朗文英语讲座听力

教师用书

LEARN **to** LISTEN

LISTEN **to** LEARN

Academic Listening and Note-Taking

Second Edition

Roni S. Lebauer

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INTRODUCTION

The materials in this manual are offered so that you, the teacher, can adapt this text to your needs. Included are teaching suggestions, lecture presentation options, lecture outlines, lecture and exercise audioscripts, and answers to exercises.

Lecture Presentation

One of the key features of *Learn to Listen; Listen to Learn, 2nd edition* is that it allows teachers the option of delivering lectures live, using prerecorded lectures from the companion audioprogram, or both. Teachers who choose to deliver lectures live can use the lecture outlines, which provide the core information of the lecture. It is up to the teacher, as the lecturer, to paraphrase, summarize, repeat, go off on tangents, etc. in order to create a realistic-sounding lecture. Lecture outlines are included in this manual. Audioscripts of the lectures from the audioprogram are also included. (In order to best express the natural speech pattern of the lecturer, these scripts use ellipses to indicate pauses.) Please note, however, that these scripts should not be read aloud to the class, as this would create very artificial, awkward lectures. Rather, these audioscripts are included as a resource.

Activities for Vocabulary Development

In Learn to Listen; Listen to Learn, 2nd edition, there are numerous opportunities for vocabulary development. This is particularly so in Units 6 and 7, which focus on lecture comprehension and note-taking practice. Each lecture in these units has a section on Vocabulary Related to the Topic. During the Pre-Lecture Discussions, the teacher can present relevant vocabulary in context as needed by paraphrasing students' ideas. Exercises in Defining Vocabulary, Using Vocabulary, and Retaining Vocabulary provide additional practice. Defining Vocabulary exercises typically require students to listen to words in context and guess their meanings. Audioscripts for these exercises are included in this manual. Teachers, of course, are encouraged to paraphrase or add information, as they deem necessary. In addition, teachers are encouraged to ask students to try to recall how each word was used in the lecture. Using Vocabulary exercises provide further practice in recognizing and using relevant vocabulary by intertwining vocabulary development and listening comprehension. Finally, in Retaining Vocabulary exercises, students select five to ten words from the lecture that they want to focus on (since in most lectures, more vocabulary is presented than can be retained and some specialized vocabulary need not be retained by all students). This selection process allows students to choose the words that have the most meaning for them and take the initiative to learn them. The success of this activity depends on the teacher's encouragement and use of this selection process. For example, teachers might give quizzes in which students are only held responsible for the words they have chosen.

Multiskill Development through Topic Exploration and Discussion

Though this book focuses on listening and note-taking, during the process of learning and practicing these skills, students can improve their speaking and reading skills through Pre-Lecture Discussions. Many of these sections involve reading, critiquing, and responding to related newspaper, magazine, and journal articles. In addition, each unit ends with a Speaking and Listening or Writing Activity related to the lecture.

Feedback on Notes

The Note-Taking Feedback Form on pages 5–6 of the textbook lists common teacher comments. You may want to use this form (or an adaptation) when evaluating your students' notes. For detailed information about what criteria to look for when evaluating notes, see Eight DOs and DON'Ts for Improving Lecture Comprehension and Note-Taking on pages 14–15 of this manual. Examples of good and poor student notes are also in this section.

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CONTENTS

UNIT 1   PRE-COURSEWORK EVALUATION

Unit Summary: In this unit, teachers evaluate students' listening comprehension and note-taking abilities at the beginning of the course. In addition, students reflect on their own strengths and weaknesses as listeners and note-takers. The lecture content in the unit provides information about the linguistic and paralinguistic challenges of listening and note-taking.

📝 Lecture 1: The Process of Lecture Comprehension

Lecture Outline: Part 1, page 2
Use this outline if you'd like to deliver the lecture yourself.

INTRODUCTION: At the university, students are called on to perform many types of listening tasks: listening in a group discussion, listening to a teacher on a one-on-one basis, listening to recordings or films, listening to academic lectures. For many students, listening to an academic lecture is one of the hardest listening tasks. For this reason, what I will talk about today is how listening to academic lectures differs from other types of listening situations. Later on, I'll talk about what a listener needs to be able to do in order to comprehend an academic lecture efficiently.

I. How does listening to an academic lecture differ from listening in other situations?
   A. Language may be different from language used in everyday listening situations.
      1. It may be more formal, although not necessarily.
         a. e.g., "on the contrary," "nevertheless," instead of "but"
      2. It may have more subject-specific vocabulary (jargon).

   B. Interaction between speaker and listener in an academic lecture situation is different from interaction in everyday listening situations.
      1. The communication is completely unidirectional (information is transferred in one direction only), whereas in everyday listening situations, the participants take turns or, at minimum, one participant indicates comprehension and encourages the other to continue.
      2. The listeners in an academic lecture situation have no control over the direction of the lecture, whereas the listener in an everyday situation can ask for clarification or repetition.
      3. The speaker in an academic lecture situation gets little feedback from the audience, whereas the speaker in an everyday situation can see if a listener looks puzzled or wants to ask a question.
         a. In an academic lecture situation, a speaker might get some feedback from drooping heads, people leaving, etc., but this is very different from the subtle feedback a speaker might get face-to-face with a listener.
      4. The speaker in an academic lecture situation often "holds the floor" (takes his/her turn) for a long time (fifteen minutes to, perhaps, two hours), whereas in an everyday situation, the participants either take turns or the speaker provides openings for the listener to speak.

   C. Expectations in an academic lecture situation are different from expectations in everyday listening situations.
      1. In an academic lecture situation, the listeners are often expected to take notes, whereas in an everyday situation, this would be inappropriate.

2. In an academic lecture situation, the listeners need to retain information for later use, whereas in an everyday situation, an immediate response is more necessary.

CONCLUSION: As you can see, listening to a lecture is quite different from listening for everyday purposes. Later I'll talk about what a listener needs to do in order to comprehend a lecture efficiently.

Lecture Audioscript: Part 1, 4′53″

This audioscript shows one speaker's delivery of the lecture, as recorded in the audio program. Use it as a resource.

OK . . . what I'm going to talk about is a very relevant subject probably to many of you . . . and that is listening to lectures . . . listening to academic lectures . . . and for many students listening to lectures is one of the hardest listening skills . . . much harder than your everyday conversational skills . . . and that's for many reasons . . . so . . . what I'm going to look at in this lecture . . . are the ways that listening to a lecture differ . . . from listening in other types of situations . . . everyday conversations, for instance, and then later . . . in the second part of this lecture . . . talk about what listeners need to do when they listen to lectures . . . and take notes . . .

OK . . . so first . . . how does listening to a lecture differ from listening in other situations? . . . now let's think about it . . . first of all the language . . . you know that the language is sometimes very different in a lecture . . . as compared to . . . for instance, talking to friends . . . talking to people on the street . . . there's an academic language that we may use . . . OK? . . . we may use words like "on the contrary" . . . "nevertheless" instead of simpler words like "but" . . . now this is not to say that lecturers never use the word "but" . . . but some lecturers may use a more formal level of the language . . . also in lectures . . . one would expect to hear more subject specific language . . . or jargon . . . of a field . . . words that would rarely be found in everyday conversation . . . but are necessary to talk about a discipline . . . so language is one thing that differs between lectures and everyday listening . . .

another thing that's different between the lecture situation and the everyday situation is the *interaction* between the speaker and the listener . . . for example in a lecture situation . . . the interaction is all unidirectional . . . meaning that it goes in one direction . . . all the interaction goes from the lecturer to the listener . . . the listener has very little role to play . . . maybe the listener nods his or her head but really there's no interaction between the two . . . in an everyday situation . . . the participants take turns . . . or at least one participant indicates comprehension . . . and the other . . . continues . . . it goes in two directions . . . bidirectional interaction . . . OK . . . also in a lecture the listener has no control . . . whereas in everyday speaking situations if you don't understand you can ask the speaker to repeat . . . but in a lecture . . . a listener can't say "repeat things" . . . they can't say "I don't understand" . . . the listener has no control in a lecture situation . . . and finally in a lecture situation the speaker often talks continuously for a long, long time whereas in an everyday situation . . . usually there are breaks . . . people take turns . . . or people react . . . OK? . . .

now the last difference between a lecture situation and the everyday listening situation is the expectation . . . now in a lecture situation you are expected to keep the information for later use . . . maybe take notes . . . you're supposed to remember what you hear . . . in an everyday listening situation you need to react right at that moment . . . you don't need to take notes . . . you don't need to think about it later . . . you need to react right there . . . so in a lecture you need to write down things so you can remember them for later use . . . in an everyday situation you need to react . . . right at the moment . . . so as you can see listening to a lecture is quite different from listening in an everyday situation for everyday purposes . . . now uh . . . I uh I'll stop here and later I'll talk about what a listener needs to

do in order to comprehend a lecture efficiently.

Possible Answers, Part 2, page 2

	Lecture	Everyday Language
Language	—may be more formal, but not necessarily so —may use subject-specific vocab.	—more informal

Interaction	—unidirectional
	—listeners—no control
	
	—speaker—no feedback
	—speaker "holds the floor" continuously
		—two-way communication
		—listener has some control
		  e.g., can ask for repetition, clarification
		—speaker can see or hear if listener confused
		—speakers take turns or give others
		  opportunity to speak

Expectations	—take notes; retain info. for later use	—must respond immediately

Lecture Outline: Part 2, page 3
Use this outline if you'd like to deliver the lecture yourself.

INTRODUCTION: Previously, I talked about how listening to a lecture differed from listening in an everyday situation. However, the important thing for you is not necessarily to learn how they differ but rather to learn how to listen to a lecture efficiently.

I. What does a listener need to do in order to comprehend a lecture efficiently? There are four tasks.
   A. Task no. 1: The listener must be aware of all of the carriers of meaning.
      1. Words, obviously, carry meaning.
      2. Other features carry meaning.
         a. Stress: "I went to the bar." (no special stress) vs. "I went to the bar." (not someone else)
         b. Intonation: "He came." vs. "He came?" (One is a statement; one is a question.)
         c. Rhythm: "Can you **see**, Karen?" vs. "Can you see **Karen**?" (One means that I am asking Karen if she can use her eyes to see; the other means that I am asking someone if he/she can see a person named Karen.)
         d. Body language: "the first thing" (pointing one finger)

   B. Task no. 2: The listener must be able to add information that the lecturer expects the audience to add.
      1. Listeners are not tape recorders; they do not take the lecturer's words and retain them word for word.
      2. Rather, they "reinterpret" the words they hear, and one of the ways they do this is by adding information.
         a. Their ability to add information stems from two sources: knowledge of subject matter and world experience.
            (1) Example of using subject-matter knowledge: If a speaker says "The temperature in the region never falls below 32 degrees Fahrenheit, so the residents do not have to worry about protecting their pipes," the speaker is assuming that his/her audience has the knowledge that water freezes at 32 degrees Fahrenheit and that water freezing in pipes can damage the pipes. The listener must add this information in order to make sense of the lecturer's statement.

      (2) Example of using world knowledge: If a speaker says "John and Jane were ready to walk down the aisle, but then they realized that they didn't have the ring," Americans listening to this would be able to add the nonspoken information—based on their cultural knowledge—that this takes place at a wedding ("walk down the aisle") and that the reason they are nervous is that a wedding ring is often an essential part of the ceremony. Without adding this information, the lecturer's statement would make little sense.

    3. Listening is not a matter of absorbing the speaker's words, word for word; it would be impossible to remember. Rather, listening involves listening to the speaker's words and reinterpreting them. ("The meaning is not in the word; it is in the person who uses it or responds to it.")

C. Task no. 3: The listener needs to predict appropriately while listening.

    1. Reason no. 1: Prediction helps overcome "noise." Noise (which includes anything that interferes with hearing—mechanical failure, language unclearness, outside noise, inattentiveness, etc.) often makes words and ideas unclear.

    2. Reason no. 2: Prediction helps save time for processing information and taking notes.

    3. There are two types of predictions: predictions of content and predictions of organization.

        a. Example of predicting content: If you hear "Because he loves to cook, his favorite room is the . . .", you might guess that the next word would be "kitchen." You can make this guess because of your world knowledge that one cooks in a kitchen. You might also guess this because your knowledge of English tells you that after the word "the," you can expect a noun or noun phrase.

        b. Examples of predicting organization: If someone is going to tell a story, we expect them to begin with some sort of setting for the story. If someone gives some examples, we expect them to make some generalization to tie the examples together.

D. Task no. 4: The listener must constantly evaluate while listening (that is, decide how important or unimportant something is or how it relates to another idea).

    1. Reason no. 1: Evaluating helps the listener figure out what to note because he/she cannot note everything.

    2. Reason no. 2: Evaluating helps the listener retain information.

        a. More information is retained when information is related to other pieces of information or known information. By evaluating incoming information, listeners figure out the interrelationship between pieces of information.

        b. Isolated and unrelated information is less likely to be retained.

CONCLUSION: Clearly, a lot is involved in listening to a lecture. Notice that I primarily talked about what all people do when they listen to lectures (native speakers and nonnative speakers). Based on what you have heard in this lecture, I will leave it to you to imagine and discuss what problems would particularly affect nonnative speakers and why they would have these problems.

Lecture Audioscript: Part 2, 9'42"

OK . . . what do you need to do in order to understand the lecture? . . . and that's probably the important question for you . . . now there are four things that I'm going to talk about . . . the first thing is that you need to be aware of all of the parts of the language that carry meaning . . . now you all know that words carry meaning . . . so words are obvious . . . you've got to be aware of the vocabulary of the language . . . the words . . . but there are other features of the language that you need to be aware of . . . for one thing you need to be aware of stress . . . OK? I'll give you an example . . . "I went to the bar" . . . "I went to the bar" . . . it makes a difference . . . in the second example . . . I'm stressing the fact that it was me and not someone else . . . "I went to the bar" . . . so that this means stress has some meaning . . . now the next thing that you might want to listen for is intonation . . . so for example if I say "He came." . . . "He came?" . . . there are two different meanings . . . one is a statement . . . the other one is a question . . . and another thing you need to listen for is rhythm . . . for example "Can you see, Karen?" versus "Can you see Karen?" da da Da da da . . . da da da DA da . . . those two mean something different "Can you see, Karen?" "Can you see Karen?" one says "can you see?" and they're talking directly to Karen . . . the other one says "Can you see Karen . . . over there?" . . . OK . . . so rhythm has something to do with understanding . . . and finally body language . . . if you watch me speak . . . sometimes you can see what I'm doing . . . I'll say "the first thing" and point a finger . . . "on the other hand" . . . and change my body position . . . so I use my body . . . to give you meaning . . . or emphasize my meaning . . . so when you listen you need to understand all the carriers of meaning . . . in language . . .

OK . . . the next thing you must do when you listen is when you listen you need to add information that the lecturer expects you to add . . . all lecturers assume that they share some information with their audience and that their audience does not need them to spell out every word . . . and listeners have an ability to add this information due to two sources of information . . . their knowledge of a particular subject and their knowledge or experience of the world . . . so for example . . . let's take an example which requires subject-matter knowledge . . . if you heard a speaker say "The temperature in the region never falls below 32 degrees Fahrenheit so the residents don't have to worry about protecting their pipes" . . . the lecturer is assuming that you . . . the listener . . . can add the information that water freezes below 32 degrees Fahrenheit . . . and this could be dangerous to pipes . . . the lecturer does not need to say all this because he or she assumes that the audience can add this information based on its basic knowledge of the subject matter . . . now here's another example . . . this time requiring adding information based on world experience . . . that is, knowledge of the world . . . if I say something like . . . "John and Jane were ready to walk down the aisle but then they realized that they didn't have the ring" . . . if Americans heard that . . . they'd probably automatically assume that it was a wedding . . . because they think of walking down the aisle . . . and exchanging rings . . . as essential parts of the American wedding ceremony . . . but if you didn't know that that was the culture . . . you'd have a harder time understanding my sentence . . . because you didn't add the needed information . . . the information that I . . . as the speaker . . . expected you to be able to add . . . OK so remember . . . listening is not a matter of just absorbing the speaker's words . . . the listener has to do more than that . . . the listener is not a tape recorder . . . absorbing the speaker's words and putting them into his or her brain . . . rather listening involves hearing the speaker's words and reinterpreting them . . . adding information if necessary . . . so the meaning is not in the word alone . . . rather it is in the person who uses it or responds to it . . . so that's the second thing that a listener must do . . . add information that the lecturer assumes that they share . . .

OK the third thing that a listener needs to do . . . and this is to me the most important thing of all . . . and that's to predict as you listen . . . now let me um let me give you two reasons why you have to predict . . . for one thing . . . if you predict it helps you overcome noise . . . what do I mean by noise? . . . maybe there's noise outside and you can't hear me . . . maybe you're in the back of the room and you can't hear all that well . . . maybe someone's talking next to you . . . maybe the microphone doesn't work . . . maybe there's

noise inside your head . . . by that I mean maybe you're thinking of something else . . . and then all of a sudden . . . you'll remember . . . oh! . . . I've got to listen! . . . by being able to predict during the lecture . . . you can just keep listening to the lecture and not lose the idea of what's going on . . . so predicting is important to help you overcome outside noise and inside noise . . . OK? . . . and another reason that predicting is important is because it saves you time . . . now when you listen you need time to . . . think about the information . . . relate it to old ideas . . . take notes . . . and if you're only keeping up with what I'm saying or what the lecturer's saying . . . you have no time to do that . . . and I'll bet a lot of you are having that problem right now because it's so hard just to follow everything I'm saying . . . that you don't have time to note down ideas . . . so predicting saves you time . . . if you can guess what I'm going to say . . . you're able to take notes . . . you're able to think . . . you have more time . . . OK? . . . and there are two types of predictions that you can make . . . predictions of *content* and predictions of *organization* . . . let me give you an example . . . in terms of content . . . if you hear the words "because he loved to cook . . . his favorite room was the . . ." . . . what would you expect? anyone? . . . "kitchen . . ." you can guess this because you know people cook in the kitchen . . . also you can guess this because you know that after the word "the" you expect a noun phrase . . . so you can predict words . . . content . . . OK? . . . and you can also predict organization . . . so if I gave you some examples . . . you'd probably expect me to tie the examples together . . . make a generalization to tie the examples together . . . if I was going to tell you a story . . . you'd expect me to tell you why the story is important . . . give you a setting for the story . . . so you have expectations of what the speaker is going to talk about . . . and how the speaker will organize his or her words . . .

now the last thing that a listener must do . . . the listener must evaluate . . . as he or she is listening . . . decide what's important . . . what's not . . . decide how something relates to something else . . . OK? . . . and there are again two reasons for this . . . the first one is evaluating helps you to decide what to take notes about . . . you can't . . . again . . . you're, you're not a tape recorder . . . so you can't get down every word . . . if you evaluate . . . you think . . . what's important to write down? . . . what's not important to write down? . . . and the second reason is that evaluating helps you to retain . . . or keep . . . information . . . OK? . . . and studies have shown that we retain more information . . . if ideas are connected to one another . . . rather than just individually remembered . . . so for example if I give you five ideas that are not related to one another . . . that's much more difficult to remember than five ideas that are related . . . right? . . . so evaluating helps you remember information better because it connects ideas . . . to one another . . .

clearly there's a lot involved in listening to lectures . . . and notice that I primarily talked about what all people do . . . when they listen to lectures . . . this was not just for nonnative speakers . . . this was for native speakers and nonnative speakers . . . and what I'd like you to do is think about or imagine what problems would particularly affect nonnative speakers . . . why would a nonnative speaker have more problems than native speakers . . . based on some of the things that we've talked about?

Example Notes, Part 2, page 3
The following is an example of student notes for Lecture 1, Part 2.

What does listener need to do to comprehend efficiently?

    A. must be aware of all carriers of meaning—words, stress, intonation, rhythm, body lang.

    B. must add information that lecturer expects
        —impossible to be tape recorder
        —2 sources for adding info.
            —knowledge of subject matter
            —knowledge of world

—listening involves "reinterpreting" lecturer's words

C. must predict while listening
   Why?
       —to overcome "noise" (external & internal) which makes listener miss words or ideas
       —to gain time to process info. & take notes
   2 types of prediction:
       —predict content
       —predict organization

D. must evaluate while listening—decide how ideas relate and what is important/not imp.
   Why?
       —to figure out what to note
       —to relate ideas to one another & make it easier to remember
           —isolated info. harder to retain

This is for all listeners—native/nonnative

Answers, Part 2, page 3

1. be aware of all the carriers of meaning; add information that the lecturer expects; predict; evaluate
2. stress, intonation, rhythm, body language
3. it helps the listener overcome noise (internal and external); it saves time that can be better used processing information and taking notes
4. predictions about content; predictions about organization
5. subject-matter knowledge; world knowledge
6. it helps them decide what to note; it helps them retain information (because related information is easier to remember than isolated information).

Post-Lecture Discussion, page 4

Answers:

1. Answers will vary. This question can begin a discussion about the problems (which go beyond language) that nonnative speakers might have when listening to lectures. Some possible answers include:
   a. Native speakers are less aware of all the carriers of meaning, even if they understand the vocabulary (e.g., stress, intonation, body language).
   b. Intonation and body language may mean different things in different languages and cultures and may therefore lead nonnative speakers in the wrong direction.
   c. It may be harder for nonnative speakers to add information that the lecturer expects the audience to have. Nonnative speakers do not always share the same world knowledge with the lecturer. The lecturer may take it for granted that the audience knows something (e.g., what happens at a wedding in the United States), but students from different cultures may have different concepts of the same event.
   d. Nonnative speakers may have a harder time predicting. For one thing, they may have different expectations about the organization of lectures. Also, they may not be as aware of the cues that help listeners predict.
   2. Answers will vary.

🎧 Dictation of Numbers, Audioscript, 3'42"
CD1-04 *Students will listen to the statements and write the numbers they hear. Read or play each item only once.*

   1. Michelangelo, the artist, was born in 1475.
   2. Georgia O'Keeffe, the artist, was born in 1887 and died in 1986.

3. A cup of raisins has 580 calories.
4. One slice of white bread has 70 calories.
5. The zipper was invented in 1891.
6. The piano was invented in 1709.
7. The microscope was invented in 1590.
8. The Missouri River is 2,533 miles long. That's 2,533 miles long.
9. The earth's diameter is 7,920 miles. 7,920 miles.
10. Mount Everest is 29,028 feet high. Again, 29,028 feet high.
11. The Sahara Desert is 3,500,000 square miles.
12. The earth is 93 million miles away from the sun.
13. Pluto, the planet farthest from the sun, is 3 billion, 670 million miles away from the sun. Amazing! 3 billion, 670 million miles away.
14. Tokyo is projected to have 28,700,000 people in the year 2015.
15. One pound equals 453.59 grams. One pound equals 453.59 grams.
16. An earthquake occurred in Iran on June 20, 1990.
17. This earthquake measured 7.7 on the Richter scale and caused more than 50,000 deaths and more than 60,000 injuries.
18. The length of the board was 4⅜ feet; the width was 5½ inches and the depth was ⅛ inch.

Note-Taking Feedback Form, pages 5–6
For detailed information about what criteria to look for when evaluating notes, see Eight DOs and DON'Ts for Improving Lecture Comprehension and Note-Taking on pages 14–15 of this manual.

UNIT **2** LOOKING AT LECTURE TRANSCRIPTS

Unit Summary: Unit 2 provides information and exercises that increase students' awareness of how lectures are formatted and that enable them to better predict lecture content and organizational direction while listening. Transcripts of actual lectures are used to demonstrate discourse features that are unique to lectures.

Unit 2 allows students to talk about and learn some basics about lecture discourse. It is not meant to be an in-depth analysis of lecture discourse. Rather, this unit should provide students with an overview and general understanding about some basic concepts regarding the language of lectures. Basically, the student should understand the following:

- There is much repetition and paraphrase in lectures. This repetition and paraphrase allows the listener time to absorb ideas and take notes. In addition, it may serve to emphasize important ideas.

- Speakers use cues to let the listener know what is happening and what will happen in the lecture. Specific cues introduce a topic, the organization that follows, or a conclusion. These cues can help students predict, plan, or get back into a lecture if they get lost.

Much of Unit 2 can be assigned for homework and then compared and discussed in class. The goal of this unit is discussion and increased awareness; therefore, different answers are acceptable as long as students are able to explain their choices.

Avoid spending too much time on this unit, since it is just an introduction. (See example syllabi on pages viii-x of the textbook for suggested time allotments.)

Exercise, page 8
Possible Answers:

Lecture Excerpt	Magazine Paragraph
There are more words.	There are fewer words.
The sentences seem to go on and on.	There are clear beginnings and endings to sentences.
The speaker uses words like "all right" and "hmmmm."	Words like "all right" and "hmmmm" aren't used.
There is more repetition.	The ideas are presented more succinctly.
There's no punctuation.	There is punctuation.
The speaker sometimes goes off the topic.	The speaker stays on the topic.
It seems more informal.	It seems more formal.

Exercise, pages 14–15
Possible Answers:

. . . we use language to describe . . . ~~tell about the world that we see~~ . . . ~~there's a chair over there~~ . . . ~~there's a person over here~~ . . . ~~someone is from China~~ . . . or whatever . . . (another thing) that we use it for is to tell people to do something . . . ~~please close the door~~ . . . ~~please open the door~~ . . . ~~do your homework~~ . . . ~~do this~~ . . . ~~do that~~ . . . ~~now we might not always say it but we have ways of telling people to do something~~ . . . (another way) . . . (a third way) . . . is we use language to tell people what we're going to do . . . I'm ~~going to tell you about language~~ . . . I'm going to open the door . . . (another way) to look at language . . . (two other ways) . . . (one) is to tell about feelings . . . ~~express what's inside of us about feelings~~ . . . ~~not only that there is a chair but that I don't like that chair or I do like that chair~~ . . . and (the fifth way) or (the fifth thing) we use is to change the world . . . ~~certain things that you say change the world~~ . . . ~~if I say you fail this course~~ . . . ~~that language changes the world~~ . . . ~~just my four words make you unhappy and hate me~~ . . . ~~something has changed because of my words and nothing else except those words~~ . . . (so) we can change the world with language . . . (now) since we have (all these different purposes) and you probably can think of other purposes with which we want to use language to win or accomplish what we want inside . . . (so) it's kind of like a game that way.

[Handwritten annotations throughout: "cue to organization" marked multiple times, "cue to conclusion" marked near "so," "now," and "because of my words"]

Exercise, pages 16–18
This is a good group activity.

Answers, page 18:
1. The "players" change.
2. You're out to win something.
3. Everybody has his or her own style.
4. You can change your style.
5. There are rules.

Exercise, pages 18–20
This is a discussion activity. Have students cover each unit of the lecture until they are ready to read it. After each unit, allow a few minutes to discuss what content might come next and what organization students expect. Have students explain their reasons for their predictions. Rather than correcting students, allow them to confirm or refute their hypotheses by themselves when reading the next unit. Discuss why certain hypotheses were unlikely expectations. Make sure students realize that guessing does not have to be correct, but should be a likely choice.