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ABSTRACT

Developed by the Oregon Elementary English Project, this curriculum unit intended for sixth graders focuses on words. The first lesson serves as an introduction and gives the teacher an opportunity to find out what the students know; lessons 2 through 6 are concerned with the rhetorical use of words (choosing words for their effect); the use of the dictionary is developed in lessons 7 and 8; the ways in which words are developed and the etymologies of words are studied in lessons 9 through 16; and lessons 13, 15, and 16 deal with various word-building processes (compounding and adding suffixes and prefixes) and require a knowledge of parts of speech. Each lesson is accompanied by a statement of its purpose, background, content, possible procedures, and suggested student exercises. (See related documents CS 200 482-494, and CS 200 496-499.) (HS)

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Words
Teacher

Language VI

Oregon Elementary
English Project
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INTRODUCTION

Most teachers apparently found this unit quite satisfactory and we have made no revisions. We have, however, provided you with a key to the exercises in each lesson, made occasional suggestions about teaching a particular lesson here and there, and indicated some mistakes that appear in the earlier material.

The one criticism of this unit that came out of the evaluations was that some of the lessons were too difficult for some students. As a partial solution to that difficulty we would like to make the following suggestions. We think you should not try to teach the unit all at one time. The lessons are of varying difficulty, beginning with some that are well within the capabilities of most sixth graders in the first half of the year, and progressing to some designed for very mature sixth graders, those almost ready for the seventh grade. Some of the later lessons assume some knowledge about the history of English, which students will not have until after they have studied the history unit. Some lessons assume ability to identify various word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.) that students will probably have a firmer grasp of later in the year than earlier. Therefore we suggest that you teach some lessons in the unit early and intersperse others throughout the year between the other units in the language strand.

The unit adapts itself very well to this kind of division. The first lesson is an introductory lesson which reviews the concepts developed in Language V and gives you an opportunity to find out what your students know. Each of the concepts is reinforced and expanded in later lessons. Lessons 2 to 6 are concerned with the rhetorical use of words--that is with choosing words for their effect--and with the various kinds of effects they have. They all can be taught in conjunction with writing assignments and, in fact, call for some writing as part of the lessons. Lessons 7 and 8 are concerned with the use of the dictionary and could be taught whenever the need for using the dictionary arises. Lessons 9-16 have to do with where words come from. They include lessons on borrowing words from other languages, inventing words, and the various ways in which we build new words out of ones we already have. Within that group lessons 9-11 can be taught in connection with the History of the English Language unit. Lessons 13, 15, and 16, while dealing with various word-building processes (compounding and adding suffixes and prefixes) have sections which call for a knowledge of parts of speech. Each of these lessons can be adapted to your group by choosing from them the exercises which fit. They are the lessons which should come late in the year.

By spreading the lessons out and leaving the more difficult ones until later and by adapting them to your group you should be able to teach the unit successfully.

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HOW VOCABULARIES GROW

Key to exercises:

Exercise 1: a. mix-up; b. crybaby; c. bluejay; d. slapstick;
e. litterbug.

Exercise 2: a. enough; b. glad; c. differ; d. home; e. synonym.

We learn new words that mean the same or nearly the same as words we already know.

We can be more exact and have more variety.

Exercise 3: a. school; b. plate; c. palm; d. bat; e. match.

Some words which are pronounced alike and spelled alike may have two distinct meanings.

Words like these are called homonyms or homographs.

Note: The terms homograph, homonym, and homophone have overlapping meanings. Homonyms, meaning "same name," always have the same pronunciation but different meaning. Homophones, meaning "same sound," always have the same pronunciation but different spelling and different meaning. Homographs, meaning "written the same," have the same spelling but different meaning. They may or may not have different pronunciation.

For example, pair and pear are homonyms because they have the same pronunciation but different meaning. They are also homophones.

On the other hand school meaning "a place where students are taught" and school meaning "a group of fish" are homographs as well as homonyms, but they are not homophones because they have the same spelling.

The word lead meaning "a metal" and lead meaning "to show someone the way" are homographs but not homophones or homonyms because they have different pronunciations.

All three have different meanings, but only homographs can have the same spelling and different pronunciation. Only homophones always have the same pronunciation and different spelling. If you need to distinguish among the three, the following chart may help.

	pronunciation	spelling	meaning	origin
homonyms	same	same or different	different	different
homophones	same	different	different	different
homographs	same or different	same	different	different

Exercise 4:

The point is that either word fits. The cartoons are humorous because of this fact. Two different interpretations are possible, one of which is unusual.

Exercise 5:

There are many possible words to use in the blanks. Some possibilities are: book + s = books; dish + es = dishes; walk + ed = walked; short + en = shorten; call + ing = calling; care + less = careless; kind + ness = kindness; tall + er = taller; tall + est = tallest. Endings that are added are called suffixes. Using a word plus an ending doubles the number of words.

Exercise 6: unlock unimportant illegal
undress impossible irregular

Parts added to the beginning of words are called prefixes.

You can build new words by adding prefixes. The same prefix can be added to many words.

Exercise 7:

- A. by compounding; by adding synonyms and homonyms; by adding suffixes or prefixes to words you already know.
- B. There are many possible answers. Some possibilities are:
- compounding--birdhouse; lighthouse; highway; scare-crow
 - synonyms--grass, lawn; wet, moisten; liberty, freedom;
 - words with multiple meanings (homonyms or homographs)--drill, club, table, etc.
 - homophones--pair and pear; weigh and way; knight and night.
 - suffixes--able: comfortable, hospitable, regrettable, etc
 - prefixes--re: return, retain, recall, renumber

WHAT CAN WE DO WITH WORDS?

Errata: Bottom of the page of teacher material. The reference to exercise 5 should be exercise 4.

This lesson has to do with the rhetorical use of words--selecting them for their effect. It has very close ties with composition lessons, and you may want to teach it at a time when it fits with a composition assignment. You might also want to select from among the exercises to fit the capabilities of your students.

Key to exercises:

Exercise 1: The underlined words are descriptive adjectives which make the nouns they modify more specific.

There are many possible words that could be used in the blanks. Each one would narrow the interpretations one could give to the nouns, and thus make them more specific. For example, a small garden limits the possibilities to gardens that are not large, etc.

Note: Once students become aware of how they can make nouns more specific by the use of descriptive adjectives you will have occasion to point out such words to them often and can help them add such words to their vocabulary.

Exercise 2: The underlined words tell when, which, how, where, and why. The words that tell which (two cars) consist of a noun plus a determiner. The rest are adverbs. Actually two cars doesn't make the explanation very specific except as number. If the cars were described they would become specific. You might want to soft pedal the which? in this exercise and concentrate on the others.

Answers will vary in the students' explanation of the playground incident.

Exercise 3: All of the underlined words are ones that give sense impressions: what we see, hear, smell, or feel, either by touching or with our emotions.

You might want to have students collect such words. You could have a bulletin board to which such words could be added whenever a student finds a new one.

Part b of this exercise could be done in groups, or as a class, with all students contributing. (The pictures belong to part a of the exercise.)

Exercise 4: Again answers will vary. Perhaps you could talk about the pictures as a class, or assign each picture to a group to think of words that express the emotion.

- b. This could be done in groups or individually with time at the end to share results.

- Exercise 5:
- a. The words in the phrases are chosen for their appeal to our sense of values. They are used to persuade (or sell) the readers (buyers). Comment on such words as excitement, craftsmanship, shimmering, beauty, lasts, believe in, six coats deep, integrity, pleasure, longer life, better, uncluttered, unbroken, strength, confidence, comfort, etc. They all have favorable connotations for most of us. You might want to contrast some of them with words that mean the same but have less favorable connotations.
 - b. Again the words are obviously chosen to influence favorably people who might buy the product being advertised.

- Exercise 6:
- a. 1
 - b. 3
 - c. 2
 - d. 5
 - e. 4
- Note: There may be some overlap and some possibility for different answers. Encourage students to give reasons for their choices.

WORDS HAVE MEANINGS

This lesson includes the possibility for open-ended discussion, particularly of the many possibilities of interpretation language gives us.

Key to exercises:

- Exercise 1:
- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1. literal | 5. figurative | 9. literal |
| 2. figurative | 6. literal | 10. figurative |
| 3. literal | 7. literal | 11. literal |
| 4. figurative | 8. figurative | 12. figurative |

Exercise 2: Note: There may be some honest differences of opinion about some of these since they have become so much a part of our language that we accept them without thinking of the literal meaning.

- | | | |
|------------|------------|-------------|
| 1. idiom | 6. idiom | 11. literal |
| 2. literal | 7. idiom | 12. idiom |
| 3. literal | 8. literal | 13. literal |
| 4. idiom | 9. literal | 14. idiom |
| 5. literal | 10. idiom | |

Exercise 3: There are many possibilities. This exercise could be done in groups.

DIG THAT FUNNY WORD

In this lesson you will want to rely on the vocabulary of slang words that your students use. Slang usually belongs to the younger generation. The lesson is conducive to open ended class discussion. Discuss the words at the bottom of the first page that the students are familiar with. If they aren't familiar with some, go on to the others. Have them add words that they use. Since the meaning we attach to slang words is often fleeting they may have a different meaning for many than you do. It would be interesting to point this out. Obviously some of the words have literal meanings that are not slang (lousy, dope, cool, neat, doll, creep, drip).

This lesson ties in well with composition assignments where you are concentrating on the effect choice of words has. You might want to save the discussion for such an assignment.

THE THREE NYMS

Key to exercises:

Exercise 1: The first sentence should sound right to everyone. The third may sound right to some. There may, of course, be some difference of opinion. The reason that not all the sentences sound right is that although quiet, motionless, calm, and still are synonyms, they are not identical in meaning. There are shades of difference that make each one appropriate in some contexts but not in others. For example, motionless doesn't fit well with evening, which in and of itself is not capable of motion.

Exercise 2: a. 1 (just)
b. 6 (clear)
c. 3 (average)
d. none
e. 5 (blond, light)
f. 4 (promising)

Note: There may be other possibilities but the meaning would be changed. For example, the following are possible:

b. 2 (pleasing), 3 (average), 4 (promising)
e. 6 (clear)
f. 1 (honest), 3 (average), 6 (clear)

Exercise 3: The blanks should be filled with 1. homonyms, 2. antonyms, and 3. synonyms.

Note: The first pair of words under each of the headings at the bottom of the page are examples. The rest are not necessarily in the right column. They should be rearranged in this way:

Antonyms

hasten-delay
easy-hard
fair-unfair
refuse-accept
yes-no

Homonyms

site-sight
tail-tale
plain-plane
right-write
fair-fare
no-know

Synonyms

smile-grin
calm-quiet
fair-clear
refuse-reject

Exercise 4: 1. no; 2. yes; 3. yes; 4. yes; 5. yes; 6. yes;
7. yes; 8. no; 9. no; 10. Answers will vary, but students should understand that the meaning is essentially alike.

GENERAL WORDS AND SPECIFIC WORDS

This lesson too has to do with the rhetorical use of words and you may want to save it until it ties in with a composition assignment.

Key to exercises:

- Exercise 1: 1. general; 2. specific; 3. general; 4. specific;
5. general; 6. specific; 7. general; 8. specific;
9. general
- Exercise 2: You might have students work in groups and see which group can get the most words. Answers will vary. Some possibilities are:
1. steak
 2. easy chair (We talk about specific kinds of chairs only with the use of adjectives in English. Such words as stool, bench, etc. aren't quite synonyms.)
 3. loafers, sandals, pumps
 4. caterpillar
 5. trombone
 6. cranberry juice (Like chair, juice has no synonym with a more specific meaning. We indicate kind with a modifier.)
 7. headache
 8. man
 9. saw
 10. bananas
- Exercise 3: 1. liquid - beverage - carbonated beverage - Coke
2. substance - fuel - coal
3. recreation - game - baseball - softball
4. reading matter - book - textbook - math book
5. timepiece - watch - wrist watch
6. vehicle - automobile - sportscar - Corvette
7. picture - photograph - snapshot
8. human being - man - athlete - baseball player - pitcher
9. building - skyscraper - office building - Empire State Building
10. plant - flower - rose - "American Beauty" rose

THE DICTIONARY WORD-BANK

Use this lesson to help students review what they know about the dictionary and to determine what they need more work on. It would be useful if you were to compare the entry given in the student lesson with their own dictionaries.

Key to exercise:

1. four syllables
2. entry
3. two
4. change y to i and add es
5. dictio
6. diction
7. three
8. lexicon
9. alphabetically, definitions, etymologies, pronunciations
10. dict.

Etymology and dictionary both have to do with words.

DICTIONARIES, DICTIONARIES, DICTIONARIES!

This lesson needs to be planned ahead of time. What you do depends upon the kinds of dictionaries you have available.

Use the questions in the student lesson as a basis of class discussion.

Key to exercises:

Exercises 1-6: Answers will vary.

- Exercise 7.
- a. a biographical dictionary
 - b. a Spanish-English dictionary
 - c. a general dictionary, most school dictionaries
 - d. an unabridged dictionary
 - e. a geographical dictionary
 - f. a general dictionary or a scientific dictionary

HOW DID WE GET OUR WORDS?

This lesson could be used in conjunction with the history unit.

Key to exercises:

page 1, blanks: It probably traveled to Greece, where it became "kommi" and then on to Italy where it became "gummi" up through France where it was spelled "gomme" and then over the English Channel into England where at first it was spelled gumme.

Note: Each phrase with a blank refers to the following map.

Exercise 1: Any word can be used. A dictionary that provides etymologies will provide the path it traveled.

Note: Be sure such dictionaries are available and that your students know how to interpret the abbreviations. You will need to work with them on this.

Exercise 2: Errata--The directions should read: "Look at the sentences on the next page."

chat, job, lad, lass

Exercise 3: Errata--In the example, "snack" should not be listed in the under 100 year old column. Its present meaning may be fairly recent, but the word comes from a Middle English word meaning "a snatch with the teeth," or "a bite."

Words over 100 years old

snack
dog
gum
village
earth
tea
ocean
stars

Words under 100 years old

smog
jive
jalopy
NASA
UNICEF
astronaut

Exercise 4: a. We were carrying shells in the jungle.
b. We fired a grenade at the enemy.
c. The infantry men called on the field radio for a medical helicopter.

Exercise 5: Acronyms: VIP, NASA, radar, UNICEF
Telescoped words: good-bye, co-op, daisy, gospel
Blends: smog, twirl, brunch, motel

WHERE DO OUR WORDS COME FROM?

This lesson should also be taught in conjunction with or after the history unit. It is a lesson you will probably want to read with your students.

Key to exercises:

page 1, matching the words at the top:

Kalb - calf
Vater - father
Mann - man
Milch - milk
Mutter - mother
Sohn - son

Spanish words students may recognize:

está - is
realmente - really
en - in
continente - continent
norteamérica - North America
Tejas - Texas
Estados Unidos - United States
habitantes - inhabitants
Mexicanos - Mexicans
España - Spain
pronunciación - pronunciation
muchos - much
indios - Indians
descendientes - descendants
antiguos - ancient
aztecas - Aztecs
mayas - Mayas
una - a
persona - person
raza - race
india - Indian
principalmente - principally
origen - origin
español - Spanish
minoría - minority
importante - important
economía - economy
política - politics
nación - nation

Errata--In the paragraph on the bottom of page 1 of the student lesson the accent marks were left off the following words: México, está, norteamérica, España, también, Mejico, pronunciacion, español, and política.

Exercise 1: Some words may go in more than one place. Here is one possible grouping.

<u>farming</u>	<u>nature</u>	<u>home</u>	<u>occupation</u>	<u>body parts</u>
oxen	day	butter	baker	hand
field	water	tin	shepherd	foot
acre	land	glass		arm
hay	meadow	house		eye
milk	sun	home		ear
hides	moon	door		head
care	month	floor		heart
cow	year	beer		bone
sheep				
lamb				

Exercise 2: France is very close to England.
The French loan words are:
court, empress, majesty, duke, duchess, prince,
princess, palace, mansion, sceptre, baron,
royalty, judge, parliament, revenue, major,
allegiance, liberty, statute

Note: Students may also suggest lawyer. Actually this is a Middle English word derived from law, which was derived from an Old English word.

Exercise 3: Matching the native English words with their French synonyms:

stink - scent	bloom - flower
fight - battle	folk - people
kingdom - realm	shire - county
thief - robber	weapons - arms

In discussing the questions at the bottom of page 4 emphasize that we often have synonyms in our language because our language came into contact with another language. Also point out that often people have found that one word fits their needs better than another word with almost the same meaning. Synonyms allow us to make fine distinctions and provide variety in our language.

Exercise 4: This is an exercise to read with your students and discuss as you go along. When you come to the words at the bottom of the page you might want to ask what these words tell us about the Vikings and invite some open ended discussion. Some of the words tell that they ate meat. Freckle tells something about their complexion, etc.

LOAN WORDS FROM THE LATIN LANGUAGE

Key to exercises:

Exercise 1: Words that came in with the Roman soldiers: camp, wall, cheese, butter, wine, mile, onion, copper

Words that came in with the churchmen: bishop, psalm, altar, disciple, pope, monk, hymn, angel

Words that were added by scholars: library, appendix, legal, ulcer, memorandum, history, genius, veto

Exercise 2: The parts that are underlined are the root words. Suffixes and prefixes have been added to the roots to make new words.

Exercise 3: There are many possibilities. Here are some:
vert - revert, convert, invert
rupt - rupture, interrupt
ject - project, interject, inject
aud - audit, auditory, auditorium
ped - pedal, pedestrian
scrib - scribble, scribe, inscription (the b becomes p before t)
port - transport, report, import

Exercise 4: a. They have to do with hearing. (The root aud means "to hear.")
b. They all include the meaning of throwing. (The root ject means "to throw.")
c. They include the meaning of carrying. (The root port means "to carry.")

Exercise 5: a. ped is Latin for "foot"
b. cap is Latin for "head"
c. man is Latin for "hand"
d. card is Latin for "heart"
e. ora is Latin for "mouth"

WORDS HAVE ROOTS

Supplementary Information:

On page 1 of the student lesson the statement is made that the "root is the simplest form of a word that can stand alone." This is not completely accurate. In words like inject and revolve, ject and volve are the roots, yet they cannot stand alone as words. At some time in their history they derived from words that could stand alone, but in English they never appear without prefixes or suffixes. We recognize them as roots because we find them appearing in many words with the same meaning and with parts which we know are prefixes or suffixes. Of course there are many words whose roots are words that can stand alone (careful, beautiful, reclassify, etc.) and students are able to make words by adding prefixes or suffixes. You may, however, want to have them modify the definition of root words as the form of a word to which prefixes and suffixes are added and which can stand alone or is derived from a word that at one time could stand alone.

Key to exercises:

- Exercise 1:
- a. dictionary
 - b. Answers will vary. They should include the idea that one can find out how words are built or where they come from in a dictionary.
 - c. graph. Since this form appears in each of the words and has the same meaning in each, one would suspect that it is a root. It means "to write."

If students look up the words in the dictionary they will find that

ology (from logy) means "study of"
geo means "earth"
phone means "sound"
photo means "light"
auto means "self"
para means "beside"

Exercise 2:

<u>Word</u>	<u>Root</u>
busily	busy
reality	real
factual	fact
pitiful	pity
sensitive	sense
happiness	happy
distrust	trust
agreeable	agree
replacement	replace
loyalty	loyal

Exercise 3: a. geology d. theology
b. geography e. biology
c. autograph f. biography

Exercise 4: circum + ference video + tape
around + to carry to see + tape

speed + meter manu + script
speed + measure by hand + written

tele + phone centi + pede
at a distance + sound hundred + foot

photo + graph micro + phone
light + write small + sound

tele + vision
at a distance + sight

Students should discover, by looking up phonograph and graphophone, that words are built from other words by combining them in a certain order. It is not usually possible to reverse the order, and in cases in which it is, the meaning is different. For example bookcase and casebook are different as are songbird and birdsong.

The definition of a root word which students write will depend on whether you discuss with them the fact that some roots do not now stand alone.

BUILDING WORDS WITH AFFIXES

Key to exercises:

Exercise 1: Note: This exercise can be used simply to motivate the rest of the lesson. Use it to review and evaluate what students already know, but if they don't know the answers come back to it after they have completed the other exercises.

1. compounding, blending or combining, making acronyms, adding affixes
2. affixes or prefixes and suffixes.
3. A prefix is added before a word. A suffix is added to the end.
4. A prefix.
5. Often adding a suffix changes the function a word has in the sentence and affects the kinds of words used with it.

Exercise 2:	<u>Prefix</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>Suffix</u>
	non	sense fool	ish
	mal	success function (Note: Actually the root is <u>funct</u> and <u>ion</u> is a suffix. Students need not be aware of this at this time, however.)	full
	re	place differ	ment ence
	sub	marine punish	ment
	in	doors	
	dis	respect	ful
	mis	spell love capital class	able ize ify
	pre	view	

Exercise 3: "not" meaning--nonsense
"wrong" meaning--malfunction or misspell
"before" meaning--preview
"wrong" meaning--malfunction or misspell
"again" meaning--replacement
"opposite" meaning--disrespectful
"under" meaning--submarine

These built-in meanings precede the base words. They change the meaning of the base. They are called prefixes.

Exercise 4: Note: The question in this exercise can be answered at two levels. If students are familiar with the various parts of speech--nouns, verbs, etc.--and how they function in a sentence, they can talk about the function of the words in the sentences. But if they are not able to distinguish these parts, they can answer simply on the basis of the semantic content of the words. Both answers are given below.

- a. Terrible functions as a predicate adjective. It describes noises.
- b. Terror is a noun used as the subject. It tells what the natives were filled with.
- c. Terrorized is the verb of the sentence. It tells what the tiger did to the village.
- d. Terrify is also a verb (part of an infinitive) in this sentence. It tells how the noises affected people.

Exercise 5: The sentences students make up will vary.

The nouns are: drama, fort and possibly sweet (interpreted as a candy)

The verbs are: realize, dramatize, fortify

The words that become verbs are real (realize); drama (dramatize); fort (fortify); sweet (sweeten); weak (weaken); and wide (widen). In other words the first word in each pair becomes a verb when a suffix is added.

The adjectives are: real, sweet, weak, and wide

Actually the second word in each pair mean "to make" or "to cause to be," but it will probably be easier for students to see this meaning in sweeten, weaken, and widen than in the others. However realize means "to make real;" fortify means "to make strong or like a fort;" dramatize means "to make like or cause to be a drama."

Exercise 6: a. enjoyment; b. activity; c. expression; d. explorer; e. definition

The words that complete the sentences are nouns.

Some suffixes used to make nouns are -ment, -ity, -ion, -er, -tion.

Exercise 7: The words in the second column will be used in a different way in a sentence. The first four words in the first column are nouns. The fifth is a verb. The words in the second column are adjectives.

The words in the second column will fit in the blanks.
They are all adjectives which are used to describe
(modify) nouns.

Some suffixes used to change nouns to adjectives are -ous,
-ic, -ish, -able.

The addition of affixes accounts for many English words.
Those added at the beginning of words (prefixes) usually
change the meaning of a word. Those added at the end
(suffixes) change the function a word has in a sentence.

THE GAME OF THE NAME

Key to exercises:

Exercise 1: Any answer to the first question will be correct if students have reasons for their choice.

The name words for page 2 will vary from student to student or class to class. You might let students work in groups to work out the lists and then compare results.

The names of people like John, Bill, George, Mary, Smith, Jones, etc. will be capitalized. But if they think of names such as doctor, lawyer, etc., they will not be. Some place names will be capitalized, such as the names of towns, states, mountains, etc., but if they simply name such words as town, hill, they will not. Most "things" will not be capitalized but some which are derived from proper nouns will be, for example Ford.

Exercise 2: Note: Some of your students might be interested to know why the names in the first section were first used.

The Latin word claudus meant "lame."

Richard came from joining two words which meant "powerful" and "hardy."

Mary came from the Hebrew word Miryam which meant rebellious."

Rufus was the Latin word which meant "red."

Bruno came from the word brun which meant "brown."

Once the name given a person was a word which described him in some way. Today we give people names that have been used many times before and usually we have lost track of what they once meant.

- a. The list will vary.
- b. To do this question students must have access to a good dictionary that includes this kind of information. You might want to let them work in groups or you might have the class make a list together and have each student look up a different name.
- c. Probably the original meaning of the name will not fit the person who now has the name.
- d. Answers will vary.

Exercise 3: a. bowie knife--James Bowie
pasteurize--Pasteur
walnut--Wales
fahrenheit--Fahrenheit
cantalope--Cantalupo Castle

- b. Note: Before assigning this question be sure you have dictionaries that include the information.

sandwich--named after the Fourth Earl of Sandwich (1718-92) for whom sandwiches were made so that he could stay at the gambling table without interrupting his meals.

sequoia--named for Sequoyah, known as George Guess (1770?-1843), an American Indian leader and scholar. He recorded the Cherokee language of his tribe.

davenport--said to be named for a man named Davenport who was the original manufacturer of a small desk which was also called a davenport.

derby --named after the Derby (race) founded in 1780 by the 12th Earl of Derby.

volt--named after Count Alessandro Volta (1745-1827), an Italian physicist, who was a pioneer in the study of electricity.

watt--named after James Watt (1736-1819), a Scottish engineer and inventor who invented the modern condensing steam engine.

bloomers--named for Amelia Bloomer (1818-1894), an American social reformer who agitated for women's suffrage and advocated this garment for women.

(Etymologies from American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, (New York), 1969.)

- c. Answers will vary.

COMPOUNDING WORDS

Key to exercises:

Exercise 1: A. Note: Although answers to this part will vary, you might be interested in trying to get students to make sentences that will not only include both parts of the compound word but show the underlying meaning we give to the compound word. The following sentences express the meanings of the compounds.

The house has a light.
The plow is to plow snow.
The plane is a fighter.
The house is in town.
The man delivers mail.
The bowl is for fish.
The kettle is for tea.
The sea has a shore.
The watch is for the wrist.
The bird has a song.

B. Each of the separate parts was a noun. And the compounds are nouns.

The compound words in Part A show that nouns may be joined with other nouns to make a compound noun.

C. Answers will vary. Here are some possibilities:

bookcase	treehouse
birddog	shipwreck
birdhouse	ballgame
doghouse	schoolhouse
clothesline	teacup
football	lawnmower
baseball	shoestore

Exercise 2: A. store-bought
heartbreaker
man-eating
crybaby
roadgrader
hangman
bookmark

B. verbs
painter, learner, blower, maker, player (Note: one could also add -ing and have words that can be used as nouns.)

proofreader, house painter, horn blower, slow learner, toy maker, ballplayer

Exercise 3: A. a noun plus an adjective

B.	<u>Nouns</u>	<u>Adjectives</u>
	paper	thin
	sky	blue
	letter	perfect
	garden	fresh
	brick	red
	ice	cold
	coal	black
	grass	green

C. They consist of an adjective plus another adjective.

There are several possibilities. Here is one:

plain-white

INFLECTING WORDS

Key to exercises:

Questions before Exercise 1:

The word fast. It has three forms. The way it was used did not change.

Exercise 1:	<u>Set A</u>	<u>Set B</u>	<u>Set C</u>	<u>Set D</u>	<u>Set E</u>
	higher	games	plays	dog's	played
	lower	boys	reads	car's	tried
	taller	girls	tries	John's	discussed
	nicer	books	discusses	Sally's	hurried
louder	students	hurries	man's	walked	

<u>Set F</u>	<u>Set G</u>
playing	loudest
discussing	tallest
hurrying	highest
walking	nicest
riding	
trying	

Note: The letter designation is not significant. Students will vary in which set they arrange under a given letter, but the words should be divided into the seven groups above.

The original word forms for the words in each set are:
Set A, adjective; Set B, noun; Set C, verb; Set D, noun;
Set E, verb; Set F, verb; Set G, adjective.

Exercise 2: boy and boys are both nouns.

The students will make up various sentences.

The words in Set A will all function as verbs.
(Walking could also function as a noun as in
Walking is fun.)

The words in Set B will function as adjectives.
The words in Set C will function as nouns.

Exercise 3: The original words:

<u>Set A</u>	<u>Set B</u>	<u>Set C</u>	<u>Set D</u>
boy	bus	feet	ox
boat	kiss	men	child
ship	dress	mice	fish
girl	box	geese	sheep

The words are all nouns.

Set A was inflected by adding s.
Set B was inflected by adding es.

All the words in each of sets A and B are inflected in the same way. In sets C and D each word is inflected in a different way.

The words "fish" and "sheep" do not change form to indicate plurality.

Exercise 4: Note: There are many questions right in the text. You might want to simply take the questions out and use them as a basis of class discussion. Then either have students read the paragraphs of explanation or explain them in your own words.

The pairs of words at the top of the page are all verbs, the first one in each pair is in present tense and the second in past.

In the first group the vowel e is not pronounced and the d is pronounced either as /d/ or /t/. But in the second group the e as well as the d is pronounced. The d has a /d/ sound and the e has the sound of an unstressed vowel. This sound is usually called schwa and is symbolized as /ə/.

The verbs in the pairs in the middle of the page differ from those at the beginning. They do not add -ed to form their past tense.

Note: Small children often add the sound we spell -ed (either /t/, /d/ or /əd/) to all verbs when they are learning the language. This seems to indicate that they have learned the rule for forming the past of verbs but haven't discovered that some verbs don't form the past with the regular rule. Actually many small children learn the irregular forms first when they seem to be learning each word as an individual case. Then, when they acquire the regular rule they apply it for a while to all verbs, both regular and irregular past tense endings.

ED 075837

Words: Lesson 1
Teacher

Language VI

HOW VOCABULARIES GROW

PURPOSE: To serve as a review of certain vocabulary building skills.

BACKGROUND: In addition to learning new words we are able to increase our vocabulary by applying certain word-building rules to words we already know. Many words are made by compounding, that is by combining two or more words. An example is lawnmower. Sometimes when such words are in the process of being compounded they are spelled with a hyphen. For example co-operate.

Other rules for forming words from words we already know are those that add prefixes or suffixes. For example, from real we can form unreal and realize.

Another way to increase vocabulary is to find synonyms for words we already know. Still another way is to find many meanings for the same word--to become aware of homonyms (words pronounced the same but spelled differently).

CONTENT: This lesson contains:

1. An exercise to review the compounding concept.
2. An exercise to review the synonym concept.
3. An exercise to review the multiple meanings of words.
4. An exercise to review the homonym concept.
5. An exercise to review the suffix concept.
6. An exercise to review the prefix concept.
7. An exercise to summarize the concepts of how vocabulary is built.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES:

1. The student should be able to work independently through these game-like exercises in order to review a variety of vocabulary building concepts.
2. Encourage students to do as much as they are capable of doing in Exercise 7. If they can apply the concepts of exercise 1 through 6 to other words in their vocabulary, they probably have a fair grasp of these word building processes. Take as much time as students need to make applications.
3. For added entertainment use "pun-fun" or word games, e. g. Can the butter fly? The cake walk? Let them discuss why we find puns, riddles, and ambiguities in our language amusing as well as confusing.

HOW VOCABULARIES GROW

Can you explain some of the ways your vocabulary grows? Here are some exercises that may help you call to mind some of the ways you add words and meanings to your growing vocabulary.

Exercise 1

- a. Add "up" to "mix" and you have confusion.
- b. Add "cry" and "baby" and you have someone who can't roll with the punches.
- c. Add "blue" to "jay" and you have a noisy bird.
- d. Add "stick" to "slap" and you have a comical situation.
- e. Add "litter" and "bug" and you have a mess.

What five words have you added to the ten? What are words like this called?

Exercise 2

- a. What is a word that means "plenty" and rhymes with "tough"?
- b. What is a word that means "happy" and rhymes with "sad"?
- c. What is a word that means "unlike" and rhymes with "stiffer"?
- d. What is a word that means "house" and rhymes with "comb"?
- e. What word means "almost the same as another word" and is the opposite of the word "antonym"?

What did this exercise tell you about how words grow in your vocabulary?

Why are these kinds of words helpful to you?

Exercise 3

- a. What is a word that means a place for students as well as a group of fish?
- b. What is a word used by a dentist, a waitress, and a baseball player?
- c. What is a word that means part of the hand as well as a desert tree?

- d. What is a word that means a flying mammal as well as what a baseball player uses?
- e. What is a word that means a contest as well as something that will start a fire?

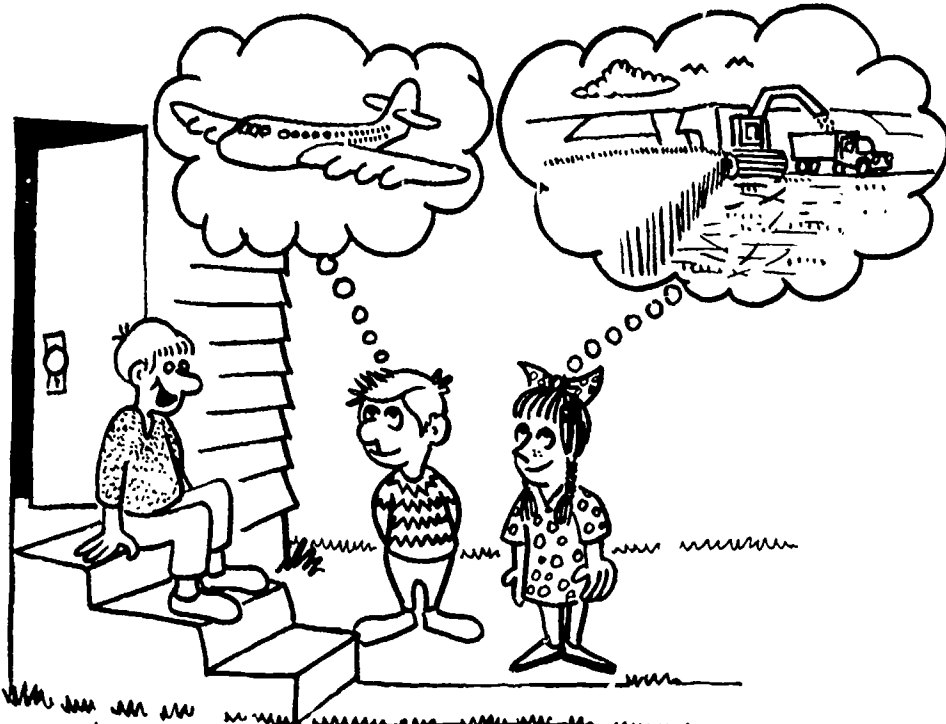
What does this exercise tell you about the words of our language?
What are words called that have two distinct meanings?

Exercise 4

Choose the right word for these cartoons. What makes the cartoons humorous? What do you call words like "right" and "rite"?



"Do you think this is the (right rite) place?"



"My uncle works on the Great (Planes Plains)."



"I think they wanted maize not maze."

Exercise 5

Fill the following blanks.

_____ + s = _____
_____ + es = _____
_____ + ed = _____
_____ + en = _____
_____ + ing = _____
_____ + ly = _____
_____ + less = _____
_____ + ness = _____
_____ + er = _____
_____ + est = _____

Using a word that you know plus an added ending will give you how many words? What do you call endings that you add on to words?

Exercise 6

Make an antonym for each of the following words by adding something to the beginning.

_____ lock	_____ important
_____ dress	_____ legal
_____ possible	_____ regular

What are parts added to the beginning of words called? How does adding parts at the beginning increase your vocabulary?

Exercise 7

- A. Look back at the first six exercises in this lesson and describe the ways you can add words to your vocabulary.
- B. Think of some other words to illustrate each method besides those given in the exercises.

WHAT CAN WE DO WITH WORDS?

PURPOSE: To introduce to students some of the things we can do with words.

BACKGROUND: In addition to the semantic features of words (that is their meaning) and their function in sentences we can consider choosing words for the rhetorical effect they have. By the use of noun modifiers, for example, we can create a specific and concrete verbal picture: A large white house is more concrete than a house. By the use of adverbials (words related to when, where, why, how, etc.) we can be more specific in our description. By choosing words related to strong emotions we can convey how we feel.

Words with the same meaning often affect people differently. For example, car and jalopy and limousine basically refer to the same thing, but each creates a different effect. That is, they have different connotations. By choosing one word rather than another that may mean the same thing we can achieve different effects or create different moods and impressions.

Another rhetorical use of words is to persuade. Again this is often done by choosing words that have particular connotations or will appeal to people's senses or emotions or beliefs or prejudices.

CONTENT: This lesson is about the rhetorical use of words. It contains:

1. Opening remarks about "words" as ingredients of language and how we use them.
2. An exercise using descriptive adjectives.
3. An exercise using explanatory words.
4. An exercise using words that appeal to the senses.
5. An exercise using words that express mood or emotion.
6. An exercise using words that persuade.
7. A summary exercise reinforcing exercises 1 through 6.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES: This lesson may take several days. It should not be hurried. The students may want to role play emotional and explanatory experiences. They may want to do minute taped commercials. If you have any good pictures in your file use them for student interpretations for exercise 5. Let students decide "what the words do."

WHAT CAN WE DO WITH WORDS?

Words are the ingredients used to build a language. No one has to teach you how to use language or what to do with the ingredients. You use words so naturally that you may not have given much thought to what you really were doing with them. This lesson is designed to help you think about some of the different ways you use words.

Exercise 1: Look at the following sets of words. Try to decide what the underlined words do.

large lovely garden

soft green grass

strange and horrible creature

superhuman strength

a lean dog, a keen dog, a wild dog

violent shake

spraying snow

Why were the underlined words used?

Think of other words that could make the meaning of the following words more specific and concrete.

_____ garden

_____ dog

_____ grass

_____ shake

_____ creature

_____ snow

_____ strength

Describe something you like very much. Underline the words which you use to show why you like it.

Exercise 2: Look at the following paragraph. Try to decide what the underlined words do.

Yesterday, the two cars crashed noisily into one another at the intersection because the lights were not working.

Find the words in the paragraph that answer the following questions:

When? _____

Which? _____

How? _____

Where? _____

Why? _____

Explain a playground incident to the principal. Use words that will make your explanation specific. Use words that will explain when, where, how, and why.

Exercise 3: Look at the paragraph below. Try to decide what the underlined words do.

a. I can call back the solemn twilight and mystery of the deep woods, the earthy smells, the faint odors of the wild flowers, the sheen of rain-washed foliage, the rattling clatter of drops when the wind shook the trees, the far-off hammering of woodpeckers and the muffled drumming of wood pheasants in the remoteness of the forest, the snap-shot glimpses of disturbed wild creatures scurrying through the grass.

b. Write a paragraph about a very special place. Choose words that will help others to see, touch, smell, and hear the things that you are describing.

Exercise 4: Look at the following pictures. Think of several words that would express the emotion or mood shown in each of the pictures.



(a-1)



(a-2)



(a-3)



(ei-4)



(a-5)



(a-6)

- b. Using your own choice of words, write one moving sentence about each of the pictures.

Example: a-1: HUNGER IS ALL SHE HAS EVER KNOWN.

Exercise 5: Examine the words used in the following phrases. Try to decide how these words were used and for what purpose.

- a. Mixes excitement with craftsmanship
Shimmering beauty that lasts and lasts
To give you something to believe in
Finish that's put on six coats deep
Craftsmanship and product integrity
Built to make it a pleasure to...
Longer tire life and better traction
For uncluttered, unbroken styling
Strength and confidence
More comfort and more beauty

- b. The following phrases were used in advertisements. Whoever used them had certain reasons in mind. In your opinion, what were the reasons for each of the word choices?

Somebody up there cares.

"San Francisco...
it has everything.
It is everything."

FLYING

is our Career...
our Life...
and... our Love!

with the best for less

Which of the above advertisements had the most sales appeal for you?
Why?

Exercise 6: Below are some statements that summarize the different purposes words were used for in exercises 1 - 5. Assign to each statement the number (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) of the exercise in which it was illustrated.

- a. Words are used to make the meaning of other words more specific.
(Exercise ____)
- b. Some words appeal to our senses when we hear or read them.
(Exercise ____)
- c. Words are often used to explain more clearly. (Exercise ____)
- d. We can use words to persuade others to think about things as we do.
(Exercise ____)
- e. We can create a mood, an atmosphere, or an emotion with words.
(Exercise ____)

WORDS HAVE MEANINGS

PURPOSE: To clarify certain terms and concepts that relate to the meanings of words.

CONTENT: This lesson deals with three terms that students may have heard concerning words: literal, figurative, idiom.

The lesson contains:

1. An exercise which asks students to identify words having figurative meanings and ones having literal meanings.
2. An exercise which asks students to identify idioms.
3. A summary exercise which asks students to apply the concepts presented.

BACKGROUND: It may be useful, in teaching the three concepts taken up in this lesson, to have available a little background information for perspective and clarification.

The literal meaning of a word is the same as its denotative meaning-- that is, the object or idea itself that the word stands for. The literal meaning of "snake" is the notion of the reptile itself, without respect to the overtones of feeling that some people may associate with "snake." The literal meaning of "mother" is simply "female parent," without respect to all the wealth of emotional meanings attached to the word. (These associated meanings, called "connotations," will not be directly discussed in this lesson, though they will be elsewhere in this curriculum.)

Figurative meanings are the opposite of literal meanings. They are those meanings which are produced by figures of speech, in which one thing is made to stand for another, or qualities which are associated with one thing are attributed to another. For example, a common figurative meaning of "snake" is "a cunning or treacherous person." A figurative meaning for "beaver" is "an industrious or eager person"; for "fox," "a sly person"; etc. These examples are metaphors, figures of speech. Personification, another figure of speech, also produces figurative meaning, as in "the wind shrieked," "the sun glared," "the night brooded," etc. In each of these a human quality has been attributed to an inanimate object or force or other natural phenomenon. The meaning, in each case, is figurative, not literal: the wind did not really "shriek," a sound that by definition can come only from a human throat, but figuratively the wind shrieked.

Idiom, in the sense in which the term is used in this lesson, means an expression that runs counter to the usual rules of the language but that nevertheless has a distinct meaning that all native speakers understand.

Idioms usually cause a lot of trouble for foreigners learning English, because they cannot see how the words in an idiom mean what they do, and so they must simply memorize idioms. For example, "He had to make do with what he was given" will puzzle a foreigner, since he is faced not only with an untypical meaning of "had" (obligation, not possession), but an apparently nonsensical sequence, "make do with," which he is told means "be satisfied with" or "get along with" (another idiom!). Many idioms involve verb-preposition combinations: "wear out" ("Did you wear out that sandpaper?"), "wake up" ("His mother woke him up"), "snow in" ("They were snowed in for three days"), etc. Others are really metaphors, so familiar we don't even think of them as figurative language anymore: "She caught his eye," "He threw her a glance," "He tossed me another question," "The baby fell asleep." Your class should enjoy listing idioms, especially of this last kind, and comparing their literal meanings with the ones we commonly give them.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURE:

1. Try mainly to get students to see the difference between literal and figurative meanings of the same word and to become aware of idioms and their importance in English. Emphasize that they understand the meanings of idioms because they are speakers of English. Idioms are part of their built-in knowledge.
2. Students could make a small dictionary of figurative words and idiomatic expressions, with their own definitions or synonyms.

WORDS HAVE MEANINGS

Since you are now in sixth grade, perhaps you have already heard certain terms used in connection with words, such as:

1. That is the literal meaning of the word "scout."
2. The figurative meaning of "worm" is "someone with no self-confidence."
3. When you say "the clock ran down," you are using an idiom.

From the way the underlined words are used in these three sentences, you can get some idea of what they mean but you may not be entirely sure. This lesson should help you understand the meaning of these terms so that you can use them yourself if you want to and can recognize the kinds of other words that they describe.

In your dictionary, look up the meanings of the three underlined words in the sentences above--literal, figurative, and idiom. Then, with these meanings fresh in your mind, do the following exercises.

Exercise 1. In the following sentences, pick out the ones in which the underlined words have their literal meaning and the ones in which the underlined words have a figurative meaning.

1. The cat drank its milk out of a saucer.
2. She's a regular cat, always gossiping about her friends.
3. The worm struggled as Henry tried to put it on the fish-hook.
4. We all thought he was a worm, so we didn't ask him to be on the team.
5. She's a real honey.
6. Black bees make especially good honey.
7. The snake was sunning itself on the rocks.
8. Don't be a snake in the grass.
9. The river goes dry every summer.
10. That book was certainly dry.

11. The point of the spear was very sharp.
12. The point of the story was hard to understand.

Now try to define each of the figurative words in these sentences, using only literal meanings for the words in your definitions.

Exercise 2. Sometimes we give special meanings to two or three words that we use in a phrase, such as "to put up with" or "to fall in line." If you look at the literal meanings of "put" and "up" and "with," it is hard to see how they can add up to the meaning we have for the whole phrase "put up with." But there is no doubt that we all know what "put up with" means. (What does it mean to you?) Also, we know what "fall" means literally, but why should we say "fall in line" when we don't mean that anyone is actually going to fall? "Fall in line" is an idiom, just like "put up with." Our English language is full of idioms, and we use them so often and so easily that usually we don't even know that we are using them at all. Other languages also have idioms, or special ways of saying things which are clear only to speakers of the language.

Now look closely at the underlined words in the following sentences to see which ones are idioms and which ones are using the same words with their literal meanings.

1. Watch out for the traffic on that street.
2. My grandfather took his watch out of his vest pocket to see what time it was.
3. We ran down the hill as fast as we could.
4. The grandfather clock ran down last night.
5. Ruth called up the stairs to her sister.
6. Call me up the next time you are in town.
7. Turn in your papers, please.
8. The car turned in the middle of the street.
9. The mob was trying to break down the mayor's door.
10. I wish the teacher would break down the big assignment into smaller ones.
11. A thief broke in last night.
12. He broke in his new car by taking it on a trip to New York.

13. Phil looked after his mother as she left the room.
14. Mary Jo stayed at home last night and looked after her baby sister.

Think of more idioms that you use every day or hear other people use. Share them with your class.

Exercise 3. Try to think of several good examples that will show that you clearly understand what each of the following is:

1. literal meaning of words
2. figurative meaning of words
3. idioms

DIG THAT FUNNY WORD

PURPOSE: To make students aware of slang as an interesting variety of language and to give them some notion of how it is created, what uses it has, and what its limitations are.

CONTENT: The lesson contains a discussion of slang, with examples, and an exercise in defining current slang terms and finding more formal equivalents for them.

BACKGROUND: Slang words are often new words invented by someone, but we almost never know who the person was who invented a particular slang word. "Kook" (which is mentioned in this lesson) is a good example. Like "kooky," it probably comes from "cuckoo," which in its literal meaning stands for a kind of bird. But for a long time "cuckoo" has also been a slang word meaning "crazy" or at least "odd," and so someone not long ago formed a new slang word, "kook," from it which means nearly the same thing.

Slang words can also be familiar words already in the language which are given an unexpected new slang meaning. An example would be "jerk." In its literal meaning, a "jerk" is a "sudden pull"---"Pete felt a jerk on his fishline." But "jerk" also has a familiar slang meaning. Another example would be "drag." "The boat was slowed down by a strong drag" means literally that something was holding the boat back, pulling on it or keeping it from going as fast as it should. But "The party was a real drag" means something quite different, and your students will be familiar with this meaning.

Slang words keep popping into the language, and most of them soon die off again and are forgotten. They are like fads in clothing or toys or music. Your students will remember hula hoops and skateboards. Once every child wanted a hoop or a skateboard, but now these toys are seldom used. It is the same with most slang words. People used to say "Vamoose!" Now they say "Scram!" or "Get lost!" or "Split!" They used to say "savvy," meaning "understand"--"do you savvy this book?" Now they say "dig"--"Do you dig this book?"

A few slang words stay on and become a regular part of the language. When this happens, they aren't slang any longer. Examples are "mob," "phone," "greenhorn," and "tenderfoot." All of these were slang words when they first were used, but now they are not. They have become a regular part of the English vocabulary:

POSSIBLE PROCEDURE:

1. Try chiefly to lead students to appreciate the vigor and variety of slang, as well as to understand that its uses are limited to certain situations because of its very informal tone.

2. As with idioms and figurative language, students could compile a small dictionary of slang terms they hear or use, with their own definitions. This could be a class project and could create a good deal of interest. A part of the generation gap is certainly linguistic, with youngsters speaking what sometimes seems to their parents a foreign tongue. Perhaps the dictionary could be aimed at acquainting parents with the meaning of current juvenile slang terms.

DIG THAT FUNNY WORD

"Joe is a kook. He eats honey on French fries for kicks."
Do you know what the two underlined words mean in these sentences? See if you can find them in the dictionary. You may have to have a fairly big dictionary, and certainly it will have to be one that was published not very long ago. Do you know why? Maybe you don't have a dictionary that has these words in it, with the meaning given that you think the words have. That is, you will certainly find "kick" meaning a "blow with the foot." But you may not find "kicks" meaning "thrill" or "excitement."

Now look up the word "slang" in the dictionary. Do "kook" and "kicks" fit the definition of "slang"?

Probably all of you already knew the meaning of these words, without knowing that they are called slang. Most of us use slang words some of the time, especially when we talk. Slang words, at least when they are new, often seem like a colorful and lively way to say something. It seems more interesting, or at least less stuffy, to call Joe a "kook" instead of an "odd person" and to say he eats potatoes and honey for "kicks" instead of for a "thrill."

Slang words are very informal, like sawed-off jeans and grubby tennies. Like jeans and tennies, slang words fit into many situations without any trouble. But just as you sometimes wear a nice dress (if you are a girl) slacks and/or a clean shirt and maybe even a tie (if you are a boy), so you sometimes want to use language that is not quite so informal as slang. Can you think of a situation in which you would want to say that Joe was "odd" or "unusual" or even "funny" rather than saying he was a "kook"? What kind of person would you be talking with? How well would you know him? Where might you be talking to him? What might his relationship to Joe be? Or to you? All of these things help you to decide when it is all right to use slang and when slang isn't perhaps the best way to say what you want to say.

What do the slang words mean in the list that follows? Do some of them have more than one slang meaning? Do any of them also have a separate literal meaning that is not slang?

egghead	dum-dum	cabbie
prof	cool	doll
doc	neat	creep
lousy	icky	scuzzy
dope	boob-tube	drip

Can you substitute a more formal word for each of these slang words that would mean nearly the same thing? How many of these slang words do you think will become a regular part of our language? Why? Why do you think some of the others will not last long but will soon be forgotten and replaced by other slang words? How many of these words are used more by young people than by people the age of your parents? What does this suggest about who invents many slang terms? What do the slang words mean to you that the more formal words you supplied for them do not?

THE THREE "NYMS"

- PURPOSE:
1. To make sure students understand what is meant by "synonym," "antonym," and "homonym," and
 2. To demonstrate how synonyms can be used and the restrictions on their use.

BACKGROUND: Three words often confusing to students are homonym, antonym, and synonym. This lesson is chiefly concerned with synonyms and how they differ from the other two.

We usually think of synonyms as words that mean the same thing and in general this is true. Synonyms share many semantic features. But because each individual word consists of a whole group of semantic concepts, synonyms can be alike in some aspects of meaning but different in others. That is why it is not always possible to substitute one synonym for another.

Homonyms are words that have different meanings entirely but happen to be pronounced exactly the same. Antonyms are words that are exact opposites semantically.

- CONTENT: This lesson contains:
1. An introductory discussion about synonyms.
 2. An exercise to point up that synonyms are not always interchangeable.
 3. An exercise to differentiate between antonyms, homonyms, and synonyms.
 4. A list of generalizations with which students should agree or disagree.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES: You may have at your disposal other exercise material that you want to use. The concepts stated in the purpose should be emphasized. At this point in time there are still some students who are confused with the terminology (homonyms, antonyms, and synonyms). This lesson will help you and your students evaluate their understandings of these concepts. Exercises 1 and 2 can be handled in a class discussion. Exercises 3 and 4 should be done individually and then discussed.

THE THREE "NYMS"

You know from previous language experiences that some pairs of words may have the same or nearly the same meaning. You may recall that these kinds of words are called synonyms.

Look up the word "quiet" in your dictionary. Then look up the word "still." What is the common factor that makes the words alike in meaning? Does "quiet" always mean "still"? Does "still" always mean "quiet"?

Read the following paragraphs. Then decide how the second differs from the first. Which do you prefer? Be prepared to give reasons for your answer.

In the still of the night, the forest was very still.
The animals were still and the boughs of the trees stood still.

In the still of the night, the forest was very quiet. The animals were calm and the trees stood motionless.

Why do we use synonyms? The following exercises may help you clarify what synonyms are and how they are used.

Exercise 1

Most synonyms are alike in only one or two meanings. Sometimes you cannot substitute a synonym for a word and still have it communicate your thought. Which of the sentences below sound right to you? Why not all of them?

We spent a quiet evening at home.

We spent a motionless evening at home.

We spent a calm evening at home.

We spent a still evening at home.

Exercise 2

Let's take the word "fair." The synonyms for "fair" given in a dictionary may include the following:

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| 1. just, honest | 4. promising |
| 2. pleasing | 5. blond, light |
| 3. average | 6. clear |

Decide which of these synonyms above can be substituted for the word fair as used in the sentences below.

- a. Every citizen deserves a fair trial.
- b. We had a fair day for the field trip.
- c. The results of the test were only fair.
- d. We went to the county fair.
- e. Her complexion was very fair.
- f. We have a fair chance to win the track meet.

Exercise 3

Sometime in the past you may have heard the words "homonyms," "synonyms," and "antonyms" uttered almost in the same breath. You quickly had to sort out the meanings of the three "nyms" before you could think about meanings of the words that fitted into these categories. You may want to make sure you have these terms well in mind. Use the dictionary if they confuse you.

Words that have the same sound but different meanings are called _____.

Words that have opposite meanings are called _____.

Words that have similar meanings are called _____.

Classify the word pairs given below into:

<u>Antonyms</u>	<u>Homonyms</u>	<u>Synonyms</u>
good - bad	hole - whole	fair - clear
site - sight	right - write	fair - unfair
hasten - delay	smile - grin	refuse - accept
tail - tale	calm - quiet	refuse - reject
plain - plane	fair - fare	no - know
easy - hard	fair - clear	yes - no

Exercise 4

Generally speaking, Yes or No.

1. Homonyms are also synonyms.
2. Synonyms have meanings that overlap.
3. Synonyms of words may be found in the dictionary.
4. We can often substitute one synonym for another.
5. Sometimes a word cannot be substituted for its synonym.
6. Learning synonyms for words of our language adds words to your vocabulary.
7. Learning new synonyms for old words will add meaning to your vocabulary.
8. Synonyms decrease the number of words you are able to use.
9. Antonyms may be used as synonyms.
10. Generally speaking a synonym is _____

GENERAL WORDS AND SPECIFIC WORDS

PURPOSE: To make students aware that words may be general or specific in meaning, and to show them the importance of using specific words for clear and effective communication.

BACKGROUND: Since the lesson is dealing with abstractions, some students may have a little difficulty at first in grasping the concepts. Perhaps a little background information here will help you explain the point of the lesson to them more readily.

The distinction between general words and specific words is not a sharp line, but rather a continuum. For example, "creature" is a very general term, covering anything animate. "Mammal" is more specific than "creature," but still more general than "human being," which is more general than "girl," which is more general than "Mary Smith." The more general a word, the larger the class of things included within its meaning. Other general words are "wealth," "property," "religion," "transportation," "weather," "automobile," "insect," "animal," etc. Some of these are more general than others--"transportation," for example, is more general than "automobile," but "automobile" would be more general than "sedan," which would be more general than "Ford." Examples of more specific words would be "dollar," "pencil," "Buddhism," "motorbike," "thunderstorm," "Mustang," "ladybug," "koala."

We need general words to express general meanings--if we didn't need them, they would long since have disappeared from the language. But we also need specific words, and we need to know the difference between general words and specific words, and especially be aware of the effects of using the two kinds of words in writing and speaking. We have all heard--and sometimes probably said--of a speaker we didn't like that "He spoke in generalities." That is, he used so many general terms that we couldn't tell exactly what he meant specifically. When we use general words, we ought to pin down the exact meaning we want them to have by using some specific words along with them. Instead of saying just "The tree was beautiful," it would help to add "It was an enormous elm, shaped like a great, green fan and standing at least eighty feet high." Noting that the tree was an elm lets the reader or listener see in his mind's eye a picture of a certain kind of tree--not an oak, not a poplar, and especially not a generalized vague impression of something with a trunk, branches, and leaves. Ordinarily, when it is a specific meaning we have in mind, we should use the specific word that has that meaning and simply not use the general word at all. Instead of "reading matter," say "magazine" (or "book" or "newspaper"); instead of "dessert," say "cherry pie"; instead of "picture," say "snapshot" or "photo." Following this practice makes communication more exact.

CONTENT: This lesson contains:

1. Opening comments on the concepts of "general" and "specific" as applied to word-meanings, with examples of both general and specific words.
2. An exercise in identifying general and specific words in sentences.
3. An exercise in substituting more specific words for general words.
4. An exercise in arranging words in order from general to specific.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES:

1. Pause between each of the main ideas being presented so that students can discuss, add words of their own, and ask questions.
2. Use exercise 1 for class discussion. Have students do 2 and 3 individually and then compare answers. Or have them work in groups.

GENERAL WORDS AND SPECIFIC WORDS

What do you think is the main difference between the following pairs of sentences?

George stepped on a bug. / George stepped on a spider.
My big brother has a car. / My big brother has an MG.
Aunt Martha was sick. / Aunt Martha had the flu.
I caught a fish. / I caught a perch.
Jerry bought some candy. / Jerry bought some jellybeans.

Do you get a clearer meaning from the second sentence in each pair? Why?

We call the difference between these sentences the difference between general words and specific words. A general word stands for a whole class of things, not just one special kind. "Bug" is a general word and it includes not just spiders but also butterflies, aphids, earwigs, cockroaches, flies, bees, mosquitoes, and so on. "Car" is another general word, and it includes Volkswagens, Cadillacs, MG's, Porsches, Buicks, Datsuns, and all the other kinds of cars you can think of. These other words, the particular kinds of bugs and of cars, we call specific words. Specific words stand for one particular kind of something, rather than a whole class of things. What are some other specific words meaning "candy" you can think of besides "jellybeans"? What are some specific kinds of fish? What specific kinds of sickness can you think of besides "flu"?

Exercise 1

Here are some more sentences. Look at the underlined word in each sentence and decide whether it is a general word or a specific word. Tell why you think it is one or the other.

1. The bird perched on the wire and looked at us.
2. Yesterday a robin got inside our garage.
3. Mother said she hoped we liked the dessert.
4. Tom had two pieces of cherry pie.
5. Marty has a pet.
6. We brought along some peanuts to feed Mike's chipmunk.
7. She had a lot of things in her purse.
8. Sally had keys, a billfold, a comb, some bubble gum, and three pencil stubs in her purse.
9. The storm blew down a big tree on Sesame Street.
10. The men planted an oak near the house.

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Exercise 2. Probably you have noticed in the sentences in Exercise 1 that the sentences that have specific words in them create a sharper picture for you than the ones that have general words. "Dessert" can be almost anything that is sweet, but "cherry pie" is something you have seen and tasted. You can see the bright red filling and crumbly crust in your mind and remember the wonderful sweet-sour taste. It is usually better to use specific words than general words when you want to be clear and interesting. Using specific words helps you to make your meaning more clear by letting you say exactly what you mean, not giving just a general idea.

Here are some more sentences. The underlined words are all general words. Find a good specific word for each one that you could use instead to make the meaning clearer.

1. We had meat for dinner last night.
2. I have a new chair in my room.
3. Shoe clerk: "May I help you?" Customer: "Yes, I want to buy a pair of shoes."
4. There's a creature crawling on my pillow!
5. Ned plays an instrument in the school band.
6. I like juice for breakfast.
7. John complained that he had an ache.
8. Some individual phoned and asked for you.
9. Hand me the instrument, please.
10. There was fruit on the table but no one ate any.

Exercise 3. In looking at the general and specific words in the exercises you have just done, you may have noticed that some general words are more general than other general words, and that some specific words are more specific than other specific words. For instance, "chair" is more specific than "furniture," but it is more general than "rocking-chair." "Furniture" includes chairs but also tables, beds, lamps, bookcases, hi-fi sets, and so on, so we can see that it is a very general word. But we might think of a word that is even more general and that includes "furniture." For example, "property" would include "furniture," but it would also include houses, automobiles, clothing, bicycles, barns, even land.

In other words, there isn't a sharp dividing line between what is a general word and what is a specific word. Instead, there is a kind of sliding scale from very general at one end to very specific at the other. It is like the notes in music: There isn't a sharp line between high notes and low notes, but instead a scale on which each note is higher than some but lower than others. We might make a scale for specific and general words, arranging them in order like this:

GENERAL: creature → animal → mammal → dog → beagle → Snoopy SPECIFIC
"Creature" is the most general word on this scale, including not only animals but insects. "Snoopy" is the most specific word here, because it is the name of one particular dog.

Here are some sets of words like those in the example you have just read, but they aren't in the right order. Rearrange them so that the most general word in each set is at the left and the most specific at the right, with the others placed in between on a scale.

1. carbonated beverage beverage coke liquid
2. coal substance fuel
3. baseball softball game recreation
4. reading-matter math book book textbook
5. wristwatch timepiece watch
6. automobile vehicle Corvette sportscar
7. snapshot picture photograph
8. baseball player athlete human being pitcher man
9. skyscraper building Empire State Building office building
10. "American Beauty" rose plant rose flower

THE DICTIONARY WORD-BANK

PURPOSE: To help students review the uses of the dictionary which have been previously presented.

CONTENT: This lesson contains:

1. Introductory remarks with questions.
2. The dictionary entry for the word "dictionary."
3. Ten statements to complete, using data from the entry.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES:

1. Using a transparency of the entry for the word "dictionary" that is identical to that given the student in this lesson, go over the activities to reinforce student responses. Explain the different kinds of knowledge found in an entry. Specifically, point up the information on etymology as it will have a direct bearing on a following lesson.

2. You may want to give the evaluation lesson from Language V-- Dictionary Skills. This could serve to diagnose student needs, and guide you toward filling in the gaps.

THE DICTIONARY WORD-BANK

You have been using your word bank of the English language for a good many years, and each year it gets larger. Even so, you often hear words used by someone else that are not known to you. Suppose the music teacher says that a rhythm is "syncopated." Would you know what was meant? If not, would a dictionary be helpful? If so, how?

You want to use the word "oceanography" in a science project. You need to know how to spell it. Could a dictionary solve your problem? If so, how?

You have already used the word "good" several times in a paper you are writing. You think it would be a good idea to use another word that means about the same. What can the dictionary furnish that will help you?

You have read the word "Caribbean." You know where it is, what it is, and that there are many islands in it--but how are you going to pronounce it in your oral report? Why not consult your dictionary?

Words are deposited in a dictionary for us to use. We all need to know how to use a dictionary in order to draw on the word-bank of the language when the need arises.

Here is the information that a dictionary gives in the entry for the word "dictionary." Read the entry. Then on the basis of what you have read, complete the sentences following the entry.

dic-tion-ar-y (dik'-shən -er-i:) Brit. (dik'-shən -ēr -i),
n. [pl. DICTIONARIES (-iz),] [ML. dictionarium < L. dictio;
see DICTIO] 1. a book of alphabetically listed words in a language,
with definitions, etymologies, pronunciations, and other information;
lexicon: a dictionary is a record of generally accepted meanings,
pronunciations, etc. which the words listed in it have acquired up
to the time of its publication. 2. a book of alphabetically listed
words with their equivalents in another language: as, Spanish-
English dictionary. 3. any alphabetically arranged list of words
or articles relating to a special subject: as a medical dictionary.
Abbreviated dict.

1. The word "dictionary" has _____ syllables.
2. The word in bold-face type is called an _____.
3. There are _____ ways to pronounce the word "dictionary."
4. To form the plural of the word "dictionary" we _____.
5. The word dictionary was derived (<) from the Latin word _____.

6. To help us know more about the original meaning of the "word" we would need to look up the word _____.
7. This entry gives _____ definitions of the word "dictionary."
8. One synonym (another word with the same meaning) for the word "dictionary" is _____.
9. Definition 1 tells us that a dictionary is a book of _____ listed words in a language with _____, _____, _____, and other information.
10. The abbreviation of "dictionary" is _____.

Summarize all of the ways you can use a dictionary.

Were there any words in number 9 new to you? If so, which ones?

What do you think the word "dictionary" and the word "etymology" may have in common?

DICTIONARIES, DICTIONARIES, DICTIONARIES!

PURPOSE: To make students aware that dictionaries differ in scope and purpose.

CONTENT: This lesson includes:

1. Suggestions for a table display of dictionaries.
2. Suggestions for teaching the lesson.
3. A study sheet for the students.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES:

1. Arrange a table display of various dictionaries that are available either in your room library or in the school library. If possible, include one unabridged dictionary (either Webster's Second or Webster's Third Edition will serve the purpose), one or more collegiate dictionaries (the Merriam-Webster Seventh New Collegiate, Webster's New World, the American College Dictionary, the new Random House Dictionary, the equally new Heritage Dictionary, etc.), one or more school dictionaries (a junior dictionary or an elementary school dictionary), one or more of the inexpensive little pocket dictionaries available in ten-cent stores or on paperback stands, whatever specialized dictionaries your school library has (at a minimum, probably a biographical dictionary, a geographical dictionary, a foreign-language dictionary, and if possible one or more dictionaries for special fields such as science or religion). The purpose of the display is simply to give students, at firsthand, an awareness of the variety of sizes and kinds of dictionaries.

Have the class come up to the table in small groups to examine the various dictionaries displayed. Ask them to notice as many things as they can about the contents of each dictionary that set it off from the others--size, subject matter, uses to which it may be put, perhaps how old it is (you will need to tell them where to look for the publication date).

While a group is at the table, the other students might be asked to examine the regular school dictionaries with which the classroom is ordinarily supplied. They should look for date of publication, and the various classes of information that the dictionary contains, making a list of these categories for later discussion.

2. After all the students have had a chance to examine the dictionaries displayed on the table, ask each student to make up his own definition of what a dictionary is. The definition should be broad enough to include all the books in the display that are called dictionaries.

3. With the definitions as a basis, have a class discussion on what kinds of dictionaries there are, who would use each kind, and why he would use it. The dictionary quiz described later in this lesson may help to focus attention on specific features of dictionaries and on specific kinds of dictionaries.
4. As a way of introducing a discussion of dictionary size, ask the students to look up the words abridged and unabridged as they apply to dictionaries. Ask them to list advantages and disadvantages of an unabridged dictionary, and, at the other extreme, of a small pocket dictionary.
5. Finally, emphasize the notion that good general (non-specialized) dictionaries, whether small or large, are simply collections of observations of how the speakers and writers of a language use words--how they spell them, how they pronounce them, what they mean by them. Ask the students to list very new words that they have come across (space science is one rich field for new terms--blast-off, count-down, space-walk, PLISS, lunar module, etc.). Ask several students to go to the general dictionaries on the table and look up some of these words to see whether they are included. Two important points can be made from this exercise: (1) that new words are constantly coming into the language, and dictionaries must constantly be revised in order to keep up to date; and (2) that a good recent dictionary is to be preferred to a good older one.

This lesson may easily take two or more sessions to complete, depending on how deeply the students become involved with the many questions and side-issues which such a study of the dictionary raises.

DICTIONARIES, DICTIONARIES, DICTIONARIES!

Here are some things to do and questions to answer that will help you learn more about dictionaries. We often speak of "the dictionary" ("Look it up in the dictionary") as if there were only one dictionary, or at least only one kind of dictionary. The display of dictionaries that your teacher has put on a table in your classroom shows pretty clearly that dictionaries come in many sizes, and not all of them tell about the same sort of things. The kind of dictionary we usually think of when we talk about "the dictionary" is what is called a general dictionary. General dictionaries list words and give their meanings, and also tell us certain other things about them. The other kind of dictionaries is called specialized dictionaries. Can you think of why they are called this?

You can use the questions and suggestions below to get a discussion started on the kinds of dictionaries, the sizes of dictionaries, and the uses of the various kinds and sizes. Such a discussion should help you understand dictionaries better and make it easier for you to use them to find out things you want to know.

1. After you have examined the dictionaries on the table, list all the kinds you found there. Which ones were general dictionaries? Which ones were specialized dictionaries?
2. Who might want to use the specialized dictionaries? Why might he want to use them?
3. Write a definition of the word dictionary that is broad enough to include all the kinds of dictionaries you found on the table. Compare definitions. Do they agree?
4. Look up the meaning of the words abridged and unabridged. What would an unabridged dictionary be? Was there one of these on the table? What is an abridged dictionary, then? Which of those on the table were abridged?
5. What are some of the good points and some of the bad points you can think of about owning an unabridged dictionary? What would be some of the advantages and disadvantages of having only a small pocket-size dictionary? How about the dictionaries that are in between these two extremes--the school dictionaries and the college dictionaries?
6. Is a dictionary that was published maybe thirty years ago as useful as one that has just now been published? Why or why not? What words can you think of that had not been invented thirty years ago but that we all know now?

7. Answer the following dictionary quiz:
- a. What kind of a dictionary would you use to find out about George Washington Carver?
 - b. Where would you try to find the meaning of the Spanish word mañana?
 - c. Where would you find out how to divide the syllables of a long word like mysteriously?
 - d. Where would you try to find a hard word that was not in your school dictionary?
 - e. Where would you try to find out about a city called Tashkent?
 - f. Where would you look to find out what carbon dioxide is?

HOW DO WE GET OUR WORDS?

PURPOSE: To introduce students to a variety of different ways in which new words have come into our language.

BACKGROUND: This lesson is the first of several in the language strand which deal with word formation and the various ways words are added to a language. Later lessons will discuss in some detail the borrowing of words from other languages and two of the regular processes by which words are built from other words: compounding and the addition of affixes. This lesson introduces several miscellaneous ways new words or new meanings for old words enter the language.

Some words seem to appear out of nowhere. Their origin is uncertain. Examples are dog, lad, lasc. Some are introduced by writers who either coin new words or use them in a new way. Some begin as slang terms and eventually become standard words in the language. For example, in Oxford University, "chum" was a slang term for roommate or "chamber fellow."

Some words are formed by a process of abbreviating, telescoping, or contrasting other words. For example, the word "daisy" was once "day's eye" (a metaphor comparing the flower to the sun). It eventually was shortened to a single word. Taking the initial letters of a long phrase and making a new word is another method. Such words are called acronyms. UNESCO is an example. Combining two words by taking parts of each is another method. It is called blending. For example, Lewis Carroll coined "chortle" as a blend of "chuckle" and "snort."

CONTENT: This lesson begins with an introduction to the fact that often the words in our language have had a long history and have come from many sources. It then discusses the following points:

1. Some words are coined by authors or other people; some just appear. Their origins are obscure. The point is stressed that we seem to invent words to meet our needs.
2. Some words are derived from other words by regular processes.
3. Other words are made by contracting or telescoping words; by blending two words together; and by combining the initial letters of a group of words.

Each point is accompanied by exercises.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES:

1. Beginning with the title question, allow students to discuss the possibilities fully in order to review what they already know about the source words and to provide background for the lessons that follow.
2. Exercise 1 ties this lesson in with the HISTORY section which deals with words that have come to us from other lands.
3. Students may come up with many slang words in Exercise 3. You may want to ask them how many of the new words they think will eventually be in our dictionaries. If possible have a few old dictionaries that do not have words like "helicopter," "astronaut," etc. Also ask students about which set of words would be larger. If interest is high, don't rush the exercise. A side product should be general interest in language itself.
4. Exercise 4 might allow for some interviewing of GI's or other travelers who have been abroad. This may be a good place to reinforce the concept in the section on VARIETY that a person's vocabulary is often determined by his business or his experience.
5. Students may need help in Exercise 5 in adding words to the three categories. Have a list of words on hand to use. The following are possibilities. (Note: If you add others of your own be sure to check them first with a good dictionary.)

<u>acronyms</u>	<u>shortened words*</u>	<u>blends</u>
WAC (<u>W</u> omen's <u>A</u> rm <u>C</u> orps)	atone (from at + one)	twirl (twist + whirl)
sonar (<u>s</u> ound <u>n</u> aviga- <u>t</u> ion and <u>r</u> anging)	don (from do + on)	dumfound (dumb + confound)
NATO (<u>N</u> orth <u>A</u> tlantic <u>T</u> reaty <u>O</u> rgani- <u>Z</u> ation)	doff (from do + off)	grumble (growl + rumble)
WHO (<u>W</u> orld <u>H</u> ealth <u>O</u> rganization)	taxi (from taxicab, from taximeter-cabriolet)	electrocute (electro- + execute)
VISTA (<u>V</u> olunteers in <u>S</u> ervice to <u>A</u> merica)	bus (from omnibus)	motel (motor + hotel)
SNAFU (<u>s</u> ituation <u>n</u> or- <u>a</u> l, <u>a</u> ll <u>f</u> ouled <u>u</u> p)	fan (from fanatic)	
SEATO (<u>S</u> outheast <u>A</u> sia <u>T</u> reaty <u>O</u> rganization)	exam (from examination)	

(* Some of these words were shortened long ago.)

6. Supplementary activity:

If you have a film or filmstrip about the history of words available, this would be a good time to show it. There are several new ones out with phonodiscs that are colorful and interesting.

HOW DO WE GET OUR WORDS?

The words of our everyday language come to us from all the periods of history and from every quarter of the globe. One of the reasons there are so many English words is that we have borrowed words from many other languages.

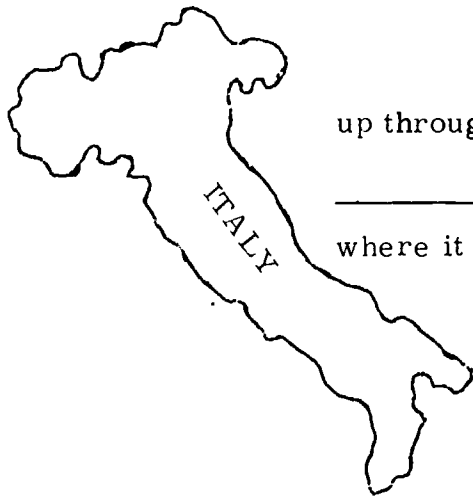
The word "gum" is probably a very common word in your vocabulary. Etymologists believe that it had its beginning back in the time of Egypt's pharaohs when it was "kemui."



It probably traveled to _____,
where it became "kommi"



and then on to _____,
where it became "gummi"



up through _____,
where it was spelled "gomme"



and

then over the English Channel into _____ where at first it was spelled gumme.

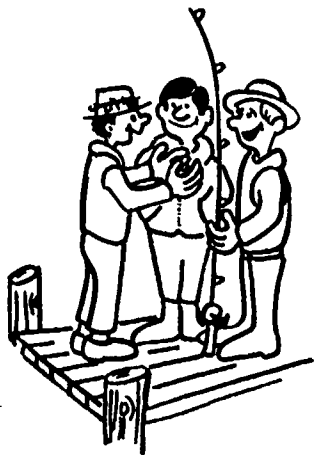
Exercise 1 Select another word and show the path by which it traveled into English.

Some words are not as old as the word "gum." Some words have not traveled so far. In fact, some words are really quite recent because man invents words whenever and wherever he needs them.

Sometimes literary writers make new words or use them in a new way. Shakespeare, the great writer of plays in the time of Queen Elizabeth I, was a great wordmaker. He used the word "dry" to mean "dull," and coined such expressions as "dead as a doornail" and "what the dickens," which are still being used. Sometimes new words appear in newspapers or in everyday speech. If they are useful and appeal to people, they stay in our language. Otherwise, they are nonce words (here today and gone tomorrow).

Even the Anglo-Saxons, who borrowed many words from other languages, also coined words. They had the word "hund" which has now become "hound." They brought it with them when they came from the mainland of Europe. But they also coined a word of their very own, the word "docga," which has become our word "dog." We don't know why or how they invented it. It just appeared. Words of this kind have sometimes jokingly been called "pop-up" words.

Exercise 2 Look at the sentences below. Which of the words may have just "popped-up" in the English language? Have some reasons for your choices.



These men are visiting.
They are having a chat.



This man's occupation is hard.
This man's job is hard.

This lad is at school.
This young gentleman is at school.



This lass is studying.
This young lady is studying.

Did you decide on "chat," "job," "lad" and "lass?" If so, you were right. These words simply appeared in the language about 600 years ago. No one knows where they came from.

Exercise 3 Sort the words from the following list into two categories:

dog, gum, snack, smog, village, earth, jive, tea,
jalopy, NASA, ocean, UNICEF, astronaut, stars.

Refer to your dictionary if you need information.

Words over 100 years old

Words under 100 years old.

Example: dog

snack

Add words that you may know to fit into the two categories.

As you learned in Lesson 5, many new words that appear in the language are slang terms which either die out or become part of the language. Many slang terms in recent years have been invented by soldiers in the army. The term GI Joe may be a familiar one to you, but did you know that this term comes from the two words "general issue" and a common American nickname for any man, --Joseph? All over the world our service men are known as GI Joes. Even these GI's are inventing words as they need them in order to express their ideas.

Exercise 4 Here is a short list of GI words or expressions. Look them over carefully before you try to translate the sentences.

Used by some G. I. 's in Indo-China:

boonies - jungle or rural areas

charlie - the enemy

dust offs - medical helicopter

grunts - infantrymen

honked - called on

horn - field radio - telephone

humping - carrying shells

popped smoke - fired a grenade

Translate the following sentences.

- a. We were humping in the boonies.
- b. We popped smoke at Charlie.
- c. The grunts honked the horn for a dust off.

Do you think all these "coined" words will ever be in our dictionaries? Why or why not?

Most words in the language, however, do not just pop-up. Many are made by following certain word-making patterns which we use without realizing it. They help us to "derive" words from other words.

One of the ways in which words are made from other words is by shortening words or groups of words. For example "goodbye" is a shortened form (or contraction) of "God be with you," which is what people once said when they left each other. The phrase has been combined into one word, and certain parts have been left out.

Another way new words are formed is by blending two words together. In this process the first part of one word is usually combined with the last part of another. For example, the word for the meal that combines both breakfast and lunch is "brunch." Can you see how it contains part of each word?

Still another method of making new words is illustrated in the word UNICEF. You have probably heard that word at Halloween time. Some of you may have helped to collect pennies for UNICEF. This word means "United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund." Can you figure out how the single word was made from five? Such a word is called an acronym.

Exercise 5 Examine the following list of words and see if you can put them in one of the three categories just described. You may need to use a dictionary.

smog	NASA	motel
VIP	brunch	UNICEF
twirl	radar	daisy
good-bye	co-op	gospel

Example: Words like "Unicef" | Words like "good-bye" | Words like "brunch"

Which ones were acronyms? Which ones were blended? Which ones were telescoped (syllables dropped)? How many other words can you add to the lists? What other word-building processes can you describe?

Words: Lesson 10
Teacher

Language VI

WHERE DO OUR WORDS COME FROM?

PURPOSE: To reinforce the concept that words come into the language from various sources.

CONTENT: This lesson contains:

1. Introductory remarks about words with a common language background (cognates).
2. Sets of Anglo-Saxon words for students to classify.
3. An exercise which has students compare Anglo-Saxon words with words that came to England from France.
4. An exercise to point up Scandinavian influence on the English language.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES:

1. Display a wall map to show the proximity of Continental Europe to England.
2. Correlate the activities of this lesson and those used in the section about historical changes in English.
3. There are useful film strips available on where our words come from, so consult your Instructional Materials Catalog.

WHERE DO OUR WORDS COME FROM?

From your study of language change, you will remember that there are many resemblances between our language, English, and some other languages. It really is no accident that you will probably be able to match the right English word with the right German word in the following list, even though you may not know German. See if you can do this.

<u>German Words</u>	<u>English Words</u>
Kalb	father
Vater	calf
Mann	milk
Milch	son
Mutter	man
Sohn	mother

Why do you think these pairs of words have something in common?

When you try to read a foreign language that uses our alphabet, there are nearly always some words that you can recognize. You can recognize these words because they are cognates. That is, they both come from the same word in another language, and so they look quite a bit alike.

Here is a paragraph written in Spanish. Study it and see whether you can make some intelligent guesses about what a few of the words mean. List the words which you think may be cognates of English words and tell what you think they mean. Remember that the spelling will nearly always be somewhat different from that of the English word, and certainly the pronunciation will be different, but see how many words you think you recognize.

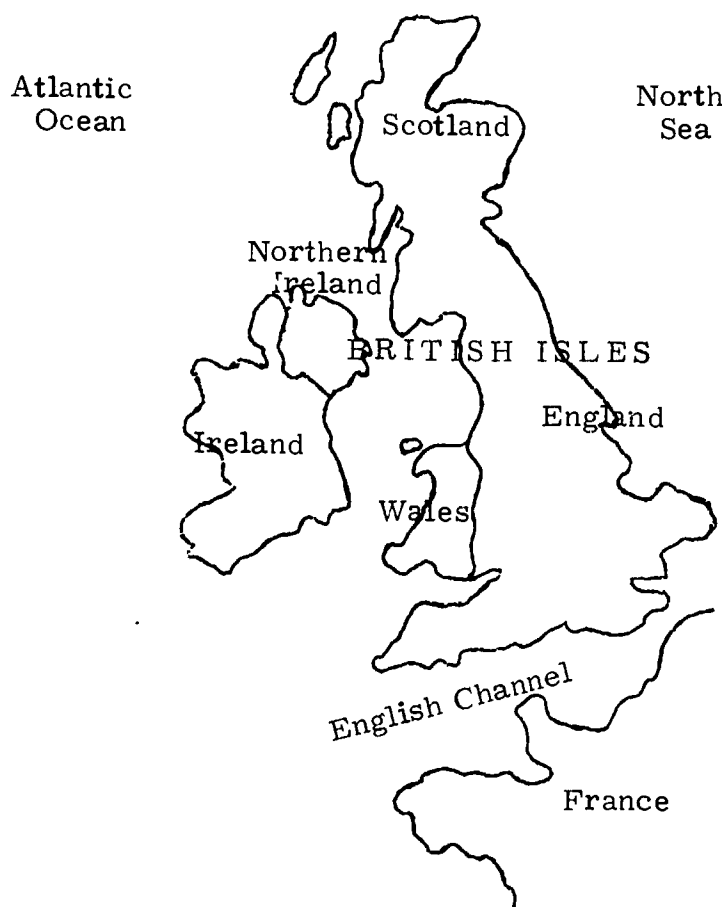
Mexico, como Ud. ve, esta realmente en el continente de norteamerica, muy cerca de Tejas en los Estados Unidos. Los habitantes de Mexico se llaman Mexicanos. (En Espana escriben "Mejico" y "Mejicanos", pero la pronunciacion es la misma.) Hay muchos indios en Mexico, descedientes de los antiguos aztecas y mayas. Tambien hay muchos mestizos. Un mestizo es una persona de raza india y blanca. Los blancos que son principalmente de origen espanol, son una minoría, pero una minoría muy importante en la economía y en la politica de la nación.

Now let's see if you can do some exercises on English words that have come to us from certain particular languages. One of the interesting things about our English language is that it has such an enormous number of words in it, which it has drawn from dozens of other languages. The following exercises will deal with only a few of these sources.

Exercise 1 Many of our most common English words come to us from Anglo-Saxon, the language that was spoken in England between a thousand and perhaps twelve hundred years ago. The Anglo-Saxon people were very hard workers and lived very simple lives, close to the soil and woods and animals of their country. The following is a list of some of the modern English words that came to us from Anglo-Saxon. Which words in the list have to do with farming? Which ones concern nature? Which ones refer to things around the home? What other groupings of words can you make?

baker	hand	home
shepherd	foot	door
oxen	arm	floor
field	eye	sun
acre	ear	moon
day	head	month
hay	chin	year
water	heart	love
milk	bone	care
butter	land	cow
tin	meadow	sheep
glass	field	lamb
hides	house	beer

Exercise 2 From earlier study, you know that most of our commonly used words came to us from the Anglo-Saxons. But you are also aware that words are borrowed from the languages of other countries, and that words travel with people. Look at the map of England. What other European country is very close to it?



The history of a people and the language of a people can never be separated. You probably remember that in the year 1066 A. D., William the Conqueror and his French army invaded England--and came to stay. The Frenchmen brought with them not only their own French language but also many of their customs from the society of the court, and many customs of government. Since the French ruled England at this time, what effect do you think these customs would have had on the language that was already being spoken in England by the Anglo-Saxons?

Here is a list of modern English words which contains some words that came to us from Anglo-Saxon and some from French. See if you can pick out the ones that are French loan-words.

court	cow	freedom
sun	sheep	parliament
empress	palace	house
eye	mansion	revenue
majesty	acre	mayor
butter	oxen	milk
fisher	sceptre	sheep
baker	baron	lamb
duke	field	lawyer
duchess	crafts	allegiance
prince	royalty	liberty
princess	judge	statute

Exercise 3 The English did not give up their own language when the Norman French came to rule their land. They just broadened their vocabulary by learning French synonyms for words which they already had in their own language. Here are two lists of words. One list came to us from Anglo-Saxon, the other from French. See if you can match the Anglo-Saxon words with their French synonyms.

<u>Native English</u>	<u>French</u>
stink	arms
fight	robber
kingdom	county
thief	realm
bloom	people
folk	battle
shire	flower
weapons	scent

Why do we have synonyms in our language? Are synonyms useful?
What for?

Exercise 4 History and language went hand in hand long before the Norman invasion of England. Do you remember the name of the famous Viking seaman who we now think discovered America long before Columbus did? The Vikings--sea-faring people who lived in what are now Norway, Sweden, and Denmark--were hardy explorers, as the voyage of Leif Erickson to the New World shows. England was a lot closer to their homeland than America was, and they could easily reach it in their ships. They were also great fighters, and when they landed on the shore of a country they seized by force whatever property they wanted. If the inhabitants resisted them, the Vikings fought ferociously and usually killed the natives or took them captive. Often they settled down in the new land they had conquered.

Knowing these things about the Vikings, what kinds of words do you think they were likely to have brought to English shores? Look at this list of words that came into English as a result of Viking invasions. Do they tell you anything about the things the Vikings were interested in?

fleet (of ships)	haven (harbor)
keel (of a ship)	fiord
bank (of a river)	slaughter
school (of fish)	die

Of course, after these Scandinavians had settled down in England and intermarried with the people already there, they gradually became more peaceful and turned to farming and animal raising instead of piracy. And then other kinds of words they had brought with them were adopted into English. Some of these are very common words. Here is a list of some of these:

birth	egg	guess	root	skin
bull	fellow	leg	scab	sky
dirt	freckle	race	seat	steak

LOAN WORDS FROM THE LATIN LANGUAGE

By now, you probably have the historical background to be on speaking terms with the term Romance languages. The root word for "romance" is "Roman." What language did the Romans use?

The Romans did much traveling in Spain, France, and Italy. The Roman soldiers, merchants, and churchmen came to these countries, bringing their Latin language with them. The language of the Romans became the basis for the Romance languages. But the Latin influence didn't stop at the English channel.

Latin words entered the English vocabulary at several different times during English history. Actually, this borrowing process started long before there was an English language and it really has never stopped.

Do you remember:

- a. That Roman armies came to England in 43 A. D. and stayed about 350 years?
- b. That Roman churchmen brought Christianity to England in 597 A. D. ?
- c. That during the sixteenth century many English scholars wrote and spoke Latin because it was the "in" thing to do?

Exercise 1 Here is a list of words which have come into English from Latin. See if you can divide them into three groups:

- a. words that probably came in with the Roman soldiers
- b. words that probably came in with the churchmen
- c. words that probably were added by scholars who studied Latin

camp	cheese
bishop	altar
library	legal
wall	butter
psalm	disciple
appendix	ulcer

wine	onion
pope	hymn
memorandum	genius
mile	copper
monk	veto
history	angel

Exercise 2 It has been estimated that nearly one quarter of all the ancient Latin words have come over into the English language in one form or another. Look at the list of words below. The underlined part of each word came to us from Latin.

<u>inject</u>	<u>transport</u>	<u>multiply</u>
<u>revolve</u>	<u>insist</u>	<u>pedal</u>
<u>refer</u>	<u>conclusion</u>	<u>invert</u>

What part of the word is underlined? What has been done to build new words from the Latin root word?

Exercise 3 Here are several Latin roots and their meanings. Make an English word using the root as part of the word.

	<u>Latin Root</u>	<u>Meaning</u>	<u>English Word</u>
example:	vert (or vers)	turn	revert
	rupt	break	
	ject	throw	
	aud	hear	
	ped	foot	
	scrib	write	
	port	carry	

Exercise 4
sets have?

What common meaning does each of the following word

- a. audience, auditorium, audible
- b. inject, project, reject
- c. import, report, export

Exercise 5 Many Latin roots have to do with parts of the body. What connection does Latin have with the following sentences? Look these words up in a dictionary to find out.

- a. A bike pedal is pushed with a _____.
- b. The captain is _____ of the team.
- c. The manual control was run by _____.
- d. The cardiograph checks the _____.
- e. An oral report is given with the _____.

Whoever said, "Latin is a dead language"? Do you believe it? If so, why? If not, why not?

WORDS HAVE ROOTS

PURPOSE: To develop the concept that a root is the simplest form of a word that can stand independently and that many of our words consist of roots plus various additions to the roots.

CONTENT: This lesson contains

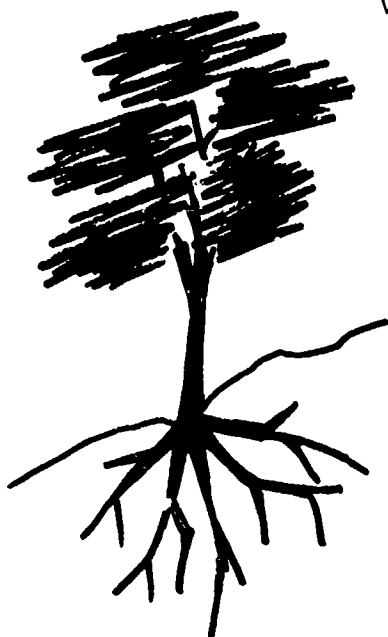
1. A discussion of what is meant by root words.
2. An exercise to show that the dictionary is useful in finding the roots of words.
3. An exercise picking out root words.
4. An exercise to point up Greek root words in our language.
5. An exercise pointing up that the roots found in words give clues to their meanings.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURE: Have the students work the exercises in groups or individually and then discuss their answers.

After working through the exercises with the students:

- a. Use a filmstrip and phonodisc such as SVE¹²³⁻² Roots and Shoots.
- b. Let students search for additional roots and "build-ups" in their dictionaries.
- c. Collect as many words of Greek origin as possible.

WORDS HAVE ROOTS



How are words like trees?

Trees have leaves.

Leaves grow on stems.

Stems grow on branches, and the branches grow on trunks that come from roots.

So it is with the words. Dig back into the beginnings of a word, and you will find stems, branches, and roots. The root of a word always carries the basic or important meaning no matter how much it has been changed. A root is the simplest form of a word that can stand alone as a word.

If you know a handful of root words, it will help you to understand unfamiliar words you meet, help you to spell them, and help you to use them accurately. One word scholar (an etymologist) tells us that over a quarter of a million words have grown from only about eight hundred root words.

Let's test the idea that words grow from other words. To do this, you yourself will again become something of an etymologist (a scientist who deals in the study of words).

Exercise 1

- a. What book do you already know about that might be helpful in your scientific word research?
- b. How might this book be helpful to word study?
- c. If you were analyzing the following members of a very large word family, what would you suspect would be the root? Why? Look it up in the dictionary.

graphology phonograph autograph

geography photograph paragraph

What does the root word mean? Can you find out by looking the words up in the dictionary what the parts added to the root mean?

Exercise 2. The number of English words has grown greatly as people build upon familiar root words. Below is a list of "built-up" words. What is the root word for each of them? Remember, a root is the simplest form of a word that can stand independently.

	<u>Built-up word</u>	<u>Root</u>
Ex.	busily	busy
	reality	
	factual	
	pitiful	
	sensitive	
	happiness	
	distrust	
	agreeable	
	replacement	
	loyalty	

Exercise 3. Another source of many English words is the language of the ancient Greeks. In particular, many of our scientific words are made up of combinations of Greek words. Many of the words used for medicines are also made of Greek words. One example is "streptomycin" (an antibiotic drug obtained from certain molds and used in the treatment of various diseases). This word puts two Greek root words together: streptos (twisted) + mykes (fungus).

Look at the following list of Greek roots, and then combine them to make words that will fit the definitions given below the list.

auto	=	self	log	=	science, study
bio	=	life	geo	=	earth
graph	=	write	theo	=	god

Example: You write about your own life = auto + bio + graph + y

- You study about the earth =
- Writing about the places on earth =
- Your name written by yourself =
- You study about God =
- You study the science of living things =
- Facts written about someone's life =

Exercise 4. The age of scientific technology gave the Greek and Latin root words an opportunity to really become a part of our vocabulary. Try to dissect (cut apart) the following words. Use your dictionary to discover the meanings for each root that you do not already know.

Example: automobile = auto + mobile
 self + moving

circumference =

videotape =

speedometer =

manuscript =

telephone =

centipede =

television =

microphone =

photograph =

In math you know about formulas such as $a + b = b + a$. Using your dictionary, test the following formula: phono + graph = grapho + phone. What would be your conclusions about the two words phonograph and graphophone?

Write a definition of a root word.

BUILDING WORDS WITH AFFIXES

PURPOSE: To provide students with further opportunity to work with affixes.

CONTENT: This lesson contains:

1. Opening remarks
2. Set of questions to point up concepts and to help diagnose student understanding of affixes.
3. A classifying exercise using prefixes, bases, and suffixes.
4. An exercise to stress meanings of prefixes.
5. Several exercises which use suffixes to change parts of speech.

TEACHER BACKGROUND:

These endings may help in forming the parts of speech with different suffixes.

<u>Verb</u>	<u>Nouns</u>	<u>Adjectives</u>
-fy or ify	-ence, -ance	-ant
-ize	-ment	-ent
-en	-ity	-ish
	-ness	-ive
	-ion, -tion	-al
	-ation	-able, -ible

POSSIBLE PROCEDURE:

This lesson assumes that the parts of speech such as noun, verb, and adjective have been previously introduced.

If the lesson seems too difficult, you no doubt will have other affix materials from several of your Readers, (Teacher Editions.)

Develop this lesson as a class, rather than have students work independently.

BUILDING WORDS WITH AFFIXES

Make a guess about the number of words in our English Language. 10,000? 25,000? 50,000? 100,000? Linguists say that there are more than 500,000 English words. Another linguist has told us that we have built our language from less than a thousand root words. How can we account for such a difference in figures? This lesson will at least give you a partial answer.

Exercise 1.

See if you can answer some of these questions.

1. Name several processes by which we have built words.
2. What do you call word parts that go before and after root words?
3. What is the difference between a prefix and a suffix?
4. Which affix is most likely to affect the meaning of the root word?
5. When we add suffixes to words, what kinds of changes often occur? How do suffixes affect the way the words are used in sentences?

Exercise 2. Study this list of words.

nonsense	difference	misspell
foolish	submarine	loveable
successful	punishment	capitalize
malfunction	indoors	classify
replacement	disrespectful	preview

Using the list that is given above, try to classify the different parts of each word.

	<u>Prefix</u>	<u>Root</u>	<u>Suffix</u>
Example	non	sense fool	ish

Exercise 3. Using the words in Exercise 2, answer the questions.

Which word has a built-in "not" meaning?

Which word has a built-in "wrong" meaning?

Which word has a built-in "before" meaning?

Which word has a built-in "wrong" meaning?

Which word has a built-in "again" meaning?

Which word has a built-in "opposite" meaning?

Which word has a built-in "under" meaning?

Did these built-in meanings precede or follow the base words?
What do affixes like this do to the base word? We call these kinds of affixes _____.

Exercise 4. By now you know several good reasons why there are so many English words. One reason for building new words from old ones is so that the new word can do a different job in our sentences. We can say:

- a. The noises of the jungle were terrible.
- b. Terror filled the jungle natives.
- c. The tiger terrorized the whole village.
- d. The noises were enough to terrify anyone.

Try to decide how each of the underlined words was used in the sentences above.

Exercise 5.

Use these words in sentences.

"real" and "realize"

"drama" and "dramatize"

"fort" and "fortify"

"sweet" and "sweeten"

"weak" and "weaken"

"wide" and "widen"

Which words were nouns?

Which words became verbs?

Which words were adjectives?

List the words above that mean "to make" or "to cause to be."

Exercise 6. Complete the sentence below by using the underlined word with a suffix.

Example: Do your folks allow you to have a weekly allowance?

- a. Do you enjoy your favorite _____?
- b. Keep active with a lot of _____.
- c. Express yourself with lots of _____.
- d. The _____ went out to explore.
- e. Give a _____ to define.

If the underlined words are verbs, what are the words you have built to complete the sentences?

What are some suffixes that are used to make nouns?

Exercise 7. Look at the words below:

danger - dangerous

fool - foolish

fame - famous

like - likable

hero - heroic

How does the word in the second column differ from the word opposite it in the first column?

Which of the words above will fit in the following blanks, those in the first column or those in the second?

a _____ animal

a _____ old woman

a _____ child

a _____ actor

a _____ pilot

The words with suffixes are used to do what? What part of speech are the words? What are some suffixes that are used to change nouns into adjectives?

How many of the questions in exercise 1 can you answer now?

What word-building process has accounted for many English words? How does the process work?

THE GAME OF THE NAME

PURPOSE: To illustrate the fact that names of people furnish us with another source of words in our language.

CONTENT: This lesson contains:

1. An exercise illustrating one of the ways names of people may have been given.
2. An exercise using students' own vocabulary in order to classify name words.
3. An exercise to point up that given names once had meaning.
4. An exercise to help students discover that many things are named after people.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURE:

1. Perhaps the opening section should be worked out together. Allow for argument that may arise in Exercise 1.
2. A transparency of given names and their original connotations might be useful for Exercise 2.
3. In Exercise 3, let students expand the list of proper nouns that have come to stand for something else (antonomasia).
4. Exercise 4 is a creative tool to point up the process of change from proper to common nouns.

THE GAME OF THE NAME

You have at least two names, a given name (John) and a surname (Doc). Perhaps you have called them your first name and your last name. You were probably given your first name to honor some friend or member of your family. But in the early history of name words this was not always so.

To get you thinking about names:

1. Pick out five people that you know.
2. Describe some one thing about each one of them.
3. Call them by the most descriptive names you can dream up.
4. Can you think of a way to shorten the names?

For example:

1. Think of your boyfriend in the pink house.
2. The boy makes basket after basket for your team.
3. Call him "Boy in the pink house who makes baskets."
4. Rename him Baskets Pinkhouse (or some other shortened name).

Exercise 1. There are many stories behind the names of people, places, and things. Which of the following kinds of names do you think came first?

- Names of places?
- Names of things?
- Names of people?

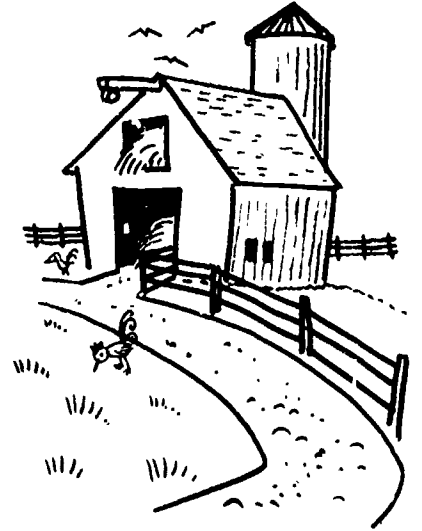
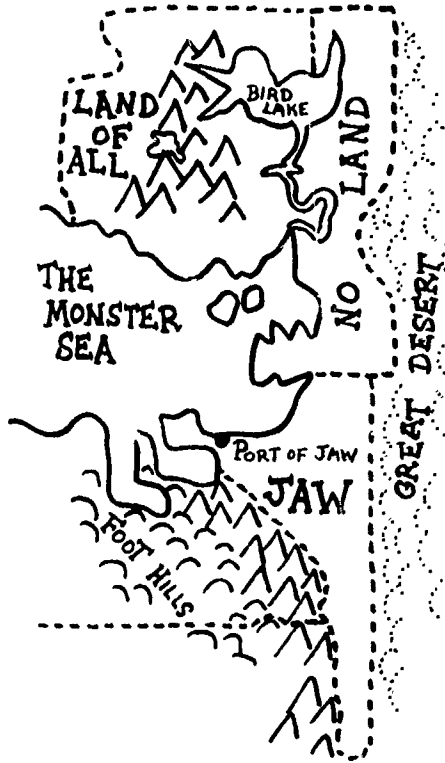
Why did you choose your particular answer?

Use your individual word bank and your automatic word sorter (your brain) to make lists of three kinds of name words.

Names of people

Names of places

Names of things



Which words are capitalized? Which ones are not?

Exercise 2. Once the people who had very poor sight were called Cecil or Cecilia. Do you know a Cecil or Cecilia? Do they have poor eyesight?

Lame people were often called Claude or Claudia.

Richard was someone of kingly birth.

Mary was a rebellious girl.

Rufus was the name for a ruddy, red-faced fellow.

Bruno meant a brown-skinned man.

People with soft hair were called Julius and Julia.

How were names once used to describe people? Has the naming process changed? If so, how?

- a. Make a list of "given" names of your classmates.
- b. Find out what the original names described. Example: Margaret described a pearl. (Any good dictionary will help with the name game.)
- c. Do the descriptions fit your friends?
- d. Discuss why the names of people may have lost their original meanings.

Exercise 3.

- a. Read this list of facts:

Colonel James Bowie was a Texas hero.

Melons were grown near Cantalupo Castle in Italy.

This nut tree came from Wales.

Fahrenheit was a famous thermal scientist.

Pasteur discovered how to kill certain germs.

Who will we thank for the following words?

bowie knife

fahrenheit thermometer

pasteurize

cantalope

walnut

b. Select any of the following three words and write a brief account of the origin of each. (Any good dictionary will tell you a story behind each word.)

sandwich	derby	watt
sequoia	volt	bloomers
davenport		

c. Sometimes names of famous people are used as proper nouns to stand for something else. An example is Ford, the name of a man, which is now used as the name of a car. Eventually the word may come to be spelled with a small letter rather than a capital letter. When that happens it is a sign that the memory of the original proper noun has been lost.

Using your imagination, describe some "imaginary somethings" that might be made famous by the following names.

	<u>Name</u>	<u>Something</u>	<u>Description</u>
Ex.	John Doe famous hunter	doe	A doe is a female deer.
	Prince DeBoy	boy	
	Joan Baez		
	John Lennon		
	your own name		

COMPOUNDING WORDS

PURPOSE: To help students discover patterns of word-compounding.

CONTENT: This lesson contains:

1. Introductory remarks about word-compounding.
2. Exercise 1 uses nouns + noun compounds.
3. Exercise 2 uses verb forms + nouns.
4. Exercise 3 uses adjectives + nouns.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION: The process of word-compounding discussed in this lesson is a familiar resource of English that, with a little reflection, every child will realize he uses daily and without difficulty. Compounding is especially easy in modern English because so few inflections remain in the language. That is, one can readily put two nouns together ("rat" + "race") and create a new word ("rat-race"), or a verb and a noun ("cut" + "throat" = "cut-throat"), or an adjective and a noun ("hard" + "hat" = "hard-hat"), or two adjectives ("inky" + "black" = "inky-black"). The compound is usually hyphenated but sometimes is written solid ("roommate") and occasionally is written as two words but serving as one in the sentence ("ax handle"). Compounding is a rich source of new words, since the result of compounding is to make something new out of familiar components. Children should enjoy becoming aware of this process which they themselves use, and it should be easy for them to think of other compounds they are familiar with and especially to make up imaginative new ones.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURE: Students may not, and really need not, grasp the abstract concepts behind the compounding patterns. But if they are encouraged to apply the formulas by adding other compound words to the various lists, the ideas will become clearer.

COMPOUNDING WORDS

From your very first years of reading, you will probably remember putting two words like "coat" and "rack" or "dog" and "collar" together to produce another one--"coatrack," "dog-collar." The teacher told you that words like this were called compound words. How many compounds can you list using your own vocabulary bank?

This compounding process is a very old one. It was much used by the Anglo-Saxons because it made what they wanted to say more colorful and meaningful. They put "mild" and "hearted" together and it meant "merciful." To suggest what a battlefield was like, they put "slaughter" and "place" together--a "slaughter-place." Warriors were sometimes called "slaughter-wolves." "Afterthink" was a compound for the word "repeat," and a "foresayer" was a prophet (one who speaks before). Even though most of these Anglo-Saxon compounds are no longer in use, the process of compounding words has kept right on.

Think about the following exercises. Try to decide exactly what has been done to get new words. Our English language follows certain patterns. You may be able to discover some of the patterns it uses in compounding.

Exercise 1

A. Take the following compounds apart and use both parts separately in the same sentence.

Example: birdbath - The bird was having a bath.

lighthouse	fishbowl
snowplow	teakettle
fighter-plane	seashore
townhouse	wristwatch
mailman	birdsong

B. In Part A what kind of words were each of the separate parts? What kind of words are the compounds?

The compound words in Part A show that _____
may be joined with other _____ to make a compound
_____.

C. Using the noun + noun formula, make a list of other compound words.

Exercise 2

A. Study each of the following compound words. Complete the sentences using these compounds.

dog catcher
store bought
heart breaker
man eating

cry baby
road grader
hang man
book mark

Example: The person who catches the dog is a dogcatcher.

The shirt which was bought at the store is _____.

The person who breaks a heart is a _____.

The tiger that eats a man is a _____ tiger.

A baby that cries easily is a _____.

The machine that grades roads is a _____.

The man who hangs people is a _____.

A piece of paper that marks the page in a book is a _____.

B. What parts of speech are the underlined words?

Change the following verbs to nouns:

Example: read + er = reader

paint + _____ = _____

learn + _____ = _____

blow + _____ = _____

make + _____ = _____

play + _____ = _____

Now use these words to make compounds of the nouns.

proof
house
horn

slow
toy
ball

Exercise 3

A. What kind of parts have been added to make the following compounds?

paper thin
sky blue
letter perfect
garden fresh

brick red
ice cold
coal black
grass green

B. Separate the compounds into nouns and adjectives.

	<u>Nouns</u>	<u>Adjectives</u>
Example:	snow	white

C. How do compound words such as "red-hot" and "blue-green" and "filthy rich" differ from the set of words in part B? Can you think of other compounds like "red-hot"?

INFLECTING WORDS

PURPOSE: To make students aware that inflected words change in form rather than in function.

CONTENT: This lesson contains

1. Introductory questions and remarks.
2. Exercise 1 deals with the seven inflections most used in the English language.
3. Exercise 2 is intended to show that inflecting a word does not change its function with in a sentence.
4. Exercise 3 deals with plural inflections.
5. Exercise 4 concerns tense forms. (This is also a chance to talk about regular and irregular verbs.)

BACKGROUND INFORMATION: Nouns, adjectives, and verbs in English have several forms which are produced by a regular process of adding endings to the root, or base, form. For instance, nouns have a plural form produced--in regular nouns--by adding s or -es to the singular form. The possessive is formed by adding 's to the singular and to plural forms that don't already end in s (men's). And in the written form there is an apostrophe. Verbs have a past tense form, a past participle form, and a present participle form. In regular verbs the past and past participle forms are made by adding -ed to the root (call, called, have called). The -ing form is made by adding -ing to the root. Adjectives have comparative and superlative endings (tall, taller, tallest). Words which have various forms of this kind are said to be inflected and the various forms are called inflections. Many languages have many more inflections than English, and Old English had many more than Modern English. Nouns, for instance, used to have different forms for the subject, object, possessive, and object of prepositions.

POSSIBLE PROCEDURES:

1. Unless students have had some training in linguistic vocabulary be sure terms like the following are understood:

form	singular	irregular
modify	present tense	comparative
inflected	past tense	superlative
plural	regular	degree

2. If the ideas in this lesson are new to students, work with them as a class. Testing the functions of the inflected words in sentences is important, in order for students to understand that the form may change but the function remains the same.

INFLECTING WORDS

What if some one asked you these questions?

- a. What word are you talking about when you use the words goose and geese?
- b. What word are you talking about when you use the words big, bigger, and biggest?
- c. What word are you talking about when you use the words fly, flies, flew, and flown?

Many words of our language change in form from time to time. When words change in this way, we say that they are inflected words. Your automatic word machine makes such changes quite easily. You aren't even aware that you have shifted gears from one form of the word to another. For instance, look at the underlined words below:

The track star ran fast.
The track star ran faster yesterday.
The track star ran fastest in Saturday's race.

What word are we talking about? How many forms does the word have? Did the way in which the word was used in the sentence change?

Exercise 1

In modern English, there are five inflections (changes in form) that you use all the time. Study the following inflected words. Look for patterns that would help you separate the words into seven sets.

higher	reads	loudest	hurried	taller
games	tries	girls	hurrying	nicer
boys	car's	tallest	hurries	nicest
plays	tried	lower	John's	Sally's
dog's	discusses	books	walked	man's
played	discussed	students	walking	louder
playing	discussing	highest	riding	trying

Set A

Set B

Set C

Set D

Set E

Set F

Set G

What is the original word form of each of the inflected words? Try to add other inflected words of the same kind to each of the sets. Describe the different sets of inflected words.

Exercise 2

When a word is inflected, it still performs the same function within its sentence. That is, if the word was a noun, it stays a noun even though it has been inflected, and it will do the kind of work that nouns do in a sentence. Test the following sets of words in sentences in order to decide if this is true.

Example set: The boy rode the bus.
The boys rode the bus.

How are the words boy and boys used in the example sentences?

Set A: walk, walks, walked, walking

Set B: big, bigger, biggest

Set C: game, games

The words in Set A all function as _____.

The words in Set B function as _____.

The words in Set C function as _____.

Exercise 3

Examine the following sets of words:

<u>Set A</u>	<u>Set B</u>	<u>Set C</u>	<u>Set D</u>
boys	buses	feet	oxen
boats	kisses	men	children
ships	dresses	mice	fish
girls	boxes	geese	sheep

What is the original word form of each inflected word? What do all these words have in common?

How was Set A inflected?

How was Set B inflected?

How do Sets A and B differ from Sets C and D?

How are the words "fish" and "sheep" different from the other words?

Exercise 4

Examine the following pairs of words:

walk	step	watch	play
walked	stepped	watched	played
insist	start	reflect	include
insisted	started	reflected	included

Are all these words of the same kind? Use each of them in a short sentence to test your answer. No doubt you have noticed that the second word of each pair ends the same way, with -ed. Is the -ed pronounced the same way in the words in the first group as it is in the words in the second group?

The past tense inflection -ed is sometimes pronounced as a separate syllable, as it is in the second group of words above ("start-ed"). Sometimes it is pronounced like t, as it is in the first group of words ("step-t"). And sometimes it is pronounced like d, as it would be in the word "phoned." But no matter how it is pronounced, this -ed inflection on verbs is by far the commonest one. Most English verbs form their past tense by adding -ed. Such verbs are called regular verbs, because they form their past tense in the regular or common way.

Now look at some other verb pairs:

write	drink	is	tell
wrote	drank	was	told
swim	sing	throw	say
swam	sang	threw	said

Would you agree that, from just looking at them, there doesn't seem to be any difference between "walk" and "step" and "start" in the first list and "drink" and "sing" and "swim" in the second list? But look at the second form of each of these words. Now is there a difference? What is it?

The verbs in the second list form their past tense in irregular ways -- not just with -ed, the way regular verbs do. And so they are called irregular verbs. In Anglo-Saxon times there were a great many more irregular verbs than there are now. We have only about 140 of them left today. But they still cause people trouble, because they don't fit the usual patterns. You have probably heard very young children just learning to talk say "I runned away today" or "Mommie singed me a song." What should they have said? Why do you suppose they said "runned" and "singed"? Can you think of other irregular verbs that little children sometimes make the same kind of mistake with?