiction has been defined as any fiction that attempts to engage with one or more truths or questions, hence relevant to a broad scope of humanity as a form of expression. There are many sources that help readers find and define literary fiction and genre fiction

## Genres and subgenres

One of the most important considerations is the genre or form the writing will take: a story? a letter? a poem? an essay? A writing activity could be handled in any one of these ways. Students learn to use a variety of writing genres; six are described in the table below. Through reading and writing, students become knowledgeable about these genres and how they're structured (Donovan & Smolkin, 2002). Langer (1985) found that by third grade, students respond in distinctly different ways to story- and report-writing assignments; they organize the writing differently and include varied kinds of information and elaboration. Because students are learning the distinctions between various genres, it's important that teachers use the correct terminology and not label all writing as "stories."

Genre	Purpose	Activities
<b>Descriptive Writing</b>	Students observe carefully and choose precise language. They take notice of sensory details and create comparisons (metaphors and similes) to make their writing more powerful.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Character sketches</li> <li>• Comparisons</li> <li>• Descriptive essays</li> <li>• Descriptive sentences</li> <li>• Found poems</li> </ul>
<b>Expository Writing</b>	Students collect and synthesize information. This writing is objective; reports are the most common type. Students use expository writing to give directions, sequence steps, compare one thing to another, explain causes and effects, or describe problems and solutions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Alphabet books</li> <li>• Autobiographies</li> <li>• Directions</li> <li>• Essays</li> <li>• Posters</li> <li>• Reports</li> <li>• Summaries</li> </ul>
<b>Journals and Letters</b>	Students write to themselves and to specific, known audiences. Their writing is personal and often less formal than other genres. They share news, explore new ideas, and record notes. Students learn the special formatting that letters and envelopes require.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Business letters</li> <li>• Courtesy letters</li> <li>• Double-entry journals</li> <li>• E-mail messages</li> <li>• Friendly letters</li> <li>• Learning logs</li> <li>• Personal journals</li> </ul>
<b>Narrative Writing</b>	Students retell familiar stories, develop sequels for stories they have read, write stories about events in their own lives, and create original stories. They include a beginning, middle, and end in the narratives to develop the plot and characters.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Original short stories</li> <li>• Personal narratives</li> <li>• Retellings of stories</li> <li>• Sequels to stories</li> <li>• Story scripts</li> </ul>
<b>Persuasive Writing</b>	Persuasion is winning someone to your viewpoint or cause using appeals to logic, moral character, and emotion. Students present their position clearly and support it with examples and evidence.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advertisements</li> <li>• Book and movie reviews</li> <li>• Letters to the editor</li> <li>• Persuasive essays</li> <li>• Persuasive letters</li> </ul>
<b>Poetry</b>	Students create word pictures and play with	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Acrostic poems</li> </ul>

<b>Writing</b>	rhyme and other stylistic devices as they create poems. Through their wordplay, students learn that poetic language is vivid and powerful but concise and that poems can be arranged in different ways on a page.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Color poems</li> <li>• Free verse Haiku “I Am” poems</li> <li>• Poems for two voices</li> </ul>
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### **Five Types of Genres in Writing**

Writing has changed greatly from primitive pictographic word-pictures on clay and wood to the many types of writing now enjoyed. Writing comes in dozens of types and styles, depending the purpose of the writer. One way to examine writing is to divide writing into specific types or genres. There are five broad genres that most subcategories of writing can be placed into, although much writing can spill over into more than one.

#### **1. Expository Writing**

One of the most practical types of writing is writing to explain things. This explanatory form is commonly employed in school in the form of the standard five-paragraph essay, research papers and comparisons. Also in this category are biographies, "how-to" pieces and character sketches. The purpose of this genre is to explain and examine a person, place, thing or idea in a way that gives the reader a more thorough understanding of the topic.

#### **2. Journals and Letter Writing**

Writing to communicate is an early writing style that has undergone changes in the technological era. This sometimes less-formal method of writing includes letter writing, email, text messaging, personal and professional journals, blogging and business or personal written communication. This genre tends to focus on the individual personality and intent of the writer more than explaining something and is more personal than older forms. It is also more likely to be written in first person than other genres.

#### **3. Narrative Writing**

Another genre is the story. Since the days of primitive communication such as cave paintings and hieroglyphics, people have attempted to document what has happened in their lives. These stories may or may not be true, because they are told from the writer's prospective. Narrative, story-telling writing catalogs events for current and future readers to explain the events from a specific prospective. Examples of this genre are short stories and narrative works, as well as autobiographies and histories.

#### **4. Persuasive Writing**

Sometimes, writing has a more pointed purpose. Writing to persuade involves offering not only facts but also a slant that directs the reader to make a commitment or decision. While spanning many diverse sub-genres, this writing always attempts to lead the reader to do what the writer requests of him. Examples of this genre include promotional and political advertisements, merchandise or other reviews, propaganda, letters in the editorial section of a newspaper and fundraising letters.

## 5. Descriptive Writing

Sometimes, writing is performed simply to express emotion, display feelings or merely as a fun exercise. Writing as art encompasses many topics and may or may not have a deep meaning or purpose. The value, appreciation and translation of this work can vary greatly by who reads it. Poetry is the classic example of this genre, although fiction, nonsense writing and text-message emoticons can also fall into this category. This category can spill into the other genres but will typically look much different in the process.

***Exercise 1 Different text types for analysis. Below you will find eight different types of written text (extracts from the original sources, slightly regularised). For each, state***

- a) what type of text it is
- b) where you are likely find such a text
- c) what the purpose of each is
- d) what you go by to decide its purpose
- e) what stands out as noteworthy in the way the language is used

**For each of the extracts you are supposed to write a short text which answers questions a) – e).**

### Text 1

The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-Time is a murder mystery like no other. The detective and narrator is Christopher Boone. Christopher is fifteen and has Asperger's Syndrome. He knows a very great deal about maths and very little about human beings. He loves lists, patterns and the truth. He hates the colours yellow and brown and being touched. He has never gone further than the end of the road on his own, but when he finds a neighbour's dog murdered, he sets out on a terrifying journey which will turn his whole world upside down. Mark Haddon's portrayal of an emotionally dissociated mind is a superb achievement... Wise and bleakly funny. (Ian McEwan)

### Text 2

It must have been around midnight when I drove home, and as I approached the house I turned off the lights of the car so that the beam would not shine through the window and wake up Harry Pope. But I need not have troubled. Coming through the gateway, I noticed that his light was on, so he was awake, unless perhaps he had fallen asleep while reading.

I parked the car, entered the house, turned on the light in the hall and opened the door to Harry's room. He was lying on the bed, awake, but he didn't move. "Timber, Timber," he said, "come here. Don't make a noise, take your shoes off..."

### Text 3



## **HARLEM**

What happens to a dream deferred?

Does it dry up like a raisin in the sun?

Or fester like a sore-

And then run?

Does it stink like rotten meat?

Or crust and sugar over –

Like a syrupy sweet?

May be it just sags

Like a heavy load

Or does it explode?

### **Text 4**

- 1 Wipe the ribs and place skin side up in roasting tin
- 2 Sprinkle with salt and cook at 400 degrees F for 30 mins.
- 3 Gently fry the onion in lard until soft but not coloured
- 4 Blend together all other ingredients except the prunes and apricots.
- 5 Add to onions, simmer a few minutes
- 6 Pour off excess fat from ribs and cut ribs in portions
- 7 Leave in tin and pour sauce over. Continue to cook at 400 degrees for 30 mins.
- 8 Add drained fruit, spoon sauce over and cook for further 5 mins.
- 9 Serve with parsleyed new potatoes
- 10 To really enjoy spare-ribs, nibble every scrap off the bone. Use your hands!

### **Text 5**

#### **Travel chaos disrupts bank holiday Britons**

Millions of Britons heading away for the bank holiday weekend face lengthy delays from rail works and congested roads. Train passengers will be badly hit, with engineering work causing cancellations and service alterations on dozens of routes. Transport problems are likely to be exacerbated as people seek to exploit the predicted warm weather – particularly in the South - following the gloomy Easter weekend.

### Text 6

Friction is a force that appears whenever one surface rubs against another, or when an object moves through water, air, or any other liquid or gas. It always opposes motion. Friction happens because two surfaces in close contact grip each other. The harder they press together, the stronger the grip. The same molecular forces are at work as in springs.

### Text 7

Grace – Space – Pace  
Nothing beats a Jaguar

### Text 8

#### Front Britain

I always knew this country was stupid, back in 1979. we in Liverpool were typecast as ‘dolites’. Dear old Margaret Thatcher (the Bitch) screwed the country and the politicians are screwing the taxpayer. That’s why I support my legs! Cos they support me. Have not voted in any election and never will.  
WAKE UP BRITAIN.

Promise everything; deliver now.

1. ‘Harlem’ by Langston Hughes, in *The Collected Poems of Langston Hughes*, Alfred A. Knopf, Random House, 1994;
2. ‘Poison’ by Roald Dahl in *Taste and Other Tales*, -simplified by Michael Cauldon, Longman, 1980. Adapted.
3. ‘The Curious Incident of the Dog in the Night-time’, Vintage Books, London, 2004

### *Compare your writings with following variants*

#### Text 1

Text 1 is a text that is intended to arouse readers’ interest in a book of fiction and in that way promote the sale of the book. It is found on its back cover (and in other publicity material) and is sometimes referred to as a blurb (‘vaskeseddel’).

Typically such texts contain many positive and intriguing formulations (*murder mystery like no other, terrifying journey..., turns his whole world around...*), all meant to make people curious and buy the book. They often contain glowing recommendations in the form of quotes from other authors and/or literary magazines. Blurbs are really a special type of advertising text. The language is fairly difficult, particularly in the quotes, cf. *portrayal of an emotionally dissociated mind*, so we may conclude that the text is aimed at grown-up readers.

#### Text 2

This text is an extract from a piece of fiction. We are thrown into a first person story and see everything from that person’s perspective. Stories are to be read and enjoyed. Often there is something, an event or special character, which makes us read on because it excites us. In this extract there is a sequence of actions leading up to something that creates suspense.

*Timber, timber... don’t make a noise, take your shoes off...*

The language is so simple that it is probably intended for young readers.

### Text 3

Text 3 is a piece of poetry. We see this from the line division and from the rhymes: *sun-run, meat-sweet, load- explode*. More noteworthy is the consistent use of figures of speech, here a series of similes: *dry up LIKE a raisin, fester LIKE a sore, stink LIKE rotten meat, sugar over LIKE syrupy sweet, sags LIKE a heavy load*.

These technicalities are still less important than the pregnant and compact language which focuses on a political problem – racial inequality – with a new and potentially threatening outcome.

The interpretation is dependent on the reader's ability to associate 'dream deferred' with Martin Luther King's *I have a Dream* speech.

As a genre, poetry rests on its ability to express thoughts and ideas in novel, striking, compact and elegant form.

Note that the entire poem consists of interrogative sentences, which means that the reader is invited to ponder what happens if the dream of racial equality is never fulfilled. Will it result in violence (explode)?, continue to plague the nation (stink like rotten meat)?, become less harmful (dry up like a raisin in the sun)?, etc.

### Text 4

This is a recipe; the kind of text you find in cooking books. We know this from the words that refer to the ingredients needed for the dish, the utensils necessary and the order of the sentences which matches that in the cooking process.

But we also know it from the way the language is used. There is a series of 'verbs of doing' in the imperative form followed by noun phrases as direct objects and possibly adverbials denoting how the action is to be done: Cf:

Wipe the ribs and place...

Sprinkle with salt and cook...

Gently fry the onion...

Add to onions, simmer five minutes...

Serve with parsleyed new potatoes...

To really enjoy... nibble every scrap... **Use your hands!**

### Text 5

This is a news text, an objective and 'depersonalised' report of what might happen to Britons setting out on the country's congested roads and rail networks ahead of a bank holiday weekend.

The text is primarily intended to inform, but may of course lead to change of plans, and therefore indirectly function as advice.

Its language is typical of news reportage. It has

- a compact heading where *bank holiday Britons* is a noun phrase
- fairly long sentences
- no *I* or *you* to make the text personal
- a vocabulary that includes some difficult words, *congest, alteration, exacerbate, exploit*
- actions turned into nouns:... *causing cancellations and service alterations*
- passive verbs: *will be badly hit, to be exacerbated*.

**Text 6**

This text offers a technical explanation of a physical law. It contains a fair number of nouns which denote physical objects or properties, cf. *force, surface, water, air, liquid gas, motion, contact, molecular force*. It is in the simple present tense, the verb form appropriate to refer to never-changing phenomena.

This type of explanatory text is likely to appear in textbooks, reference works, etc.

**Text 7**

This is an advertisement. We recognize *Jaguar* as the name of a high-quality car and the statement: *Nothing beats a Jaguar* contains the customary hype.

But then, in addition, the first line has three one-syllabic, rhyming words referring to the positive qualities of the car. In that way, the line sticks in the reader's mind.

**Text 8**

This is a personal blog. It expresses a subjective point of view full of frustration and anger in informal and offensive language, *screwed the country, the Bitch*. The writer tries to be funny by exploiting the related meanings of *support* in *I support my legs, Cos they support me*.

*Nowt* is a dialect word for *nothing*.

## Lesson 40 Crime/detective genre analysis

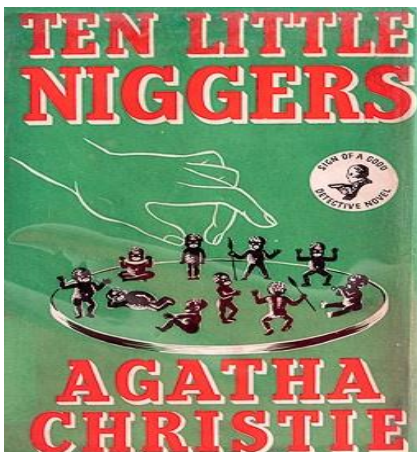
Crime fiction is the literary genre that fictionalises crimes, their detection, criminals, and their motives. It is usually distinguished from mainstream fiction and other genres such as historical fiction or science fiction, but the boundaries are indistinct. Crime fiction has multiple subgenres, including detective fiction (such as the whodunit), courtroom drama, hard-boiled fiction and legal thrillers. Most crime drama focus on crime investigation and does not feature the court room. Suspense and mystery are key elements that are nearly ubiquitous to the genre.

The period between World War I and World War II (the 1920s and 1930s) is generally referred to as the Golden Age of Detective Fiction. During this period, a number of very popular writers emerged, including mostly British but also a notable subset of American and New Zealand writers. Female writers constituted a major portion of notable Golden Age writers. Agatha Christie, Dorothy L. Sayers, Josephine Tey, Margery Allingham, and Ngaio Marsh were particularly famous female writers of this time. Apart from Ngaio Marsh (a New Zealander), they were all British.

Various conventions of the detective genre were standardized during the Golden Age, and in 1929, some of them were codified by writer Ronald Knox in his 'Decalogue' of rules for detective fiction. One of his rules was to avoid supernatural elements so that the focus remained on the mystery itself. Knox has contended that a detective story "must have as its main interest the unravelling of a mystery; a mystery whose elements are clearly presented to the reader at an early stage in the proceedings, and whose nature is such as to arouse curiosity, a curiosity which is gratified at the end. Another common convention in Golden Age detective stories involved an outsider — sometimes a salaried investigator or a police officer, but often a gifted amateur — investigating a murder committed in a closed environment by one of a limited number of suspects.



**Dame Agatha Mary Clarissa Christie, Lady Mallowan, DBE** (born **Miller**; 15 September 1890 – 12 January 1976) was an English writer. She is known for her 66 detective novels and 14 short story collections, particularly those revolving around her fictional detectives Hercule Poirot and Miss Marple. Christie also wrote the world's longest-running play, a murder mystery, *The Mousetrap*, and six romances under the name **Mary Westmacott**. In 1971 she was appointed a Dame Commander of the Order of the British Empire (DBE) for her contribution to literature.



*And Then There Were None* is a mystery novel by English writer Agatha Christie, widely considered her masterpiece and described by her as the most difficult of her books to write.<sup>[2]</sup> It was first published in the United Kingdom by the Collins Crime Club on 6 November 1939, as *Ten Little Niggers*, after the British blackface song, which serves as a major plot point. The US edition was not released until December 1939; its American reprints and adaptations were all retitled *And Then There Were None*, after the last five words of the song.

It is Christie's best-selling novel, with more than 100 million copies sold; it is also the world's best-selling mystery and one of the best-selling books of all time. Publications International lists the novel as the sixth best-selling title.

**Extract** from Agatha Christie's *Autobiography*

I "had written the book *Ten Little Niggers* because it was so difficult to do that the idea had fascinated me. Ten people had to die without it becoming ridiculous or the murderer being obvious. I wrote the book after a tremendous amount of planning, and I was pleased with what I had made of it. It was clear, straightforward, baffling, and yet had a perfectly reasonable explanation; in fact, it had to have an epilogue in order to explain it. It was well received and reviewed, but the person who was really pleased with it was myself, for I knew better than any critic how difficult it had been... I don't say it is the play or book of mine that I like best, or even that I think it is my best, but I do think in some ways that it is a better piece of craftsmanship than anything else I have written."

### **Nursery rhyme about Ten little Niggers**

Ten little nigger boys went out to dine;  
One choked his little self, and then there were nine.

Nine little nigger boys sat up very late;  
One overslept himself, and then there were eight.

Eight little nigger boys traveling in Devon;  
One said he'd stay there, and then there were seven.

Seven little nigger boys chopping up sticks;  
One chopped himself in half, and then there were six.

Six little nigger boys playing with a hive;  
A bumble-bee stung one, and then there were five.

Five little nigger boys going in for law;  
One got in chancery, and then there were four.

Four little nigger boys going out to sea;  
A red herring swallowed one, and then there were three.

Three little nigger boys walking in the zoo;  
A big bear hugged one, and then there were two.

Two little nigger boys sitting in the sun;  
One got frizzled up, and then there was one.

One little nigger boy left all alone;

He went out and hanged himself and then there were None.

(One little nigger boys living all alone;  
He got married, and then there were none.)  
in the nursery rhyme's original version

***Exercise 1 Do text analysis***

1. Talk about the theme of the text.
2. Discuss the writing style of the text.
3. Determine the usage use of language to achieve communicative purposes.
4. Identify literal devices of the text.
5. Define various discourse patterns in the text.

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**novateurpublication.org**

<https://www.superteacherworksheets.com>

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