An Introduction to Idiomatic expressions, using particles up, out, off and on, which lead to culture interference when reading and writing in english as a foreign language

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An Introduction to Idiomatic expressions, using particles “up, out, off and on”, which lead to Culture Interference when Reading and Writing in English as a foreign language

BY

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This monograph is presented as a partial fulfillment for the requirement to the Degree of Licensee in modern languages

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I. INTRODUCTION

This is by no means a complete paper. It is only one more step towards mastering the complexity of language and it can be carried out to a further stage by another student of a later time.

From Idioms to Idiomaticity

What do you think of when you think of an idiom? Consider the following. He stabbed me in the back, She sent me on a wild goose chase, and I bit off more than I could chew? It is this type of idiom that usually comes to mind - ‘colorful’ ones, with an extravagant turn of phrase and clearly exhibiting a non-literal use of language. Seen like this, idioms have traditionally been designated a place very late on in the order of ‘things that students need to (or indeed are able to) learn’. But what about the following:

• There’s nothing to it.
• I learned the hard way.
• I can’t see the point.
• I’ve changed my mind.
• It’ll take you a good hour.
• Please, will somebody answer the door?

Are these idioms? They are in many ways so ordinary that they don’t, at first sight, seem to merit the title of idioms. But the use of
language is anything but literal and the meanings may not be obvious to learners at all. Let’s consider each one individually.

We know *there’s nothing to it* means ‘it’s very easy’ but that is not obvious from the words themselves. If you *learn the hard way* is it just hard or does it mean more specifically that you make mistakes before you figure out what to do? What does *point* mean? Is it the same *point* as *I always make a point of...* or *That’s beside the point*? When I told my wife recently, *I’ve changed my mind* she replied *"Let’s hope the new one works better than the old one."* No, that is clearly non-literal as well. What’s *good* about an *hour*, especially when it means *at least*? And finally, most students will be more used to *answering questions*, than *answering the door*.

These idiomatic expressions have words, which are used in a non-literal way and the meaning of each expression is more or less opaque for a learner - some meanings can easily be guessed in context while others are not so easy.

English is full of such language - expressions which are made up of ordinary words used in non-literal ways which, in most teachers’ and learners’ eyes do not have the status of idioms, but which do have the quality of *idiomaticity*. All expressions are on a spectrum of
idiomaticity; with differing degrees of fixedness of form and opacity of meaning.

Widening the concept of idioms from a fairly restricted category of language to combinations of words, which bear more or less idiomaticity, is extremely helpful. This term prevents us from ignoring areas of natural language such as collocations and expressions, which are fundamental building blocks of the language (a term which helps us to 'see' what there is in text which is worthy of learners' attention).
I. PRELIMINARY DATA OF THE PROJECT

A. RESEARCH SUBJECT

An introduction to the study of Idiomatic Expressions; an analysis of the interference caused by some Idioms at reading and writing in English, when learning it as a foreign language on 11\textsuperscript{th} Grade students at the C.E.V. (Colegio Emilio Valenzuela).

A. TITLE

An Introduction to the study of Idiomatic expressions, using the particles “up, out, off and on” which lead to culture interference when Reading and Writing (intra-communicating) in English as a foreign language.

B. LIMITS OF THE PROBLEM

The understanding and use of English Idiomatic expressions have been well-known problems for Spanish speakers of this target language. Robert J. Dixon, “The Cambridge International Dictionary of English Idioms” and many others have reported cases in “Essential Idioms in English”. However, the study of these phenomena conveys a very broad study of social linguistics and therefore, narrowing down the inquiry is definitely necessary. This work is limited to the study of
the basic idiomatic expressions combining the particles **up, out, off** and **on**; within the socio-linguistic back-ground which theoretically supports this monograph.

C. ANTECEDENTS TO THE PROBLEM

The very fact that we make mistakes in language is not, as some would have us believe, senselessness or incompetence. The fact is that many of our mistakes in a foreign language come from interference with our native language. Language interference is a well-known phenomenon that can be felt in all learning environments. Interference may be used both, as a stimulus and as an aid to language learning if presented at the right time in a learner’s life, since problems help life solving.

But what is Language Interference? It could be defined as the errors made by the learner due to the difference or similarity between his native language and the target language. These code forms can not be directly translated from one language to another by simply using a dictionary or recalling the rules of the native language and still mean their equivalent into the context or situation; this is the case of idiomatic expressions as follows.
1. LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE

Code interpretation is considered to play an important role in language learning, meaning the conventions both abstract and substance, the ways of transmitting and receiving messages and the social environment where the language is learnt, these are all determinant when finding out what it is meant in the foreign language.

Therefore, misinterpretation of the code actually represents interference when intra-communicating; let us see the following analysis.

a. RATIONALE

One of the purposes of this monograph is to diagnose problems, diagnose causes, provide operational exercises and make suggestions that can help students gain understanding of the nature of Idiomatic Expressions and their importance in language as encoders and decoders of culture. Since they follow the rules of normal grammar, they are studied in the form of verb and particles (on, off, up and out). Else semantical analyses and interpretation of the possible causes to misunderstanding are performed according to the statistical results drawn out the inquiry. Although this project is done
on specific subjects and with a limited corpus, the results, no doubt, will be extrapolable to wider samples of idiomatic expressions (phrasal verbs). So reasoning will be done on those items showing difficulty of 45% and above. The following are some examples of the semantical analyses and interpretation carried out on some idiomatic expressions.

P.D.S.D= Possible Deductive Semantical Distortion

**Out of the question**

Such a thing is absolutely *out of the question*.

Out of: opposite of inside.

The question: the matter we ask for.

P.D.S.D: not asking the opposite

Students’ Interpretation: It´s obvious.

**Get through**

I did not *get through* until almost 8´0 clock.

Get: to come into possession of.

Through: passage.

P.D.S.D: not possessing passage until.

Students’ Interpretation: do not start until 8´0 clock.
To find fault with

He likes to find fault with the work of others.

Find: meet with; to discover.
Fault: defect or imperfection.
P.D.S.D: He needs to work with someone else to find the mistakes.
Students’ Interpretation: He can’t find the error by himself.

Task

Consider this short text from the “Entertainment Review” of a local newspaper (The Washington Post). As you read it, imagine which ‘words’ your (intermediate) students would ask you about or which ‘words’ you would teach:

"I always say I’ll try anything once. I hate getting stuck in a rut doing the same things and going to the same places week in, week out. I’d been meaning to try out Salsa for ages and am I glad that I finally got round to going! The Salsa party night at the Ocean Rooms is excellent and a totally different way to spend the night. The crowd ranged from teenagers right up to pensioners but the majority were in their twenties and thirties and no one would feel out of place here."
The average intermediate student notices and asks about (because the words are new): stuck, rut, ranged, pensioners. The more aware learner asks about stuck in a rut and the crowd ranged from because he/she realizes that the ‘new’ words are part of an expression.

The following language is also worthy of attention even if it does not contain any ‘new’ words: “I’ll try anything once; doing the same thing week in, week out; I’d been meaning to try out (Salsa) for ages; I finally got round to going; a totally different way to... spend the night; The crowd ranged from... right up to..., the majority were in their twenties and thirties; feel out of place.”

It is not suggested that the learners should learn all of these, but these expressions and patterns should be drawn to students’ attention otherwise they will be missed because they do not fit the traditional categories of grammar, new vocabulary (individual words), phrasal verbs and idioms. All of these expressions have idiomaticity, fixedness and opacity. Even something as innocent as a totally different way to... is missed, and therefore never acquired, because of its ordinariness.

But it is often the ordinary words that have so much to offer, hidden behind their idiomaticity. If students are trying to learn on the basis
that a word has a meaning and when that meaning is known, they have learned it, then a great deal of language will consequently be ignored (or dismissed as idiomatic usage!). Let us consider more expressions with the word *way*:

**I don’t mind either way.**

He’s quite good looking in a way.

**By the way...**

I think it would be better the other way round.

I arrived way too early. It’s way too expensive.

Come round at six - that way we’ve got time for a drink.

It is obvious that *way* has more than one meaning; in fact, for these expressions it is difficult to explain what the single word *way* means at all. From a learning point of view, it is not satisfactory for students to know that *way* has more than one meaning. That is still looking at language through the restricting labels of grammar, vocabulary, idioms etc and because these expressions don’t fit those labels, they are discarded as incidental usages. But unless students learn the common expressions which use the word *way*, they don’t really know the word at all. Sadly, common expressions using simple words like *way* too often remain outside the learner’s repertoire.
The point to be made is this: if teachers and students don’t have a category for identifying and collecting this kind of language, it will simply go unnoticed and be lost for ever in the jungle of grammar and ‘new words’! There is a simple way of doing this without resorting to technical terms to over-burden the learners.

A number of theories have been postulated as to how an individual attains language. The first to be considered is that of Chomsky (1972; 1975; 1979). He suggests that people are aided by innate universal language structures and as children learn, they realize how to express the underlying universal structure according to their particular culture, as described by Bootzin, Bower, Zajonc and Hall (1986). From this point of view, addressees in conversations serve as facilitators of language development by means of exposing students to cultural elements required to express the universal structure appropriate to the cultural and social requirements of the individual. A point to note here is that the theory relies on exposure to appropriate samples of the language and the learning of the culture where this language comes from. The same is true when learning English as a foreign language. Since accuracy and errors may have been learned by students from their teachers, their relatives and from the people they communicate with. The student stands a greater
chance to make mistakes in interpretation, due to the lack of appropriate language environment, which may facilitate cognition and production via writing and speaking.

Conventionally, language learning and language acquisition refer to different situations as to the context where a student is able to interpret messages. The case has to do with the exposure to language surroundings or immersion that a particular person is involved in, the interactive sharing of codes, the creating and negotiating of meanings and expressing ideas etc. In other words, a person may stand a better chance to communicate with others if both have many things and interests in common, even if they do not make many reflections about the language, which is the case of acquisition in an English native environment.

On the other hand, language learning is done where the context is not favorable or abundant in English surroundings, such is the case of any other country whose native spoken language is not English. Therefore, language reflection and grammar rules are fundamentals to decode English including interpretation of all forms of literature, which express the culture of a country.

However, interpretation is an important aspect necessary to both, acquisition and learning, which deals with conventional definitions
and concepts accepted by people. The need to communicate with others or understand their ideas when reading what others write (intra-communication); the case when reading or writing idiomatic expressions remains relevant to both EFL and ESL and not to one of them particularly. Thus, the most appropriate thing to do is probably to go through cognition of basic elements besides form aspects like grammar.

Interference may be different in aspect for instance; acquisition may face form rules of grammar whereas learning may face that of culture (idiomatic expressions proper to a particular native environment).
II. JUSTIFICATION

Today’s needs of understanding the English language and culture represent an important requirement to professional development and communication. Interpreting the codes expressed from cultural building, such is the translation of an idiomatic expression literally may lead to misunderstandings when reading or writing because the context is unknown.

Much more of everyday language is idiomatic than has been widely recognized and language descriptions, categories and labels have somehow obscured this fact. As a result, a huge amount of useful language in the form of collocations and expressions has been overlooked in favor of traditional categories of grammar and vocabulary and the more colorful idioms. Seeing language on a spectrum of idiomaticity; that is with differing degrees of fixedness and opacity, helps us to see and value the huge amount of lexis that makes up a large part of natural English - the kind of English most learners want to make their own.

The fact is, as it was observed in classes, students notice the more obvious idioms, even if they can’t (especially if they can’t) understand or use them. They stick out like a sore thumb. They do not, however, notice and use, anywhere near enough of those expressions which
are not obvious idioms but which display some of the characteristics of idiomaticity. Part of the reason for this is that they often consist of ‘ordinary’ words in combinations, which hardly jump off the page. And because most students are obsessed with learning ‘new’ words, they don’t ‘see’ anything to learn when they meet these expressions. They just go in one ear and straight out the other. If we are honest as teachers, the same happens to us too. We are so accustomed to these ‘everyday’ expressions, that we fail to draw them to students’ attention, unless they ask about them, which for the reason just explained, is unlikely. They therefore remain ‘invisible’; unnoticed and not acquired.

It has been found that students of English in a percentage of 73% (see general diagnose chart below), use Idiomatic Expressions inaccurately as the following examples attest. As it can be seen from the examples, the student’s inaccuracy in the understanding and use of Idiomatic Expressions leads to an impairment of authentic communication.
A. PRELIMINARY OBSERVATION

In 2\textsuperscript{nd} February 1999, 30 English students of 11\textsuperscript{th} Grade at “Colegio Emilio Valenzuela” were interviewed about how they felt when required to answer a test. This consisted of supplying synonyms in English or equivalent words in Spanish to Idiomatic Expressions in English contextual sentences, in order to find out their understanding of language use.

In 60\% of the cases, the students manifested not understanding the meaning of the sentences nor the idiomatic expressions alone. Therefore, it was impossible to provide a synonym word in English or an equivalent in Spanish. Since their use of English was poor and the expressions themselves were mistaken by a different meaning, the idiomatic expressions were given literal meanings, misleading the accuracy in content, as well as the sense in the context given.
Moreover, students, in a 30%, manifested their ability at using their grammar properly and at reading and understanding, so that they were able to find out what the context was, since the answers in the form of multiple choice, had been provided. Although they had no idea of what the idiomatic expression meant, they were able to figure out the meaning by discarding the least possible ones; expressing that they had learned from the test.

However, there were students (10%) who manifested their skills at using idiomatic expressions, justifying their assertiveness by expressing that their contact with the language was close: Since they had lived in an English speaking country, had heard this expressions before; they recognize and use them as language familiar to them. Others justified their skills at using such idiomatic expressions by expressing their liking for English culture, being this, English books of literature, such as, tales, biographies, comics; also, media programs like television, movies, soap operas, news, music, etc.

In the end, when the answers were provided, they all concluded that idiomatic expressions were parts of language, which were essential to communicating and understanding English ways of expressing thoughts, feelings and ideas.
B. DATA INTERPRETATION

In general, sixty-one percent (61%) lacks, but can be achieving the mastery of English Idiomatic Expressions, which means that they were working communicative English only at thirty-nine percent (39%). Out of three hundred and eighty (380) items, one hundred and forty three were found correct (143), which accounts for thirty-seven point six per cent (37.6%). One hundred and thirty-four mistakes (134), accounting for thirty-five point two per cent (35.2%). Eighty were not responded (80) accounting for twenty-one point two per cent (21.2%) and twenty-three were acceptable (acceptable, as it is a marker in the graphics, means that the answer was not exact but it made sense) responses (23) accounting for six point oh-five per cent (6.05%).

Due to the fact that students did not know what to respond to some items, these did no get any response. Now, if we added the mistakes to the items not responded, we would obtain a total of two hundred and fourteen (214), which accounts for the fifty-six point three per cent (56.3%), leaving an operative remainder of forty-three point seven per cent (43.7%). Taking into account that, it is a general group average examined at using and understanding of English Idiomatic Expressions.
III. GENERAL OBJECTIVES

This monograph intends to help English foreign language students to master idiomatic expressions and to become aware of the semantical distortion due to literal translation, which leads to language interference. This occurs and is helpful when learning the language, because it demands deeper interpretation, but it is also a problem when communicating due to lack of culture awareness.

Social conventions are imposed by society as expressive value and people who belong to that particular society inter-communicate and intra-communicate, also, through these idiomatic expressions depending on the variety of code, which derives from a specific socio-economic background. Therefore, it is important, to learn the culture, that underlies the language being learnt, where the intended language is used. This monograph also intends to show that the acknowledging of the same idiomatic expressions guide and help the students in the learning of culture and language.

A. SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

To analyze and diagnose some common errors of interpretation produced by literal translation, leading to semantic distortions as exponents of a foreign culture.
To prove that language interference occurs when intra-communicating, that is to say when reading and writing English as E.F.L. But once some of the idiomatic expressions of the culture are learnt the contextual meaning blooms logically.

To endow in the students that learning a language means learning social conventions in the sense of aspects like: Cognitive, expressive and value and that the system of reciprocally integrated role-expectations is governed by imposed cultural values and dynamic themes of the society.

To distinguish two broad axes of variation in the internal structuring of speech communities which supports reading and writing as intra-communication: the inter-individual (that differentiates groups of people) and the intra-individual (the same person’s differential use of language in different circumstances).

To describe the fact that there is a variety of code, which in a large scale is called diglossia, where multilingual nations include a variety of accents, language styles, dialects and languages. Each and every one of these factors is a reflection of the region and socio-economics background from which the person comes from, and it expresses through the language use.
To show the fact that idiomatic expressions are linguistic codes of culture and therefore, they are vehicles to differentiate fundamental elements, which are characteristics of the English language.

To design a manual, which students can use, in order to learn and achieve knowledge and practice on idiomatic expressions, as used in natural contexts.
IV. HYPOTHESIS

If students’ comprehension of English spoken language and culture in terms of idiomatic expressions were achieved, learning English as a foreign language could be more meaningful and realistic; the gap, which separates understanding between the two languages and cultures, could be firmly bridged.

V. THEORETICAL FRAME

A. PRELIMINARIES

1. LANGUAGE AND HUMAN ORIGINS

   According to Charles F. Hockett, cultural transmission was earlier than complex communication; but the inception of language must in turn have been the biggest shot in the arm ever administered to cultural transmission. Once the language of a community has begun to be acquired by any new member of the community; the portion already learned serves as a powerful carrier, which is an aiding tool to learn and grab the rest. In the same way, the acquisition of other communicative systems and aspects of culture, which are not usually thought of as communicative, can be
assimilated. Learning via already understood symbols may obviate the considerable dangers involved in learning via direct participation. Given a Hominoid possessed of cultural transmission and of the earliest imaginable form of genuine language, it is hard to see how the proliferation of human culture as we know it could be avoided. A genuinely productive communicative system at once begins modifying both itself and other aspects of behavior of its possessors. Cultural transmission came before complex communication. It was expressed either by mimes or very elemental sounds, which imitated animals or peculiar characteristics of those who belonged to the same group or hominoids that belonged to a different tribe. These meaningful expressions were of great significance, they were symbols that represented ideas and messages of warning and manifested emotional status, despite the fact that there was lack of language usage of what we know today as rules and language forms. It is believed that this early estate of communication developed into idiomatic expressions, which members from the same group transferred to the others by participating in the same activities, sharing experiences and therefore, assimilating the system via acquisition. This assimilation worked as aiding tool to decode culture
and encode it into complex communication, giving it the name of language (thousands of years later).

Once a hominoid is able to transmit his culture, using the earliest form of language, which helps him to communicate the system and modify it, human culture transmission grows and the aspects of the same language as well as the behavior in people are negotiated.

2. THE SOCIOLOGY OF KNOWLEDGE

Herbert Landar explains: It is concerned with the situational determinants of binary decisions, takes the broader social context and its province and tries to understand how communication and social interaction are related.

The utterances of language, in general, are considered in isolation for analytical purposes, but one cannot lose sight of the intimacies and interconnections of all phases of cultural life and the enormous importance of a wise synthesis of human experience. A sentence, no less than each of its parts, is a creature of social convention and part of a larger and grander sociocultural perspective.

An example of early academic work is George Simmel’s. In arguing that human nature is dualistic, Simmel pointed out that every relationship presupposes mutual knowledge. Thus words imply a
sharing of conventions, although speakers can have different socially conditioned backgrounds.

Learning a language means learning social conventions in the sense of aspects like cognitive, expressive and value and the system of reciprocally integrated role-expectations is governed by imposed cultural values and dynamic themes of the society. On one hand, in a given culture, one can play the role of the addressee or addressee. But, on the other hand variance from one culture to another leads to culture shock and to false notions about the way people of other cultures, speaking other languages, different in structure from our own, actually look at the universe.

The human being is, by canon, sociable and its communication depends on mutual knowledge, which allows people from a group, to share believes and conventions they create. These are code - words and expressions that represent cognitive and cultural values to society, which govern the system of role expectations (the power). This is the way in which a sentence becomes a creature of social convention, whose perspective belongs to the grander socio – cultural (the upper class).

Thus, learning the culture and language of a different human group may lead to culture shock, since the idea that each person has of the
universe might be quite different from the other. There are aspects a person can guess when communicating to another, say blindfolded, in the same language, but he fails to interpret the code, when coming from a different group.

3. THE CASUAL RELATIONS OF LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Edward Sapir estates: Language is a social institution. The individual’s mistakes during his socialization, his errors, his driftings, or his wanton fluctuations from conventional norms or models, take part in a dynamic process of historical change. If the synchronically oriented specialist at description ignores the existence of this fluctuational dynamism for a time, it has been chastened by the scientific policy of divide and conquer; but it can not be ignored forever. Linguistics may ignore the probabilistic structure of form and meaning, the frequency dimension of cultural traits, as tactical maneuvers. But in the final axiomatization, the implications of frequency for stability and change will be spelled out in full.

The part of language, which projects historical change via a dynamic process, is the social and interactive, the one spoken by most people, people who need to express themselves and do not use grammar rules or models in which language should be expressed according to
standards of language. This language is used with, what grammarians call, mistakes and errors according to norms and models. These driftings in mood and intention, the ups and downs of society, sentimental life, and desire end up by forcing general standard rules of language to bend into idiomatic forms because it grows and spreads due to socialization and easiness at use when needing to communicate.

B. AXES OF VARIATION

The information you get when you talk on the telephone to a stranger -- someone you have never met. In addition to the explicit information that is, the content of the messages you receive during such a conversation, you get another kind of information. Usually you can tell the speaker’s gender and often you can make a pretty good guess as to his or her approximate age. Other things you may be able to guess are whether or not the person is a native speaker of your language, what part of the country she comes from, whether or not he is highly educated, and possibly her ethnic or racial background, or his social class. In addition, you may get some idea of her attitude to you (personal, businesslike, formal, friendly, etc.), and
of his feelings about the topic of conversation (competence, level of interest, and so on)

Your ability to make such inferences, sight unseen, about speakers and their intentions, depends only in small part on biological givens, for example the ability to learn that everyone is born with. Most of it is shared knowledge that you have acquired in the process of acquiring language, as a member of your speech community. (Imagine yourself on the telephone with a speaker of a language you don’t know -- let’s say Turkish -- and you’ll quickly discover that you would probably be limited to making inferences about age and gender of your interlocutor.)

The fact that you can make many correct social attributions about people on the basis of their speech has to mean that speech communities are internally differentiated. After all, if everyone in the community spoke exactly the same way, no such sub-groupings would be identifiable, nor would we be able to correctly interpret speakers’ intended politeness or impoliteness, formality or informality, etc. We distinguish two broad axes of variation in the internal structuring of speech communities: the inter-individual (that differentiates groups of people) and the intra-individual (the
same person's differential use of language in different circumstances). Even in small village communities with minimal social differentiation, where people practice a traditional way of life, socio-linguists have so far not found any speech community that is internally undifferentiated, nor any mono-stylistic speakers. The question is, how does this work? What are the characteristics of a person's speech that carry this social information? Can the same linguistic features that differentiate along the inter-individual dimension also be used to differentiate along the intra-individual dimension? And most importantly, how can we find out?

These questions will be approached via a close case study of one feature of English that is involved in both the inter-individual and the intra-individual axes of differentiation of the speech community, looking first at how two well-known authors have represented social differences via speech. But before launching into that case, a few basic concepts of sociolinguistics are provided below, in order to be familiarized with the terminology.

1. VERNACULAR

Crystal Encyclopedia tells you it's "the indigenous language or dialect of a community". We'll make it a little more precise by
thinking of it (following Labov) as the earliest learned, and most basic, linguistic system acquired by an individual during childhood language acquisition. It's your "native language", the one you can most easily and unreflectingly access, say idioms, without the meta-level instruction in literacy or language arts that you learn later in life. Since you learn it in childhood, it reflects the language of the community you grew up in, which has a geographical location.

As you go through life, you continue acquiring language. You may learn other languages, but you also learn more about your native language, including a layer of conventions of the written and spoken language that may be relatively close or relatively distant from your vernacular. Every speaker thereby ends up with a linguistic repertoire that includes the entire inventory of their linguistic knowledge, along with the knowledge of how to deploy these different linguistic resources differently according to the social situation. (Just think of the subtle ways you may alter your language when talking to a best friend, a grandmother, someone giving you religious instruction). John Gumperz described linguistic repertoires as being the property of both communities and individuals, and as having a dialectal component (maybe not the best choice of words, but
meaning the locally-situated vernacular), and the superposed component (what you learn later in life).

There are two different components of language, which allow native people to communicate; they are conventions made up by the same social group, whose meaning and beliefs they share in order to interrelate. These components are dialectal and superposed: The first relates to those meaningful conventions acquired by being in communication with other people and saying the same things other people say, but with the lack of language formality or elaborate rules; they are idiomatic expressions and name words given to things. The second relates to elaborate language, which is learnt at school, language formality full of rules, which allow people to decode and encode other levels of knowledge and to communicate with members of other groups living in another place.

2. GEOGRAPHIC VARIATION

Language differences due to different geographic origins of individual speakers are probably the most obvious instances of sociolinguistic variation. Although languages tend to assimilate at a faster pace in these days of mass media and an unprecedented ease of long-distance communication, some languages continue to exhibit
marked regional differences across the areas in which they are spoken. In Europe, many languages are closely related, but German, for example, has many dialects that are not mutually intelligible (take the variety of German spoken in Northern Germany and that spoken around Stuttgart, say). Yet, German is commonly seen as one language. On the other hand, some languages seem to be part of dialect chains that link mutually intelligible varieties of several languages (for example, Portuguese-Spanish-Catalan-French-Italian). Therefore, mutual intelligibility is not a very good definition in this geographic regard.

There are people in many different parts of the territory, who share the same language, but with different opinions about the area that surround them. Let us consider for example, primitive members from two different groups, those who were born by the river banks, people who developed skills in farming due to the abundance of water and were skilled in fishing; They developed a particular way of communication. This dialect was attached or built according to what they needed to express (the words fish and net had to be invented by the group who first saw one). On the other hand, those who settled up in the mountains, they had to learn to hunt and to adapt to a
different environment, developing particular expressions and words for the variety of nature (the word coat must have been theirs).

This early system of communication, based on economic needs, was very practical; it did not need the formalism of Modern English to communicate, but due to the need for other products. Traders became the first bilingual human group and the remaining profit produced (high and low) varieties of social class, as well as, different social behavior.

3. SOCIAL VARIATION

Human languages usually provide a speaker with more than one way of expressing the same information, and to choose an appropriate form of expression is part of the speaker's linguistic competence. This choice will depend on the relation between speaker and addressee, the circumstances of the conversation as well as the intended effect, but also to a considerable degree on the social background of each speaker. Commonly, most of these codes will be grouped together under the heading of one language, where words have formal or colloquial connotations, etc. However, in some languages, the differences between the high and low varieties are so
striking (in Arabic, for example) that linguists prefer to speak of diglossia, defined as a stable language state in which more than one language occurs side by side, each prevailing in its domain of usage. As most speakers are competent in using and understanding both language varieties, the diglossic situation highlights another weakness of the definition of language as a set of mutually intelligible codes. A further problem with this definition is the inherent dependency on a listener's willingness to understand another speaker, which will be influenced by different perceived social backgrounds associated with each variety of a language. These circumstances, again, blur the sociolinguistic validity of the definition of language as a set of mutually intelligible varieties. Low and high varieties of code words into the language are used by members of different social backgrounds, but there are members who use both, colloquial idiomatic expressions and formal or standard connotations. This diglossia allows communication between members of different social class if there is intention to do it, which proves, that communication can be established even if there is no mutual intelligence, social condition or education share.
C. A SOCIAL FACTOR

When two people speak with one another, there is always more going on than just conveying a message. The language used by the participants is always influenced by a number of social factors, which define the relationship between the participants. Consider, for example, a professor making a simple request of a student to close a classroom door to shut off the noise from the corridor. There are a number of ways this request can be made:

a. Politely, in a moderate tone "Could you please close the door?"

b. In a confused manner while shaking his/her head "Why aren't you shutting the door?"

c. Shouting and pointing, "SHUT THE DOOR!"

The most appropriate utterance for the situation would be a. The most inappropriate would be c. This statement humiliates the student, and provides no effort by the professor to respect him/her. Utterance b is awkward because it implies that the teacher automatically assumes that the student should know better than to leave the door open when there is noise in the hallway. The inappropriateness is a social decision tied to the social factors, which shape the relationship between speaker (the professor), and the listener (the student).
When choosing an appropriate utterance for the situation, there are factors that you must consider in order to effectively conveying the message to the other participant.

1. Participants – how well do they know each other?
2. Social setting: formal or informal.
3. Who is talking – status relationship/social roles (students vs. Professor).
4. Aim or purpose of the conversation.
5. Topic.

Do you notice that there is a difference in the way you speak to your friends and the way you speak to your relatives, teachers, or others of professional status?

When telling your friend that you like his/her shirt, you say:

“Hey, cool shirt, I like that!”

When telling the President of the company your parents work for, that you like his/her shirt, you say:

“You look very nice today, I really like that shirt.”

This is called choosing your variety of code. This can also be seen on a larger scale, diglossia, where multilingual nations include a variety of accents, language styles, dialects and languages. Each and every one of these factors is a reflection of the region and socio-economics
background from which the person comes from. In monolingual societies, the region and socio-economics factors are determined by dialect and language style. It is not uncommon in The United States to see that languages other than English are spoken inside the home with friends and family. However when these bilingual or even trilingual families interact socially outside their home, they will communicate in English. Even church services may use a variation of the language, one that you would only hear inside the church or in school. An example of the difference in the use of the two main languages can be seen in Guarani and Spanish as stated by Janet Holmes in “Introduction to socio – linguistics.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Addressee</th>
<th>Setting</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>Home</td>
<td>Planning a party</td>
<td>Guarani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendship</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>Café</td>
<td>Humorous anecdote</td>
<td>Guarani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>Priest</td>
<td>Church</td>
<td>Choosing the Sunday liturgy</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td>Telling a story</td>
<td>Guarani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Solving math problems</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Official</td>
<td>Office</td>
<td>Getting an important license</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diglossia: In a bilingual community, in which two languages or dialects are used differently according to different social situations.

Janet Holmes defines diglossia as having three crucial features:
6. In the same language, used in the same community.

There are two distinct varieties. One is regarded as high (H) and the other low (L).

7. Each is used for distinct functions.

8. No one uses the high (H) in everyday conversation.

In the following example it is easy to tell which variety you will use given the social situations:

- Telling a joke
- Interviewing for a job
- Giving a speech for a charity event
- Giving a speech for a friend for his/her birthday
- Church, Cafeteria
VI. CONCLUSION

It is believed that the earliest state of communication developed into idiomatic expressions, which members from the same group transferred to the others by participating in the same activities, sharing experiences and therefore, assimilating the system via acquisition. This assimilation worked as an aiding tool to decode culture and encode it into complex communication, giving it the name of language years later.

The part of language which projects historical change via a dynamic process, is the social and interactive, the one spoken by most people, people who need to express themselves and do not use grammar rules or models in which language should be expressed according to standards of language. This language is used with, what grammarians call, mistakes and errors according to norms and models. These driftings in mood and intention, the ups and downs of society, sentimental life, and desire end up by forcing general standard rules of language to bend into idiomatic forms because it grows and spreads due to socialization and easiness at use when needing to communicate.
There are two different components of language, which allow native people to communicate; they are conventions made up by the same social group, whose meaning and beliefs they share in order to inter-relate. These components are dialectal and superposed: The first relates to those meaningful conventions acquired by being in communication with other people and saying the same things other people say, but with the lack of language formality or elaborate rules; they are idiomatic expressions and name words given to things. The second relates to elaborate language, which is learnt at school, language formality full of rules, which allow people to decode and encode other levels of knowledge and to communicate with members of other groups living in another place.

Thus, learning the culture and language of a different human group may lead to culture shock, since the idea that each person has of the universe might be quite different from the other. There are aspects a person can guess when communicating to another, say blindfolded, in the same language, but he fails to interpret the code, when coming from a different group.

The need for interpretation grew as human groups and tribes would spread round the world, settling sub-groups as well as derogating forms of the mother language. Rules were necessary to decode
language systems and so were equivalent idiomatic expressions into the other language “for the sake of communication”.

VII. THE TRAINING MODEL

A. INTRODUCTION

Idiomatic expressions are accepted as part of simple, everyday speech. Experienced teachers of English have long recognized their importance as a means of adding grace and exactness to speech and writing.

But the student of a foreign language by no means finds it easy to use idiomatic expressions fluently. When he attempts to translate such expressions directly from his native tongue, the meaning somehow eludes him, and he finds himself resorting to involved circumlocutions.

The student may learn grammar and, with time, acquire an adequate vocabulary, but without a working knowledge of such idioms as to put out, to get along, to call for, to look up, to look over, etc., his speech will remain awkward and stilted.

To be sure, complete control of the idiom of any language requires years of study and practice. Yet this is no reason why the study of idioms should be neglected. Such study should be made part of, and integrated with, the regular teaching of grammar and vocabulary. Of course, the idioms chosen for study should be well within the
student’s grasp and of practical value. Such expressions (which may not be within the students’ grasp at the moment): as *to carry coals to Newcastle* or *to wash one’s dirty linen in public*, while very colorful, do not help the student achieve his goal of gaining facility in his everyday use of the language.

An idiom is an expression, which has a meaning different from that of the individual meaning of each of his component parts. This explains why the idiom cannot be translated literally from one language into another without some change in its meaning and connotation.

"Reading" First Step for Decoding

To the teacher

For many students, the task of reading authentic texts ends in frustration and demotivation because of their inability to understand many of the words. Teachers should, however, allow the learners to read within a limited vocabulary. By seeing words in different contexts, students get a more complete understanding of their meaning and the ways in which they are used. Although the students might not recognize all the words, they will be able to make reasonable guesses at the meaning of the unknown words and
understand most of the text, building up their confidence and a feeling of success.

*How the Language is used*

Another important function is that students gradually become more aware of how the language is constructed. They begin to recognize how sentences combine to form paragraphs and, in turn, how linking words are used to connect ideas and how pronoun reference (words such as “it” “he” etc.) also plays an important role in making a text logical and coherent.

By reading longer texts, students will learn to see the foreign language not as a series of structures or short sentences, but rather as a piece of text that is actually communicating ideas, opinions, or even emotions to them. For many students, this will be their only contact with "real" language use outside the classroom.

*Reading Strategies*

The main aim of the activities that students will be asked to do while they are reading is to aid global comprehension as opposed to focusing on a more detailed study of a text. Students are not invited to analyze word order or give the meaning of specific vocabulary items in these activities because such tasks are more appropriate to intensive reading. They are encouraged to “ignore” words they do not
understand as long as this does not prevent global understanding. Students are given the freedom to use their imagination and to bring their own experience to bear on their own interpretation of the text.

**Pre-reading** activities aim to motivate the student to want to read, either by getting them involved in the theme of the book or by getting them involved in the text itself.

*Putting Chapter Headlines into Order*

Some chapter headings provide information about their order

1. Give the students a list of chapter headings from a Reader. Make sure the headings are in the wrong order.

2. Ask the students to decide which chapter heading they think is the first and which is the last.

3. Ask them which chapter they think is going to be the most exciting, the saddest, the most important, etc.

4. Ask the students to look at the remaining chapter headings and to decide their own order for these.

5. Ask the students:

   (a) to predict what will happen in a chapter or

   (b) to predict what will happen in the story.
6. Ask the students to invent their own story based on their order for the chapter headings. You can even ask your students to write a short paragraph about what they think happens in each chapter.

**While-reading** activities are designed to guide the student through the text, providing help where necessary.

Putting events into order

1. Ask the students to put a number of randomly ordered sentences into the correct order while they are reading.

The following example (in the box) is based on Chapter 13 from *Z for Zachariah* by Robert C. O’Brien.

```
Read these sentences and put them into the correct order.

Mr. Loomis makes Ann fall.

Mr. Loomis tells Ann not to touch the suit.

Mr. Loomis wants to go to Ogdentown.

Ann tries to find out more things about Mr. Loomis.
```

NOTE: The sentences aim to summarize the events in the story and act as a guide to the
students to help them pick out the key points in the story.

**Post-reading** activities aim to get the student to think about what they have read.

**Board Games**

Make a board game including squares with questions about the text. Questions can include facts about events, how characters react to different events, who said what, and so on. When a student falls on a question square, the others in the group can refer back to the book to check to see whether the question was answered correctly or not.

**To Teachers and Students**

This manual is designed to develop reading interpretation and to expand general vocabulary in the form of idiomatic expressions. The articles, representative of current magazine and newspaper writing, cover only a five lesson plan range of subject matter in order to expose the students to various content demands of general reading material.

The students must learn to stop reading word by word and, instead, read to grasp the general ideas of the article. The transition from
specific words to general ideas takes time, and the students need a
great deal of encouragement to make this adjustment. They should
try to guess the probable meanings of unfamiliar words from their
contexts, rather than look these words up in the dictionary. When the
article is discussed in class, attention should generally be focused on
sentence and paragraph content rather than on individual words. If a
key word is unfamiliar, the students should be encouraged to guess
the meaning from the context and be made aware that words can
have different meanings in different contexts.

Reading-Skills Development-Exercises

Both the Analyses of ideas and interpretation exercises develop the
student’s ability to understand the inner meaning and to discover
what is written “between the lines”.

Interpretation of Words and Phrases:

Important and/or difficult sentences, idioms, and concepts are
singled out for analysis of meaning, which will lead to better
understanding of the article read.

Reading Reconstruction:
This exercise provides an opportunity for the student to use his increased skills in comprehension to aid his vocabulary development and writing. After reading the paragraph, the student can take the ideas presented and use them in a paragraph of his own. Sometimes students add additional information to their own paragraphs. If this information is relevant and helpful, it should be allowed and encouraged.

Dialogue Completion
The students are required to complete dialogues using the most suitable expression from the choices given and this helps us to be aware of the use of idiomatic expressions in normal day to day English.

Answer Key
Answers are provided at the end so that the student can check himself

Rules
The chapter “GRAMMAR APPROACH TO IDIOMS” is also provided at the end, and it intends to help solve probable student’s questions of usage about idiomatic expressions.
The following manual includes contracted forms grammar such: I've, hasn't, don’t, haven't, won’t, etc; because they are used in every day speaking.

1. THE LESSONS AND QUIZZES

Setting up:

1) General Class attention when general information, 2) Groups of three will facilitate coining down on meaning.

Intended Students:

Specific objectives:

To broaden vocabulary use and to understand idiomatic expressions.

Presentation:

Tell the class what the reading is going to be about and ask students about the possible dangers caused by cars.

Skills development:

Reading comprehension, vocabulary development, scanning, skimming and situational understanding.

Extended Practice:

Gap filling written exercises based on situational, everyday, spoken English.
Wrap up: Encourage students to role-play situations where the new vocabulary and expressions are used.

Evaluation: Exercises about interpretation of words and phrases, as well as, the ones on dialogue completion must be done correctly, even if it takes more than one try.

Problems and Solutions:

The use of a dictionary must be allowed only as the last option.

Time Approximation: Reading, 30 minutes. Exercises, 50 minutes.
LESSON ONE

*Intended students:*

9th. Grade high school pupils at (Colegio Emilio Valenzuela).

*Aim of the lesson:*

To find out about the cancer caused by automobile use.

1

**AUTO CALLED Nº1 HEALTH ENEMY**

Three Yale University professors agreed in a panel discussion tonight that the automobile was what one of them called “Public Health Enemy Nº1 in this country.” Besides polluting the air and congesting the cities, cars are involved in more than half the disabling accidents, and they contribute to heart disease “because we don’t walk anywhere anymore,” said Dr. H. Richard Weinerman, professor of medicine and public health. Dr. Weinerman’s sharp indictment of the automobile came in a discussion of environment on *Yale Reports*, a radio program broadcast by Station WTIC in Hartford, Connecticut. The program opened a three-part series on “Staying Alive.” “For the first time in human history, the problem of man’s survival has to do with his control of man-made hazards,” Dr. Weinerman said. “Before this, the problem had been the control of natural hazards.”
Relating many of these hazards to the automobile, Arthur W. Galston, a professor of biology, said it was possible to make a kerosene-burning turbine car that would “lessen smog by a very large factor.” But he expressed doubt that Americans were willing to give up moving about the countryside at 90 miles an hour in a large vehicle. “America seems wedded to the motor car—every family has to have at least two, and one has to be a convertible with 300 horsepower,” Professor Galston continued. “Is this the way of life that we choose because we cherish these values?”

For Paul B. Sears, professor emeritus of conservation, part of the blame lies with “a society that regards profit as a supreme value, under the illusion that anything that's technically possible is, therefore, ethically justified.” Professor Sears also called the country’s dependence on its modern automobiles “lousy economics” because of the large horsepower used simply “moving one individual to work.” But he conceded that Americans have painted themselves into a corner by allowing the national economy to become so reliant on the automobile industry.

According to Dr. Weinerman, automobiles, not factories, are responsible for two-thirds of the smog in America’s cities, and the smog presents the possibility of a whole new kind of epidemic, not
due to one germ, but due to polluted environment. “Within another five to ten years, it’s possible to have an epidemic of lung cancer in a city like Los Angeles. This is a new phenomenon in health concern,” he said.

The solution, he continued, is “not to find a less dangerous fuel, but a different system if inner-city transportation. Because of the increasing use of cars, public transportation has been allowed to wither and degenerate, so that if you can’t walk to where you want to go, you have to have a car in most cities,” he asserted. This, in turn, Dr. Weinerman contended is responsible for the “arteriosclerosis” of public roads, for the blight of the inner city and for the middle-class movement to the suburbs.

*Interpretation of Words and Phrases:* Circle the letter next to the best answer or the nearest in meaning to the italicized words.

1. Three professors took part in a panel discussion. A *panel discussion* is:
   a. an argument or disagreement conducted in private.
   b. a television guessing game.
   c. a discussion by several people in front of an audience.

2. Professor Sears called America’s dependence on cars “*lousy economics.*”
a. inferior  
b. clever  
c. necessary  

3. Society regards profit as a *supreme* value.  
a. most important  
b. important  
c. least important  

4. The *inner city* is:  
a. a city in the center of the country.  
b. the central area of the city.  
c. the suburbs.  

5. Americans have *painted themselves into a corner* by allowing the economy to become so reliant on the automobile industry.  
a. become painters  
b. increased their wealth  
c. trapped themselves  

6. “The public transportation systems *have been allowed to degenerate*” means that the transportation systems:  
a. haven’t been maintained or improved properly.  
b. are used by too many people during rush hour.  
c. don’t exist any more.
Dialogue Completion

Everyday English

Complete the following dialogues using the most appropriate expressions from the box below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>So far</th>
<th>At least</th>
<th>on the way</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It’s up to you.</td>
<td>That’s nice of you.</td>
<td>Get along with (someone)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Take it easy.</td>
<td>It’s in bad shape.</td>
<td>Don’t waste your time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She gave up</td>
<td>take care of</td>
<td>Everything will turn out all right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After all</td>
<td>That way</td>
<td>Anything is possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you mind</td>
<td>Go ahead.</td>
<td>She was in a bad mood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can’t stand it.</td>
<td>at all.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example:  “shall I repair that old table? It’s in bad shape.”

“Don’t waste your time. It isn’t worth it.”

1. “Excuse me. __________________ if I see the doctor before you?”
   “___________________. I’m not in a hurry.”

2. “Miss Barns lost her job. She couldn’t _______________ her boss.”
   “That’s too bad. I hope __________________________.”

3. “Shall we paint the car? ______________ we can sell it faster.”
   “I don’t care. ______________________.”
4. “I've been trying to find a good apartment, but
____________________ I haven't had any luck.
____________________.”

5. “____________________. This job is driving me crazy.”
   “____________________. It doesn't do any good to complain.”

6. “Maria should have the party at her house. ____________, it was her idea.”
   “I don't think she'll do it. But you never know, ____________.”

7. “_____________ after she lost the tennis match this afternoon.”
   “_____________ too easily. She didn’t try hard enough to win.”

8. “Albert can't ______________ anything. He lost my dictionary yesterday.”
   “Cheer up. ______________ he offered to pay for it.”

9. “If you want, I'll mail those letters ____________ home.”
   “Thanks. ______________.”
LESSON TWO

*Intended students:*

11th. Grade pupils in high school at (Colegio Emilio Valenzuela).

*Aim of the lesson:*

To find out whom the author is in favor of.

2

**OPINION: MARGARET MEAD ON YOUTH**

Margaret Mead, the anthropologist who won fame describing primitive peoples to more culturally evolved people, sought to explain the young and old to each other in a recent lecture at New York City’s American Museum of Natural History. She was sympathetic to the young, even those who are making life difficult for the old.

“The young people who are rebelling all around the world, rebelling against whatever forms the governmental and educational systems take, are like the first generation born in a new country,” Miss Mead said. “They are at home here. Their eyes have always seen satellites in the sky. They have never known a world in which war did not mean annihilation. The young believe that contraception is possible and necessary, and that our capacity to feed the world will not last.”
“They realize,” she declare, “that if pollution of air and land and water is allowed to go on, this planet will be uninhabitable. They know that, as members of one species living on one planet, all distinctions based on race must vanish. They realize that some form of world organization is necessary. Young people are unable to see the killing of an enemy as different from the murder of one’s own children, and they cannot reconcile the efforts to save our own children by every means with our willingness to pour napalm on other people’s children.”

“All of us who grew up before the war,” she said, “are immigrants in time, immigrants from an earlier world living in an age essentially different from anything we knew before. We still hold the seats of power and command the resources and the skills, which have been used in the past to keep order and to organize large societies. We control the educational systems, the apprenticeship systems, the career ladders up which the young are required to climb, step by step,”

Miss Mead saw “a crisis of faith and hope, a crisis in which most parents are too uncertain to assert old dogmatisms-as they look at the children who they never were-and most children are unable to learn at all from the parents and elders they will never be.” She added
that this breach between the young and their parents also existed between youth and their teachers: “There are no bearable responses in the out-of-date, dog-eared textbooks, or the brightly colored, superficially livened-up textbooks that they are asked to study.”

Miss Mead noted that “It is those who have never been to college but who are sending, or hope to send, their children to college, who are most angry at what is going on at university campuses. The news deprives them of the hope that there is a safe and socially approved road to a kind of life they themselves have not had, but their children can,” she explained.

Miss Mead said that the young realized the critical need for world action to prevent further pollution of the environment, hunger and nuclear war. “Once the fact of a deep, new, unprecedented, worldwide generation gap is firmly established in the minds of both the young and the old,” Miss Mead argued, “communication can be established again.”

“No path has to be repudiated,” Miss Mead declared. “No former way of life has to be forgotten. But all must be seen as what they now are: curtain raisers on the future.”
Interpretation of Words and Phrases

Circle the letter next to the best answer.

1. Today's young people are like the first generation born in a new country.
   a. love
   b. are similar to
   c. want to be

2. Our capacity to feed the world will not last.
   a. continue for ever
   b. be good
   c. end

3. “They are unable to see the killing of an enemy as different from the murder of one’s own children” means that they:
   a. think all killing is the same.
   b. Think killing an enemy is different from killing one’s own child.
   c. Do not understand why only enemies are killed.

4. “We hold the seats of power” means:
   a. we have strong chairs.
   b. We control the important positions.
   c. We have little control.

5. “The parents look at the children who they never were” means:
a. the parents are the same as their children.
b. The children don’t want to be like their parents.
c. The parents are different from the children.

6. There are no bearable responses in out-of-date, dog-eared textbooks.

(out-of-date):

a. the wrong day
b. no time
c. old-fashioned

(dog-eared):

a. books about dogs
b. with the edges worn out and folded over
c. very new

7. The textbooks are livened up.

a. made interesting
b. alive
c. healthy

8. “There is a large generation gap between the young and old” means:

a. lack of communication between the young and old
b. space between people
c. age difference

9. The old ways are curtain raisers on the future.
   a. useless ideas about
   b. results of
   c. introductions to

**Dialogue Completion**

*Everyday English*

Complete the following sentences using the most appropriate expression from the box below.

Each expression may be used only once.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No wonder</th>
<th>For a change.</th>
<th>We’ll teach him a lesson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Take advantage of</td>
<td>It’s no use</td>
<td>We can work something out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make up your mind.</td>
<td>Get rid of it.</td>
<td>I feel sorry for him.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>That makes sense</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The grass is always greener on the other side of the mountain.

Examples: Your car is too much trouble. You should *get rid of it.*

*That makes sense,* but I’ll have to wait until I can buy a new one.

1. Why don’t you stop being so lazy and do some work _________?
2. You should ______________________ this opportunity and try to make a good impression.

3. Marty is having a rough time. ______________________.

4. He never studies. ______________________ he’s doing poorly is school.

5. I tried to help him but ________________, he won’t listen to anyone.

6. Sarah thinks life would be better somewhere else.
   ________________________.

7. It won’t be easy to please everyone but don’t worry,
   ________________________.

8. Think over the situation and then ________________________.

9. Mr. Fix thinks he’s smarter than we are but ____________________.
LESSON THREE

*Intended students:*

First semester students of modern languages.

*Aim of the lesson:*

To discover what really goes on when you can not fall sleep.

3

A GOOD NIGHT’S SLEEP

The would-be sleeper, who re-fights his daily battles in bed or rehearses tomorrow’s problems, finds it hard to fall asleep. Then he starts worrying about his inability to sleep, which increases his insomnia, which increases his worries, which ...

In a new development that may help the insomniac to break this vicious cycle, Dr. Werner P. Koella of the Worcester Foundation for Experimental Biology has discovered a chemical in the brain that may control normal sleep.

The substance, known as serotonin, is one of a number of so-called neurohormones in the brain that researchers suspect play an important part in controlling the mind and the emotions. Such chemicals, researches have learned, assist in transmitting nerve impulses from one nerve cell to another. Serotonin, Koella notes, is
produced in particularly high concentrations in the hypothalamus, the “primitive” lower part of the brain and the brain stem, which joins the brain to the top of the spinal cord and is known to contain the centers controlling the level of consciousness. Conceivably, Koella reasoned, serotonin was the transmitter substance in the brain stem and hypothalamus that regulated sleep.

In preliminary experiments, Koella found that giving serotonin to cats produced signs of sleep. Electrode leads were implanted in the cat’s brains and attached to an EEG (electroencephalogram) machine to record the brain waves; next, the serotonin was injected directly into the brain or an artery in the neck. The pupils of the animals’ eyes narrowed and the electro-encephalograms showed “slow” waves characteristic of deep sleep within five to ten minutes.

More recently, Koella deprived cats of serotonin. The animals, again equipped with implanted electrodes, were given PCPA, a drug that blocks the formation of serotonin. They were then placed in small compartments fitted with one-way mirrors and watched round the clock.

Normally cats sleep about fifteen hours a day; but Koella’s cats, after receiving PCPA, spent about 30 minutes of each day sleeping. Most of the time, their EEG’s showed the brainwave patterns of arousal.
Occasionally the cats would curl up as if to go to sleep, but would soon get back on their feet to wander about. The animals showed signs of irritability and often meowed complainingly after a few days of sleep deprivation, but had normal reflexes. The effects of the PCPA wore off eight days to two weeks after administration of the drug; the cats returned to their normal sleeping patterns; as serotonin levels in their brains rose again.

Koella believes that at least, some types of chronic insomnia may be caused by a drop in brain-serotonin levels. The Worcester physiologist is now working on chemical ways to raise the brain’s serotonin levels and produce, in his words, “a truly physiological sleeping pill.” Synthetic sleeping pills, such as barbiturates, bring sleep, but at a price: they depress the central nervous system, reduce heart action and respiration, – and they can become habit-forming or even addictive.

In one promising experiment toward the goal of letting the body “make its own pill,” Koella has found that administration of 5-hydroxytryptophan, the chemical substance from which the body derives serotonin, will quickly restore a normal sleeping pattern to cats lacking in serotonin.
Interpretation of Words and Phrases:

Circle the letter next to the best answer.

1. “The *would-be sleeper* who re-fights his daily battles in bed – or rehearses tomorrow’s problems – finds it hard to fall asleep.” The italicized words mean:
   a. He cannot fall asleep but he wants to.
   b. He doesn’t want to fall asleep, but he can’t stay awake.
   c. He wants to fall asleep, and he does.
   d. He doesn’t want to fall asleep, and he doesn’t.

2. “*Conceivably, Koella reasoned,* serotonin was the transmitter substance in the brain stem and hypothalamus that regulated sleep.” The italicized words indicate that:
   a. Koella was sure that serotonin regulated sleep.
   b. Koella thought it was possible that serotonin regulated sleep.

3. “They were...watched round the clock” means that:
   a. The cats walked around a clock.
   b. The cats were watched 24 hours a day.
   c. There was a round clock in the cats’ compartments.

4. “In preliminary experiments, Koella found that giving serotonin to cats produced signs of sleep. More recently Koella *deprived* cats
of serotonin, and they spent only about 30 minutes of each day sleeping.” The italicized word indicates that:

a. When Koella increased the serotonin, the cats could not sleep.

b. When Koella took away the usual amount of serotonin, the cats could not sleep.

5. “Dr. Koella has discovered a chemical in the brain that may control sleep.” This means:

a. It is possible that this chemical controls sleep.

b. This chemical definitely controls sleep.

6. “Synthetic sleeping pills bring sleep, but at a price: they can be habit-forming or even addictive.” The italicized words mean:

a. With possible dangerous effects

b. They are very expensive

c. Not easily
Multiple-word Verbs:

Rewrite each sentence, substituting a synonym from the list for the italicized multiple-word verb. Be sure to use the correct tense.

To continue To investigate
To discover To review
To decrease To search for
To finish To suggest
To indicate To test

1. Dr. Koella thinks that he may have come across a chemical connected to sleep.
2. For a long time he has been looking into the causes of sleep.
3. He tried out many of his theories on cats.
4. The cats could not sleep when Koella cut down their serotonin supply.
5. When he got through with the tests...
6. He went over the results.
7. Now he is looking for chemical ways of raising the serotonin level.
8. Dr. Koella’s research has brought up new ideas on the causes of sleep.
9. He points out that more than one neurohormone may be connected to sleep.

10. Dr. Koella plans to carry on with his research on serotonin.

**Special Expressions:**

These special expressions are all related to the topic of sleep. In the sentences below, fill in each space with an appropriate expression. (Expressions may be used more than once.) Finally, construct original sentences using these expressions.

| To go to bed | To wake up/to awaken/to waken
| To fall asleep/to go to sleep | To wake someone up/to arouse someone
| To sleep | To awaken someone
| Sleepy | To be awakened by
| Asleep/sleeping | To sleep late
| | To take a nap

1. My brother usually wakes up at 7:30 A.M., and gets up immediately. I generally _____________ him _______. Last night he _____________ at 11:30, but couldn’t _________ until past 1 A.M. Therefore, he feels very _____________ today.

3. If a person is _____________, you shouldn’t disturb him.

4. Since tomorrow is a holiday, I can _____________. (I don’t have to get up early).
5. My children always ________ me _____ early on Sunday mornings.

6. People generally ______________ about 8 hours a night.

7. Yesterday I _____________ at 6 A.M. by a loud noise outside my window.

8. Last night, I talked to my friend until 2 A.M., so I ________________ late. (I fell asleep at 2:30 A.M.)

9. Young children often become _____________ in the afternoon, and their mothers make them ____________.

Dialogue Completion

Complete the following sentences using the most appropriate expression from the boxes below. Each expression may be used only once.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>So far</th>
<th>Don't mention it.</th>
<th>To take advantage of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never mind.</td>
<td>It isn't worth it.</td>
<td>To run out of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instead of</td>
<td>They're bound to do</td>
<td>On purpose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That makes sense.</td>
<td>They'd be better off</td>
<td>Once in a while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That’s out of the question</td>
<td>No matter what</td>
<td>We’re proud of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>happens</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples: Mabel wants to paint the kitchen pink _______ of yellow.

That’s out of the question. Sam can’t stand pink.
1. Sam thinks ___________________________ if they lived on a farm.
   _________________. Life is cheaper and more peaceful on a farm.

2. I'm upset with Mr. Bascomb because he tries ___________________________.
   Don't lose your temper. ____________________________.

3. __________________ our football team. They've won all their games _____________.
   ________________ since they have the best players and the best coach.

4. I'm sorry I broke your vase. I didn't do it _________________.
   _____________________________. I didn't like that vase anyway.

5. Thanks for the loan. I always seem ______________ money when I need it the most.
   _____________________________. It's nothing.

6. Everyone has problems _____________________________.
   _____________________________ we'll always be friends.
LESSON FOUR

*Intended students:*

Third semester students of modern languages.

*Aim of the lesson:*

To find out why arranged marriages sometimes work out.

4

WE JAPANESE

My name is Watanabe Taro, which is something like John Smith or John Doe, and I would like to tell you about the Japanese people and myself. You may think I am presumptuous to say that I am typical of all Japanese because they are an infinite variety of people in Japan, just like any country. But we Japanese are a very unified people and we live in a closely-knit society in our small island country. We Japanese have the same basic beliefs and traits and language whether we live in the city or the countryside, or in northern Honshu or southern Kyushu. It can be said, in my opinion, that we Japanese have a definite national character. Conformity is important to us, and we Japanese soon hammer down the nail that sticks up.

I am a rather average middle-class Japanese. I was born here in Tokyo and have spent most of my life here, except for two years when
I was a boy during the war. My two younger brothers and my younger sister and I were sent to live with my uncle, who has a small business in a mountain town north of here. My father, who is now retired from the bureaucracy, had to stay in Tokyo, and my mother stayed with him, though she came to visit us when she could. After the war, I went to high school here and to Keio University, where I studied economics. Then I entered a large trading company, where I work in the accounting department. I have been promoted along with those who entered the company with me, and I think someday I will be made department head.

About three years after I entered the company, I married a girl my parents selected for me. Akiko is the daughter of a close friend of my father's in the ministry where they worked. I did not have to marry her and actually denied my parents' requests to marry two other girls they picked before Akiko. I agreed to marry her because she is from a good family and is healthy and well brought-up. She is a good wife, and after we had been married for a year or so I became very fond of her. Our marriage is somewhat different from my parents'. Before the war, it was the custom for parents to arrange marriages without consulting the two people to be married. Fortunately, my
grandparents selected well, as my parents have had a happy marriage. It is not always so.

Akiko and I have two children, both boys, and plan not to have any more. Families nowadays are not so large as before the war because birth control is so easy and cheap. Most Japanese, especially in the cities, would rather spend money on television sets and vacations and other things that make a good life than on children. We must also think of their education. But it is still important to have children to carry on our family name and to take care of us when we get old. I must admit that I take much joy in my sons. It is said that we Japanese are very affectionate with children and, from my own case, I think that must be true.

Just because we Japanese wear Western clothing and ride on trains and work in office buildings and things like that doesn’t mean we are Western. When I go home at night from the office, the first thing I do is, take off my Western clothes and put on a kimono and sit down on the tatami mats of my house and. If it is a nice evening, look out the sliding doors at my small garden, while I drink the green tea Akiko has waiting for me. I am very Japanese in my home. I agree with my foreign friends here that we Japanese are difficult to understand, but that is because we are so different from foreigners and not many of
them learn enough of our language and customs to tell what we are thinking and doing. Actually, we Japanese behave in a rather clear manner. We use certain expressions in certain situations and we are consistent in the way we react to most things. We may be an indirect people, but we have ways and signs that we use to communicate with each other and we find it easy to know what another Japanese is thinking very quickly. In many ways, we Japanese are an eminently predictable people, once you have discerned what we are like.

We Japanese are very egotistic, it must be said. Especially we Japanese men. We are self-centered and introspective and concerned with our own inner feelings. We are extremely sensitive to anything that reflects on us personally, good or bad. We are a subtle people, and all Japanese are keenly aware of the nuances of anything that is said about us or happens around us.

One day in the office, a man who works near me went to the desk of the section chief and talked to him for a long time. I could not hear what they were saying, but I noticed that the section chief looked in my direction several times. After they finished talking, the man went back to his desk without saying anything to me. But the next day, when we met in the washroom (I think he deliberately followed me in there) we discussed our work and he made a slight reference to one of
my accounts, saying he hoped it was as accurate as the last time the auditors looked at it. Right away, I was sure he had seen something wrong, and I was not surprised when the section chief called me over. He discussed something else but mentioned briefly that particular account and said he knew the auditors would find it in order whenever they checked it. That night I stayed late in the office to go over the account and found a bad mistake, which I corrected. Nothing else was ever said about it.

We Japanese are anxious to have prestige and to have recognition of our status by other people. Status is more important to us than money or comfort. One of the reasons we Japanese work hard is to achieve status. I don't get much personal, inner satisfaction from my work, but I am known by my association with the company, this will increase my prestige in the eyes of people who are important to me. Of course, I must work hard to stay alive and to care for my family. Our economy has done very well, but there are many Japanese, and our per capita income is still low. We know now that we can have happy lives but we must work for them.
**Interpretation of Words and Phrases:**

Circle the letter next to the best answer.

1. “My name is Watanabe Taro, which is something like John Smith or John Doe” means:
   a. “John Doe” is a translation of my name into English.
   b. I have a very common name in Japan.
   c. My name is short in Japanese.

2. “We live in a very closely knit society” means:
   a. The people feel unified and close to each other in spirit.
   b. The women in Japan like to knit with small stitches.
   c. The Japanese don’t understand people from other cultures.

3. “We hammer down the nail that sticks up” means:
   a. People build their own houses out of wood and nails.
   b. A person who doesn’t conform is forced to conform.
   c. A person who doesn’t conform is left alone.

4. In the above sentence (No. 3), “sticks up” means:
   a. Robs
   b. Is sharp
   c. Protrudes
5. “Our marriage is somewhat different from my parents’.” The word *parents’* has an ( ) because:
   a. It is a possessive word and means *parents’ marriage*.
   b. Everyone has two parents.
   c. The author is surprised that the marriages are different.

6. “Just because we wear Western clothes and ride on trains and *things like that* doesn’t mean we are Western.” The italicized words mean:
   a. We like Western things very much.
   b. We work in office buildings.
   c. We do some other Western things too.

7. “We use certain expressions in certain *situations.*” In this sentence, the italicized word means:
   a. Locations
   b. (At certain) times
   c. Jobs
Special Expressions:

From the list choose the correct meaning for each italicized expression. Be sure to use correct verb tenses and singular or plural forms.

To ask (someone) to come  For each person  To support
Correct  In (a person's) opinion  To understand
To educate  To protrude from  Unified

1. After they got lost in the forest together, the people became a friendly, closely-knit group.

2. There’s a pin sticking up in that pillow. You had better take it out.

3. Many people have to take care of their parents when they get old.

4. If you bring up your children well, you will be proud of them.

5. Are you aware of the problems you might have if you live abroad?

6. My boss called me over to his desk to get the papers.

7. If you go abroad, you must make sure that your passport is in order.

8. I always want to appear intelligent in the eyes of my friends.

9. How much money is there per capita in Japan?
Dialogue Completion

Complete the following dialogues with the most appropriate expressions from the list below. Each expression may be used only once.

I'm on your side
I can’t spare the time.
Let’s drop the whole thing.
She has a lot going for her.
We’re going to see him off.
You don’t have the nerve
Don’t let me down.

I’d give anything
What a surprise!
Leave me alone.
Just in time
That’s life.
Come on
All by herself

No doubt
To make sure
To be in the way
To keep in shape
To get carried away
To get away with something

Examples: I know you have work to do, and I don’t want to be in the way, so I’ll be leaving now.

But I was counting on you to help me. Please don’t let me down.

1. __________________ to be able to play the guitar, but it’s so difficult.
   ________________, you could learn if you really wanted to.

2. I don’t want ______________, but I think your sister is terrific.
   You’re right. ____________________.

3. Sandy thinks it’s important ____________ so she gets a lot of exercise.
   I would like to get more exercise myself, but ______________.
4. __________________________. I didn’t know Mr. Poole was going to France.

He’s leaving tomorrow. __________________________ at the airport.

5. Jimmy got home _____________________ to help Linda clean up the house.

That’s good. Otherwise she would have had to do it ________________.

6. That Marty, he’s always trying ____________________________.

We’d better watch him _________________ he doesn’t get in trouble.

7. ____________ Fred was very disappointed when he lost the pie-eating contest.

Well, _________________. You win some and you lose some.

8. Everyone says __________________________ to oppose Mr. Bascomb. What do they mean?

I’m tired of talking about it. ________________________________.

9. Why is it you never listen to me? Don’t you know ______________________?
I don’t need your advice. Please mind your own business and
g______________.
LESSON FIVE

*Intended students:*
Fifth semester students of modern languages.

*Aim of the lesson:*
To be aware of language as gestures born within a culture.

5

**HOW TO READ BODY LANGUAGE**

All of us communicate with one another non-verbally, as well as with words. Most of the time we’re not aware that we’re doing it. We gesture with eyebrows or a hand, meet someone else’s eyes and look away, shift positions in a chair. These actions we assume are random and incidental. But researchers have discovered in recent years that there is a system to them almost as consistent and comprehensible as language.

Every culture has its own body language, and children absorb its nuances along with spoken language. A Frenchman talks and moves in French. The way an Englishman crosses his legs is nothing like the way a male American does it. In talking, Americans are apt to end a statement with a droop of the head or hand, a lowering of the eyelids. They wind up a question with a lift of the hand, a tilt of the chin or a
widening of the eyes. With a future-tense verb they often gesture with a forward movement.

There are regional idioms too: an expert can sometimes pick out a native of Wisconsin just by the way he uses his eyebrows during conversation. Your sex, ethnic background, social class and personal style all influence your body language. Nevertheless, you move and gesture within the American idiom. The person who is truly bilingual is also bilingual in body language. New York’s famous mayor, Fiorello La Guardia, politicked in English, Italian and Yiddish. When films of his speeches are run without sound, it’s not too difficult to identify from his gestures the language he was speaking. One of the reasons English-dubbed foreign films often seem flat is that the gestures don’t match the language.

Usually, the wordless communication acts to qualify the words. What the non-verbal elements express very often, and very efficiently, is the emotional side of the message. When a person feels liked or disliked, often it’s a case of “not what he said but the way he said it.” Psychologist Albert Mehrabian has devised this formula: total impact of a message = 7 percent verbal + 38 percent vocal + 55 percent facial. The importance of the voice can be seen when you consider that even the words “I hate you” can be made to sound sexy.
Experts in kinesics – the study of communication through body movement – are not prepared to spell out a precise vocabulary of gestures. When an American rubs his nose, it may mean he is disagreeing with someone or rejecting something. But there are other possible interpretations, too. Another example: when a student in conversation with a professor holds the older man’s eyes a little longer than is usual, it can be a sign of respect and affection; it can be a subtle challenge to the professor’s authority; or it can be something else entirely. The expert looks for patterns in the context, not for an isolated meaningful gesture.

Kinesics is a young science – about 17 years old – and very much the brainchild of one man, anthropologist Dr. Ray L. Birdwhistell. But it already offers a wide variety of small observations. (For example: eyebrows have a repertoire of about 23 possible positions; men use their eyebrows more than women do.) Most people find they can shut out conversation and concentrate on body language for only about 30 seconds at a time. Anyone can experiment with it, however, simply by turning on the television picture without the sound. One of the most potent elements in body language is eye behavior. Americans are careful about how and when they meet one another’s eyes. In our normal conversation, each eye contact lasts only about a second
before one or both individuals look away. When two Americans look searchingly into each other’s eyes, emotions are heightened and the relationship becomes more intimate. Therefore, we carefully avoid this, except in appropriate circumstances.

Americans abroad sometimes find local eye behavior hard to interpret. “Tel Aviv was disturbing,” one man recalled, “People stared right at me on the street; they looked me up and down. I kept wondering if I was uncombed or unzipped. Finally, a friend explained that Israelis think nothing of staring at others on the street.”

Proper street behavior in the United States requires a nice balance of attention and inattention. You are supposed to look at a passerby just enough to show that you’re aware of his presence. If you look too little, you appear haughty or secretive; (if you do it for too long you’re inquisitive). Usually what happens is that people eye each other until they are about eight feet apart, at which point both cast down their eyes. Sociologist Dr. Erving Goffman describes this as “a kind of dimming of lights.” In parts of the Far East it is impolite to look at the other person at all during conversation. In England the polite listener stares at the speaker attentively and blinks his eyes occasionally as a sign of interest. That eye-blink says nothing to Americans, who
expect the listener to nod or to murmur something – such as “mm-hmm”.

There are times when what a person says with his body gives the lie to what he is saying with his tongue. Sigmund Freud once wrote: “No mortal can keep a secret. If his lips are silent, he chatters with his fingertips; betrayal oozes out of him at every pore”.

Thus, a man may successfully control his face, and appear calm, self-controlled – unaware that his foot is beating the floor constantly, restlessly, as if it had a life of its own. Rage is another emotion feet and legs may reveal. During arguments the feet often become tense. Fear sometimes produces barely perceptible running motions, a kind of nervous leg jiggle. Then there are the subtle, provocative leg gestures that women use, consciously and unconsciously.

Recent studies by psychologists suggest that posture often reflects a person’s attitude toward people he is with. One experiment indicates that when men are with other men they dislike, they relax either very little or very much – depending on whether they see the other man as threatening. Women in this experiment always signaled dislike with very relaxed posture. And men, paired with women they disliked, were never tense enough about it to sit rigidly.
Postures sometimes offer a guide to broad relationships within a group. Imagine that at a party, guests have been fired up by an argument over student radicalism. You may be able to spot at a glance the two sides of the argument by postures adopted. Most of the pros, for example, may sit with crossed knees; the cons with legs stretched out and arms folded. A few middle-of-the-roaders may try a little of each – crossing their knees and folding their arms. If an individual abruptly shifts his body around in his chair, it may mean that he disagrees with the speaker or even that he is changing sides. None of this, of course, represents an infallible guide, but it is apparently significant enough to be worth watching for.

While children learn spoken and body language – proper postures, eye behaviors, etc. – they also learn a subtler thing: how to react to space around them. Man walks around inside a kind of private bubble, which represents the amount of air space he feels he must have between himself and other people. Anthropologists, working with cameras, have recorded the tremors and minute eye movements that betray the moment the individual’s bubble is breached. As adults, however, we hide our feelings behind a screen of polite words. Anthropologist Dr. Edward T. Hall points out that, for two unacquainted adult male North Americans, the comfortable distance
to stand for private conversation is from arm’s length to about four feet apart. The South American likes to stand much closer, which creates problems when the two meet face to face. For, as the South American moves in, the North American feels he’s being pushy; and as the North American backs off, the South American thinks he’s being standoffish.

The American and the Arab are even less compatible in their space habits. Arabs like close contact. In some instances, they stand very close together to talk, staring intently into each other’s eyes and breathing into each other’s face. These are actions the American may associate with sexual intimacy and he may find it disturbing to be subjected to them in a nonsexual context.

The amount of space a man needs is also influenced by his personality – introverts, for example, seem to need more elbow room than extroverts. Situation and mood also affect distance. Moviegoers waiting in line to see a sexy film will line up much more densely than those waiting to see a family-entertainment movie.

George du Maurier once wrote: “Language is a poor thing. You fill your lungs with wind and shake a little slit in your throat and make mouths, and that shakes the air; and the air shakes a pair of little
drums in my head... and my brain seizes your meaning in the rough. What a roundabout way and what a waste of time!”

Communication between human beings would be just that dull if it were all done with words. But actually, words are often the smallest part of it.

**Interpretation of Words and Phrases:**

Circle the letter next to the best answer.

1. “He chatters with his fingertips” means:
   a. He uses hand language.
   b. He taps his fingers nervously.
   c. He waves his fingers around.

2. “Most of the pros may sit with crossed knees, the cons with legs stretched out and arms folded”.

   Pros:
   a. Professionals
   b. Very talented people
   c. Those in favor of something

   Cons:
   a. Those against something
   b. Convicts
   c. With something
3. “Anthropologists have recorded... minute eye movements”.

In this sentence “minute” means:

a. Measurement
b. 60 seconds
c. Tiny

*Multiple-word Verbs:*

Rewrite each sentence, choosing a synonym from the list for each italicized multiple-word verb. Be sure to use an appropriate verb tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To indicate</th>
<th>To select</th>
<th>To describe exactly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To avoid</td>
<td>To end</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be excited</td>
<td>To retreat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. I left in the middle of the movie. How did it *wind up*?

2. The lawyer *pointed out* the contradictions between the two statements.

3. Could you *spell out* the difficulties that we might encounter if we accept the proposal?

4. The crowd *was very fired up* by the politician’s speech.

5. You can’t *get around* the fact that gestures carry different meanings in different cultures.
6. When I went shopping, I picked out a new suit and a pair of shoes.

7. As the angry dog moved closer to me, I backed off.

Special Expressions:
From the list choose the correct meaning for each of the italicized expressions. (Change the structure of the sentences to fit, if necessary).

In general                          Indirect
To study (someone) carefully       To look into (someone’s) eyes quickly
To contradict                      To know immediately
To stare at (a person) intently    Brilliant idea
To treat casually

1. Although she is smiling, her sad eyes give the lie to her smile.

2. In a very roundabout way, my boyfriend told me he didn’t like my new hairstyle.

3. The new rocket is the brainchild of two nuclear physicists.

4. He held my eyes while he begged me for help.

5. During the job interview, the manager looked me up and down.

6. This paper will tell you in the rough about my plans for the experiment.

7. My rich friend thinks nothing of spending $10 for lunch every day.
8. An expert jeweler can spot at a glance a real diamond from a fake one.

9. After the child broke the glass, he met his mother's eyes, but then looked away guiltily.

Dialogue Completion:

Complete the following dialogues with the most appropriate expression from the list below. Each expression may be used only once.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From now on</th>
<th>We're in the same boat</th>
<th>She's in a class by herself.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Put yourself in his shoes</td>
<td>I'm going to teach him a lesson.</td>
<td>Make up your mind!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standing room only</td>
<td>She's in charge of it.</td>
<td>She's sure to get the blame.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can't help it.</td>
<td>She hasn't been herself</td>
<td>I'm broke.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What's your rush?</td>
<td>You can count on me.</td>
<td>He doesn't know his place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She changed her mind</td>
<td>That was close!</td>
<td>What's wrong with you?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It's the least I can do</td>
<td>He lost his temper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example: “I don't mind cleaning up after the party. It's the least I can do.”

“If you need any help you can count on me”.

1. “Her father used to be president of the company. Now ________________________.”

“If anything goes wrong ________________________.”
2. “First she said she would come to the party. Then ____________________________.”
   “Something's the matter with her. ____________________________ lately”.

3. “Are you coming with us or not? ____________________________!”
   “ __________________________? There's still plenty of time.”

4. “Billy was very angry. __________________________ and started shouting at the boss.”
   “ __________________________. He forgets that he's only an office boy.”

5. “I don't like what he did. __________________________.”
   “First __________________________. He only did what he had to do”.

6. “Can you loan me some money? __________________________.”
   “I don't have any money, either. It looks like __________________________.”

7. “Miss Starr is the best singer I've ever heard. __________________________.”
   “There wasn't an empty seat at her last concert. It was __________________________.”

8. “ __________________________! We almost missed the bus”.
“_________________________ we should leave earlier so we don’t have to hurry”.

10. “_________________________? You’re always getting into trouble”.

“_________________________. It isn’t my fault”.

B. GRAMMAR APPROACH TO IDIOMS

1. PARTICLES (PREPOSITIONS) IN PHRASAL COMBINATIONS

Many of the words known as prepositions appear in various phrasal patterns. One pattern is a verb + such words as in, on, up, over; in these combinations the prepositions modify the verbs in much the same way as adverbs and are often referred to as preposition – adverbs. The difference between the prepositions and preposition – adverbs is shown by the following examples:

(1) The child looked over the table.
(The particle, over, shows a relationship of position; other particles, such as on or under, would indicate different positions.)

(2) The student looked over his notes.
(The combination of the verb look + the preposition – adverb over conveys the meaning of “review” or “go over”; the verb look + the preposition – adverb for, for example, would convey the meaning of “seek.”)

Another group of verbs are followed by specific prepositions. Examples are "arrive in, approve of, laugh at". The prepositions in these combinations do not change the meaning of the verb to the extent that the preposition-adverbs do in the combinations look over and look for.
Whether the word following the verb is a preposition-adverb or a preposition is not particularly important here, because the combinations in either case must be learned as fixed phrases. The two groups are given in separate lists, however, because it is necessary in most cases to define the meaning of the verb + preposition-adverb combinations.

In addition to the types of combinations described above, prepositions are found in other kinds of fixed phrases such as to be afraid of, to have confidence in, in addition to, at once.

2. VERB and PREPOSITION-ADVERB COMBINATIONS

Although verb and preposition-adverb combinations are regarded as units, an object may separate some combinations. Combinations may appear either followed or separated by an object, always followed by an object, and without it.

(1) VERB + Preposition-Adverb + Noun OBJECT.

Or

VERB + Pronoun OBJECT + Preposition-Adverb.

Complete lists of combinations will not be offered; nor all the meanings of a particular combination will be given. For more complete lists and detailed definitions of verb + preposition-adverb
combinations, a standard dictionary or a word study manual is to be consulted.

A noun object may also be placed between the verb and preposition-adverb in most situations; however, in learning to use the combinations, it may be simpler to place the noun object after the preposition-adverb because there seems to be a tendency to place it in this position.

A sentence may also be expressed in the passive. In the passive construction, the object **the children** becomes the subject, and there is no object after **brought up**.

Their children were **brought up** in the country.

1. **Bring back**
   a. [recall] Your story **brings back** pleasant memories.
   b. [return] You may borrow my car if you will **bring it back** by five o’clock.

2. **Bring up**
   a. [rear (children)] They **brought up** their children in the country.
b. [introduce or mention (a subject)] Why don’t you **bring up** your proposal at the next meeting?

3. **Call back** [telephone again]

   Why don’t you **call** him **back** in an hour?

4. **Call in** [to ask (someone) to come in (for a purpose)]

   We **called** him **in** to ask his advice.

5. **Call up** [telephone]

   Why don’t you **call** her **up** now?

6. **Check off** [mark (an item on a list) for identification or verification]

   As each person arrives, **check** his name **off** the list.

7. **Check out** [withdraw (a book, etc.)]

   When did you **check out** these books?

8. **Cheer up** [put (someone) in good spirits or in a good mood]
Try to **cheer** her **up**; she hasn’t been feeling well lately.

9. **Cross off** [remove (an item from a list)]
   
   Cross my name **off** the list, please.

When **cross off** and **check off** are followed by the **list**, the **page**, etc., the noun object is placed between the verb and the preposition-adverb.

10. **Cross out** [remove by drawing a line through]
   
   When you misspell a word, **cross** it **out** and write it correctly.

11. **Do over**
   
   a. [do again] Your composition was poorly organized; you must **do** it **over**.
   b. [redecorate] We are planning to **do over** our living room soon.

12. **drop off** [leave (someone or something) at a place]
   
   I’ll **drop** you **off** at the post office.

13. **figure out** [solve or reason out]
I just can’t **figure** it **out**.

14. **Hand in** [submit or turn in]

Bill forgot to **turn in** his homework today.

15. **Look over**
   a. [review] You´d better **look over** this lesson again.
   b. [examine] We´d like to **look over** the clothes on sale.

16. **Look up**
   a. [Search for (in a reference book, etc.)] You can **look up** population figures in an almanac.
   b. [pay a visit to] **Look me up** whenever you´re in town.

17. **Pick out** [select]

Please help me **pick out** a new hat.

18. **Pick up**

   a. [Collect] Can you pick me up at about 7:30?
b. [learn by chance] We picked up some new ideas at the conference.

19. **Point out** [call attention to]

   I want to **point out** several important facts to you.

20. **Put on**

   a. [don (clothing)] You should put on a raincoat because it has started to rain.

   b. [start (coffee, radio, etc.)] Should I put on the coffee now?

21. **Take off** [remove (clothing)]

   Why don’t you take **off your** coat and stay a while?

   In this sentence (22a), it seems more natural to place the noun object between the verb and preposition-adverb.

22. **Take out**

   a. [escort] John took Mary out last Saturday; they had dinner together and then went to see the play at the Star Theatre.
b. [extract] The dentist took out two of my wisdom teeth last week.

23. **Take up**

   a. [become interested in (a subject, a hobby, etc.)] Walter has
      **taken up** flying.

   b. [discuss] We’ll **take** that up again tomorrow.

   c. [introduce] Mr. Martin **took up** a new subject in class today.

24. **Think over** [give thought to or (re)consider]

   **Think** it **over** a little longer.

25. **Try on** [test the fit or appearance]

   I’d like to **try on** these two suits, please.

Regarding the specific topic of Idioms using prepositions **up, out, on** and **off**. We must say that, for most cases, the verbs get to keep their basic meaning and are modified by the particles, changing and making the meaning of the verb more exact. The particle **up** placed after a verb generally suggests an action, which is **complete**. Thus, **to burn up** is to burn something completely. **To eat up** something is to
eat all of it. *To clean up* is to clean completely and thoroughly. Let us compare the verbs “*brush, sweep, and wash*” with particles “*out, off* and *up*”: the particle “*out*” gives the meaning of superficiality in the sense of not a fully complete action. The particle “*off*” gives the sense of lacking contact with a determined or implied object or idea, the opposite is the case of particle “*on*” which seems to have the sense of connection or a relationship.
ANSWER KEY

Lesson 1

Interpretation of Words and Phrases

1) c, 2) a, 3) a, 4) b, 5) c, 6) a

Dialogue Completion.

1. Do you mind, Go ahead

2. get along with, everything will turn out all right

3. That way, It’s up to you

4. So far, at all

1. I can’t stand it, Take it easy

6. After all, Anything is possible

7. She was in a bad mood, She gave up

8. take care of, At least

9. on the way, That’s nice of you

Lesson 2

Interpretation of words and Phrases

1) b, 2) a, 3) a, 4) b, 5) c, 6) c, 7) a, 8) a, 9) c.

Dialogue Completion

1. for a change?

2. take advantage of

3. I feel sorry for him
4. No wonder
5. It’s no use
6. The grass is always greener on the other side of the mountain
7. we can work something out
8. make up your mind
9. we’ll teach him a lesson

Lesson 3.

Interpretation of Words and Phrases

1) a, 2) b, 3) b, 4) b, 5) a, 6) a

Multi-word Verbs

1) discovered, 2) investigating, 3) tested, 4) decreased, 5) finished, 6) reviewed, 7) is searching for, 8) suggested, 9) indicates, 10) to continue

Special Expressions

1) wakes up, gets up, wake (him) up, went to bed, fall asleep, sleepy;
2) sleeping; 3) sleep late; 4) wake me up; 5) sleep; 6) was awakened;
7) went to sleep; 8) sleepy, take a nap

Dialogue Completion

1. they’d be better off, That makes sense
2. take advantage of, It isn’t worth it
3. We’re proud of, so far, They’re bound to do well
4. on purpose, Never mind

5. to run out of, Don’t mention it

6. Once in a while, No matter what happens

**Lesson 4**

*Interpretation of Words and Phrases*

1) b, 2) a, 3) b, 4) c, 5) a, 6) c, 7) b

*Special expressions*

1) unified, 2) protruding from, 3) support, 4) educate, 5) do you understand, 6) asked me to come, 7) correct, 8) in my friends’ opinion, 9) for each person

*Dialogue Completion*

10. I’d give anything, Come on

11. to get carried away, She has a lot going for her

12. To keep in shape, I can’t spare the time

13. What a surprise!, We’re going to see him off

14. Just in time, All by herself

15. To get away with something, to make sure

26. No doubt, that’s life

27. you don’t have the nerve, Let’s drop the whole thing

28. I’m on your side?, Leave me alone
Lesson 5

Interpretation of Words and Phrases

1) b, 2) c, a; 3) c, 4) b

Multi-word Verbs

1) end, 2) indicated, 3) describe exactly, 4) was excited, 5) avoid, 6) selected, 7) retreated

Special Expressions

1) contradict, 2) indirect, 3) brilliant idea, 4) stared at me intently, 5) studied me carefully, 6) in general, 7) treats... casually, 8) know immediately, 9) looked into his mother’s eyes quickly

Dialogue Completion

1. She’s in charge of it, She’s sure to get the blame
2. She changed her mind, She hasn’t been herself
3. Make up your mind, “What’s your rush?”
4. He lost his temper, He doesn’t know his place
5. I’m going to teach him a lesson, Put yourself in his shoes
6. I’m broke, We’re in the same boat
7. She’s in a class by herself, Standing room only
8. That was close, From now on
9. “What’s wrong with you? I can’t help it
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IDIOMS AND EXPRESSIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10th grade.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAME: __________________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the blank spaces at the right, give a ONE-WORD synonym for the word or words in parenthesis. Follow the example in the first sentence.

1. He (left out) the third question on his examination. ( omitted )
2. Such a thing is absolutely (out of the) question. (__________)
3. We (talked over) the problem for a long time. (__________)
4. I did not (get Through) work until almost eight o’clock. (__________)
5. He likes to (find fault with) the work of others. (__________)
6. I want to (look over) that correspondence before it goes out. (__________)
7. (All at once) John appeared in the doorway. (__________)
8. He was living in France when the war (broke out). (__________)
9. The enemy (gave in) without further resistance. (__________)

VIII. ANNEX

A. INQUIRY
The following was the test performed by the students and its results are presented item per item.
10. She **took pity on** him and gave him the money.
(____________)

11. You must **take into account** the fact that he was ill.
(____________)

12. Ida fainted but **came to** immediately.
(____________)

13. He is planning to **take up** medicine in college.
(____________)

14. Bella **takes after** her mother in many ways.
(____________)

15. The poor fellow went **out of his mind**.
(____________)

16. Don’t **let go of** the rope until I tell you.
(____________)

17. **Keep an eye on** my suitcase while I get my ticket.
(____________)

18. I wish I could **cut out** smoking.
(____________)

19. His application for a passport was **turned down**.
(____________)

20. They will **try out** the machine tomorrow.
(____________)
B. RESULTS TO THE INQUIRY
The following is a graphical display to the responses given by the students in each and every item, number one (1) was given as an example. Twenty students were inquired on the use of English Language by means of Idioms and expressions.

(2) Six students answered correctly accounting for the 30%, two did not answer (10%) and twelve had mistakes (60%).

(3) Twelve students answered correctly (60%), four had mistakes (20%), one did not answer (10%) and three gave an acceptable response (15%).
(4) Four students answered correctly (20%); twelve made mistakes (60%) and four did not answer (20%).

(5) Five students answered correctly (25%), ten made mistakes (50%), two did not answer (10%) and three gave acceptable responses (15%).

(6) Sixteen students answered correctly (80%), three made mistakes (15%) and one gave an acceptable answer (5%).
(7) Six students answered correctly (30%), ten students made mistakes (50%) and four did not answer (20%).

(8) Eight students answered correctly (40%), eight made mistakes (40%), one did not answer (5%) and three gave acceptable responses (15%).

(9) Five students answered correctly (25%), four made mistakes (20%) and eleven did not answer (55%).
(10) Five students answered correctly (25%), five made mistakes (25%), and ten did not answer (50%).

(11) Eleven students answered correctly (55%), four made mistakes (20%) and five did not answer (25%).

(12) One student answered correctly (5%), eleven made mistakes (55%), six did not answer (30%) and two gave an acceptable response (10%).
(13) Thirteen students answered correctly (65%), three made mistakes (15%), two did not answer (10%) and two gave acceptable responses (10%).

(14) Three students answered correctly (15%), nine made mistakes (45%), seven did not answer (35%) and one gave an acceptable response (5%).

(15) Six students answered correctly (30%), five made mistakes (25%), seven did not answer (35%) and two gave an acceptable response (10%).
(16) Six students answered correctly (30%), nine made mistakes (45%), four did not answer (20%) and one gave an acceptable response (1%).

(17) Seventeen answered correctly (85%) and three students made mistakes (15%).

(18) Eleven students answered correctly (55%), three made mistakes (15%), five did not answer (25%) and one gave an acceptable response (5%).
(19) Five students answered correctly (25%), ten made mistakes (50%), four did not answer (20%) and one gave an acceptable response (5%).

(20) Three students answered correctly (15%), nine made mistakes (45%), five did not answer (25%) and three gave acceptable responses (15%).
C. GLOSSARY

**Circumlocutions**: The use of more words than necessary to express an idea; a deliberately round-about, evasive way of speaking; a phrase or passage with these characteristics.

**Collocation**:

Collocate, to set or place with, or in relation to; to station; to place in the proper order; to arrange words in sentence form.

**In-cep-tion**:

(in sepn) **n.** [[L inceptio < inceptus, pp. of incipere: see INCIPIENT]]

the beginning of something; start; commencement --**SYN.** ORIGIN

**Figures of speech**

Students of rhetoric are dealing with Idioms, and with patterns of idiom formation, when they talk of figures of speech. When we say he married a lemon, the morpheme lemon “sour-dispositioned woman” is obviously a different idiom from the same morpheme meaning “kind of fruit,” and the former usage developed from the latter by a particular figure of speech.

The traditional classification of figures of speech into “hyperbole,” “irony” and the like, is based primarily on the literary usage of classical Greek and Roman authors. Some of these figures are found in the more recent literature of the West because of its classical
heritage. No one knows how universal the valid application of the traditional terms may be.

**Fixed**

Not subject to change or fluctuation (*a fixed income*) (2): firmly set in the mind (*a fixed idea*) (3): having a final or crystallized form or character (4): recurring on the same date from year to year (*fixed holidays*), **IMMOBILE, CONCENTRATED** (*a fixed stare*).

2: supplied with something (as money) needed (*comfortably fixed*).

**Idiom**, expression to which usage has given a special meaning—for example, "catch cold"; also language identified with certain historic period, a specific region, or a class of people

**Idiom**: A use of words peculiar to a given language; an expression that cannot be translated literally. “To carry out” literally means to carry something out (of a room perhaps), but idiomatically it means to see that something is done, as “to carry out a command.” **Idioms** in a language usually arise from a peculiarity that is syntactical or structural—the same, but their adverbial forms, by a quirk of *idiom*, are different; compare “I’ll be there shortly” and “I’ll be there briefly.”

**Idiomaticity**: The acceptable usage of an idiom.

**Idiom and Slang**
As the many languages of the world developed and changed over the centuries, there emerged usage and ways of saying things that were peculiar to each. Some of these are unique to a particular language such as idiomatic expressions and slang; others, such as sayings and proverbs, emerge from the folk history of a people, but through translation they become part of the literary heritage of mankind.

An idiomatic expression is a phrase that has become an accepted part of a language but that makes little sense if taken literally. Most idioms are difficult, therefore, to translate from one language to another. Common English idioms include "Hold the door," "Catch a cold," "Run up a bill," "Beat a retreat," and "Strike a bargain." Even so simple a request as "Put out the light" would, if taken literally, get different results from what one expected.

Slang consists of words and phrases that came into use in one of the many subgroups that make up society. Eventually this vocabulary comes to be known and used by the general population. Slang is, therefore, a middle ground of words and expressions between standard and informal speech on the one hand and jargon, dialect, and vulgar speech on the other. The vocabulary of slang has become too well known and popular to be restricted in its use to
particular groups; yet it is not popular enough to be considered standard, or even informal, speech.

The number of subgroups that have contributed slang expressions to language is as various as the makeup of society itself: teenagers, jazz musicians, criminals, sports enthusiasts, ethnic groups, regional populations, the military, salespeople, advertising professionals, show business figures, drug addicts, politicians, and computer programmers. The expressions these groups originate gradually work their way into general use. In this sense slang differs from the figures of speech that seek to clarify and explain; slang expressions, before they are widely understood, tend to bewilder outsiders who have never heard them.

Slang expressions arise within groups in many ways. In many instances it is simply through ignorance of standard speech. If the correct word is not known, a new one will be devised or borrowed. Sometimes a word with a widely understood meaning will be used in another sense altogether. The word "rhubarb," for instance, was taken over by baseball players to mean a noisy argument. Some expressions are more plainly descriptive such as "one-horse town," meaning a quiet, dull village. Others, such as "off-the-wall," meaning "weird," have no plain meaning, but by popular use they gain
acceptance. The vocabulary of slang is enormous, and it continues to grow, often enriching and sometimes debasing a language. It is not certain whether slang is universal or even widespread, but wherever it is found its idiomatic nature is clear. Slang depends on its effect on the striking and far-fetched nature of its semantic overtones and its secondary associations.

**Opacity:** The state of being opaque; darkness; imperviousness to light or sound; the degree of opaqueness; the capacity of a substance to obstruct the passage of any radiant energy; obscurity of meaning; denseness.

**Rapport:** Harmony; affinity.
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