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Basic Global English (BGE)

A Concept for Accelerating and Facilitating the Acquisition of Communicative Competence in English

This reader serves as a guideline for teaching Basic Global English (BGE), i.e. the most important elements of the English language that enable as fast as possible to communicate in international settings—not only in British, American or Australian settings, but in any international setting. The most important area for communicative competence is vocabulary. This is why the focus of BGE is on the rapid acquisition of a general basic vocabulary of 750 words and an individual vocabulary of 250 words. The grammar rules and the pronunciation rules are reduced to a minimum; I will include only those rules that have proven to be important for international communication and those that are used by native speakers and advanced non-native speakers. The linguistic and socioeconomic theory behind BGE is presented in Volume 2 of the *Journal for EuroLinguistiX* (2005), pp. 65ff. I would like to stress that this is a proposal and still work in progress. I invite every learner and teacher to transfer BGE into various mother tongues (cf. the German example in the Appendix), try it out and share their experience with me on the ELiX discussion forum (www.eurolinguistix.com) or on a personal basis (joachim.grzega@ku-eichstaett.de, www.grzega.de).

In class, the material should be presented and explained in the mother tongue of the learners. The material unfolds in the following four chapters:

1. The Sound and Writing System
2. Basic Communicative Strategies (only 12 rules)
3. Basic Vocabulary (1,000-plus words) and Paraphrasing Techniques
4. Basic Grammar Structures (only 20 rules)

Learners should start with Chapter 1 and then memorize some points from Chapter 2 (a random order is possible). Then Chapters 3 and 4 should be studied at the same time. Chapter 3 should be started with Section 1 (Internationalisms and Pseudo-Anglicisms). The word-fields in Section 2 (Basic Vocabulary) can be studied in random order, whereas the grammar rules in Chapter 4 should be studied in the order given. On the side, or in between times, the following tasks should be done: elaborating an individual vocabulary as described under Section 3 of Chapter 3, getting to know the “false friends” in Section 4 of Chapter 3, and acquiring the word-formation and paraphrasing techniques dealt with in Section 5 of Chapter 3.

The speed of studying can be determined by teachers and learners themselves (Ogden’s 850 words from his 1930’s BASIC English could be learnt within one month). It is advisable to practice, revise and acquire some new words and rules on a daily basis. The daily revision should include that the learner speaks a little bit (if need be with him/herself), reads a little bit and writes a little bit (the internet abounds with international material – also in the form of discussion forums—the teacher may open up a separate discussion thread for the class). Thus, the learner will gradually be acquainted with the internationally relevant vocabulary and

grammatical usage.

The Sound System and the Writing System

(0) The spelling system:

A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z

a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z

[eɪ], [bi:], [si:], [di:], [i:], [ef], [dʒi:], [eitʃ], [aɪ], [dʒeɪ], [keɪ], [el], [em], [en], [ou], [pi:], [kju:], [ar], [es], [ti:], [ju:], [vi:], [ˈdʌbl ju:], [eks], [waɪ], [zed ~ zi:]

(1) Plosives:

They are formed by first stopping the airstream and then letting the airstream explode out of the mouth.

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[b]	<i>ball, Bob</i>	Put upper and lower lip together; the vocal chords must vibrate (= voiced). (On the distinction between “voiced” and “voiceless” cf. Point 6). This sound must not be mixed up with [w].	[b] is always written <i>b</i> or <i>bb</i> ; each <i>bb</i> is pronounced [b], but some <i>b</i> 's might be silent
[p]	<i>pop</i>	Like [b], but without vibration of vocal chords (= voiceless). At the beginning of a word the sound has audible aspiration: [p ^h]. This sound must not be mixed up with [f] or [b].	[p] is always written <i>p</i> or <i>pp</i> ; each <i>pp</i> is pronounced [p], but some <i>p</i> 's are silent
[d]	<i>daddy</i>	Put the tip of the tongue behind the upper incisors; the vocal chords must vibrate. This sound must not be mixed up with [ð].	[d] equals <i>d</i> or <i>dd</i> and vice versa
[t]	<i>team</i>	Like [d], but voiceless. At the beginning of a word the sound has audible aspiration: [t ^h]. Intervocalic [t] should always be pronounced as [t] and not as [d] like in AmE. The sound must not be mixed up with [θ].	[t] is always written <i>t</i> or <i>tt</i> ; each <i>tt</i> is pronounced [t]
[g]	<i>girl</i>	Built at the velum; the vocal chords must vibrate. This sound must always be pronounced like a plosive.	[g] equals <i>g</i> or <i>gg</i> and vice versa

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[k]	<i><u>K</u>irk, <u>c</u>ool</i>	Like [g], but voiceless. At the beginning of a word the sound has audible aspiration: [k ^h].	[k] is written <i>k, ch, ck</i> or <i>c</i> ; each <i>ck</i> is pronounced [k], but some <i>c</i> 's are pronounced [s], some <i>k</i> 's are silent, most <i>ch</i> 's are pronounced [tʃ]

(2) Fricatives:

They are formed by letting the airstream continuously out of the mouth, but not as clearly as with vowels, but “noisily”, because the airstream grazes obstacles such as the palate, the teeth or the lips.

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[f]	<i><u>f</u>oul</i>	Put the upper teeth on the lower lip; the vocal chords do not vibrate. This sound must not be mixed up with [p].	[f] is written <i>f, ff</i> , sometimes <i>gh</i> or in international words <i>ph</i> ; each <i>f, ff</i> and <i>ph</i> is pronounced [f]
[v]	<i><u>v</u>eteran</i>	Like [f], but voiced. The sound must not be mixed up with [b] or [w]	[v] is always <i>v</i> and vice versa
[s]	<i><u>s</u>ong</i>	Put the tongue at the alveolar ridge; the vocal chords do not vibrate. This sound must not be mixed up with [ʃ] or [z].	[s] is always written <i>c, s</i> or <i>ss</i> ; each <i>ss</i> is pronounced [s], but not each <i>s</i>
[z]	<i><u>z</u>oo, <u>z</u>ero</i>	Like [s], but voiced (not voiceless)!	[z] is always written <i>s</i> or <i>z</i> ; not each <i>s</i> is pronounced [z], but each <i>z</i> is pronounced [z]
[ʃ]	<i><u>sh</u>ow</i>	Put the tongue behind the alveolar ridge and round your lips; the vocal chords do not vibrate. The sound must not be mixed up with [s].	mostly written <i>sh</i> ; each <i>sh</i> is pronounced [ʃ]
[ʒ]	<i><u>m</u>ea<u>s</u>ure</i>	Formed like [ʃ], but voiced.	is always written <i>s</i> ; occurs rarely, and always in the middle of a word

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[θ]	<i>Thank you.</i>	Put the tip of the tongue at the alveolar ridge (just behind the upper incisors). The vocal chords do not vibrate. If the sound is too difficult for you, it can be replaced by [t] or [f] or, which is less recommended, also by [s] ¹ .	each [θ] equals <i>th</i> , but not vice versa
[ð]	<i>That's it.</i>	Like [θ], only with vibration of the vocal chords. If the sound is too difficult for you, it can be replaced by [d] or [v] or, which is less recommended, also by [z].	each [ð] equals <i>th</i> , but not vice versa
[h]	<i>hot, hello</i>	The sound is produced at the glottis and is voiceless.	each [h] equals <i>h</i> , but not vice versa

(3) Combination of plosive and fricative:

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[tʃ]	<i>touch, chip</i>	Combine [t] and [ʃ].	mostly written <i>ch</i>
[dʒ]	<i>jeans</i>	Like [tʃ], only with vibration of the vocal chords	written <i>j</i> or <i>g</i> ; each <i>j</i> is pronounced [dʒ], but not every <i>g</i>

(4) Nasal sounds:

They are formed by letting part of the airstream flow through the nose.

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[n]	<i>no</i>	Put the tip of the tongue behind the upper incisors; the vocal chords must vibrate, the airstream flows through the nose.	each [n] equals <i>n</i> or <i>nn</i> and vice versa
[m]	<i>mom, mam</i>	Put upper and lower lip together; the vocal chords must vibrate, the airstream flows through the nose.	each [m] equals <i>m</i> or <i>mm</i> and vice versa
[ŋ]	<i>song, singer</i>	Built at the velum; the vocal chords must vibrate, the airstream flows through the nose.	each [ŋ] equals <i>ng</i> , but not vice versa—only if it occurs at the end of a word or in the middle of a derived word

¹ [Although the replacement of [θ] by [s] has proven to be unproblematic in *lingua-franca* communication (cf. Jenkins' studies), the use of [s] for [θ] would be a clear non-native element.]

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[ŋg]	<i>finger,</i> <i>English</i>		each [ŋg] equals <i>ng</i> , but not vice versa—only when it occurs in the middle of a word that cannot be derived from another word

(5) Laterals:

They are formed through specific positions of the tongue.

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[r]	<i>run</i>	several variants are possible; mostly pronounced with the tip of the tongue raised towards a position on the roof of the mouth slightly behind the alveolar ridge, with the tongue slightly curled back, but with no contact between the underside of it and the alveolar ridge; the lips are normally rounded; must be distinguished from [l]	each [r] equals <i>r</i> or <i>rr</i> and vice versa
[l]	<i>link</i>	several variants are possible, but mostly formed with an arched tongue; the lips are not rounded; similar to [r], but must be distinguished from [r]	each [l] equals <i>l</i> or <i>ll</i> and vice versa

(6) Voiced and voiceless sounds:

An essential distinction in English is the one between voiced sounds, which means that the vocal chords vibrate, ([b, d, g, z, ʒ, v, ð, n, m, ŋ]) and voiceless sounds, which means that the vocal chords do not vibrate (e.g. [p, t, k, s, ʃ, f, θ]).

(7) Vowels:

Vowels are always voiced. It must be underlined that more important than the correct quality is the correct quantity: speakers must clearly distinguish between short and long vowels (the latter are marked with [i:]).

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[i:]	<i>beat</i>		mostly written <i>ea</i> or <i>ee</i> , sometimes <i>ie</i> ; each <i>ee</i> equals [i:] and so does almost each <i>ea</i>

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[u:]	<i>cool, pool, Luke</i>		mostly <i>oo</i> or, if the word ends in <i>e</i> , also <i>u</i>
[ə]	<i>water, lover, American</i>	if combined with <i>r</i> , the pronunciation should indeed be [ər]; can in principle be used in every unstressed syllable, but should be avoided in international contexts if “fuller” vowels are possible (especially due to spelling)	
[ɪ]	<i>bit</i>	occurs occasionally also in unstressed syllables	each stressed [ɪ] equals <i>i</i> , but not vice versa
[ʊ]	<i>put, good</i>		sometimes written <i>u</i> , sometimes <i>oo</i>
[ɒ]	<i>hot dog, mom</i>	some speakers also use a more open [ɑ] here, some a more close [ɔ]	each [ɒ ~ ɑ ~ ɔ] equals <i>o</i>
[ɑ:]	<i>father; dance, last, bathroom</i>	some native speakers use [æ:] in some words (those after the semicolon, i.e. words before [ns, s, f, θ]) – this is also the advised pronunciation	always written <i>a</i>
[aɪ]	<i>time, high</i>		mostly <i>i</i> , sometimes <i>ie</i>
[aʊ]	<i>mouse</i>		each [aʊ] equals <i>ou</i> , but not vice versa
[ɪə]	<i>pier</i>	always occurs in front of [r], which should not be forgotten in pronunciation	sometimes written <i>ier</i> , sometimes <i>ear</i>
[eə]	<i>fair</i>	always occurs in front of [r], which should not be forgotten in pronunciation; some natives also pronounce [æ:]	common spellings are <i>air</i> , <i>ear</i> , <i>are</i>
[ɔ:]	<i>Shaw</i>	long [ɔ] (cf. [ɒ] above)	sometimes written <i>aw</i> , sometimes <i>ough</i> ; each <i>aw</i> equals [ɔ:]
[æ(:)]	<i>fat, dad, mam</i>	not to be mixed up with the following sound	always written <i>a</i> , never <i>e</i>
[e]	<i>internet, website</i>	not to be mixed up with the preceding sound	always <i>e</i> , never <i>a</i>

sound	(international) English example	remark on the pronunciation	remark on the spelling
[ɜ]	<i>sir, word, pearl, burger</i>	always occurs before [r], which should not be forgotten in pronunciation	common spellings are <i>ir, er, ur</i> , sometimes also <i>or</i> or <i>ear</i>
[ʌ]	<i>cutter, club, pumps, love</i>		sometimes <i>u</i> , sometimes <i>o</i>
[eɪ]	<i>day, name, hey</i>		common spellings are <i>ay, ey</i> and, if the word ends in <i>e</i> , also <i>a</i> ; <i>ay</i> and <i>ey</i> are always pronounced [eɪ]
[əʊ]	<i>stone, show</i>	some native speakers also use [əʊ]	common spellings <i>ow, ough</i> or, if the word ends in <i>e</i> , also <i>o</i>

(8) Semiconsonants:

Two more sounds are called semiconsonants (sometimes also semivowels): [j] (*year*) or [w] (*water*). The sounds are like [i] and [u] which are very rapidly pronounced, pronounced “into the next sound”.

(9) Syllable structure:

Some language systems do not possess certain consonant clusters of the English language. Therefore, certain consonant clusters may be difficult for certain learners. The Japanese, e.g., are used to syllables consisting of “(consonant +) vowel”, the Spanish are not used to “s + consonant” at the beginning of words, the Italian are not familiar with certain consonants at the end of words. However, learners should watch out not to insert any additional vowels into a word as this could cause communicative breakdown.

(10) Spelling features:

It is an English spelling principle that every word begins with a small letter, except for proper nouns (and their derivations), the start of a sentence and the word *I*. Even though the spelling system appears rather chaotic, there are nevertheless a whole list of regularities.

spelling	common pronunciations and examples
<i>a</i> in monosyllabic words with final <i>e</i>	[eɪ] (<i>name</i>)
<i>a</i> before <i>nce, th</i> (in word-final position), <i>st, s(s), ff, ugh</i>	[æ] or [ɑ:] (<i>dance, bath, last, staff, laugh</i>)
<i>a</i> in unstressed position	[ə]
<i>a</i> in other positions	[æ] (<i>man</i>)
<i>aw</i>	[ɔ:] (<i>law</i>)
<i>ay</i>	[eɪ] (<i>day</i>)
<i>ce</i> in word-final position	[s] (<i>rice</i>)
<i>ch</i>	mostly [tʃ] (<i>chip</i>), sometimes [k] (especially before <i>r</i>) (<i>chronology, chorus</i>)

spelling	common pronunciations and examples
<i>c</i> in other positions	before consonants and <i>a/o/u</i> always [k] (<i>club, can, coach, cutter</i>), before <i>e/i</i> mostly [s] (<i>cent, cinema</i>)
<i>e</i> in word-final position	silent (<i>name, time</i>)
<i>e</i> in unstressed position	[ə], sometimes [ɪ]
<i>ea</i>	mostly [i:] (<i>beat</i>) (only in <i>steak, break</i> as [eɪ] and in <i>yea</i> [æ])
<i>ear</i>	[iə(r)] (<i>year</i>)
<i>ee</i>	[i:] (<i>feel</i>)
<i>er</i> (in unstressed syllables)	[ə(r)] (<i>dancer</i>)
<i>ey</i>	[eɪ] (<i>hey</i>)
<i>ew</i>	sometimes [ju:] (<i>few</i>), sometimes [u:] (<i>Jew</i>); after <i>d, t, n</i> the pronunciation [u:] is always possible (<i>new</i>)
<i>e</i> in other positions	[e] (<i>website</i>)
<i>g</i>	before consonants and <i>a/o/u</i> always [g] (<i>great, gag, good, guide</i>), before <i>e/i</i> [g] (<i>girl, get</i>) or [dʒ] (<i>geology, giro</i>) – in international Latin-Greek words <i>g</i> before <i>e</i> and <i>i</i> is always pronounced [dʒ]
<i>gh</i>	in word-initial position [g] (<i>ghost</i>), otherwise sometimes [f] (<i>laugh</i>), sometimes silent (<i>though</i>)
<i>i</i> in monosyllabic words with final <i>e</i>	[aɪ] (<i>time</i>)
<i>i</i> before <i>nd</i> and <i>mb</i>	[aɪ] (<i>find, climb</i>)
<i>i</i> in unstressed position	[ɪ], sometimes [ə]
<i>i</i> in other positions	[ɪ] (<i>bit</i>)
<i>ie</i>	mostly [aɪ] (<i>die</i>)
<i>j</i>	[dʒ] (<i>jeans</i>)
<i>kn</i>	[n] (<i>knife</i>)
<i>k</i> in other positions	[k] (<i>key</i>)
<i>mb</i>	[m] (<i>b</i> is silent) (<i>climb</i>)
<i>o</i> in monosyllabic words with final <i>e</i>	[əʊ] or [ɔʊ] (<i>stone</i>), sometimes also [ʌ] (<i>love</i>)
<i>o</i> in unstressed position	[ə]
<i>o</i> in other positions	[ɔ] (<i>hot dog</i>) or [ʌ] (<i>son</i>)
<i>oo</i>	mostly [u:] (<i>mood</i>), not infrequently also [ʊ] (<i>good</i>) or [ʌ] (<i>blood</i>)
<i>ou</i>	[aʊ] (<i>house</i>)
<i>ow</i>	[aʊ] (<i>cow</i>) or [oʊ] (<i>show</i>)
<i>ph</i>	[f] (<i>philosophy</i>)

spelling	common pronunciations and examples
<i>ps</i> in word-initial position	[s] (<i>psychology</i>)
<i>p</i> in other positions	[p] (<i>put</i>)
<i>s</i> in word-initial position	always [s] (voiceless!) (<i>son</i>)
<i>s</i> between two spoken vowels	always [z] (voiced!) (<i>laser</i>)
<i>s</i> before final <i>e</i>	[z] in verbs (<i>confuse</i>), [s] in nouns (<i>house</i>)
<i>s</i> in word-final position	sometimes [s] (<i>this</i>), sometimes [z] (<i>is</i>)
<i>ss</i>	always [s] (<i>pass</i>)
<i>th</i>	mostly [θ], in <i>this, that, these, those, the</i> and before final <i>e</i> [ð]
<i>u</i> in monosyllabic words and with final <i>e</i>	mostly [ju:] (<i>music</i>), sometimes [u:] (<i>blue</i>), after <i>d, t, n</i> the pronunciation [u:] can always be used (<i>duke, tune, nuclear</i>)
<i>u</i> in unstressed position	[ə]
<i>u</i> in other positions	mostly [ʌ] (<i>but</i>), sometimes [ʊ] (<i>put</i>), [ɜ] before [r]
<i>w</i> before consonants	silent
<i>w</i> in other positions	[w] (<i>winter</i>)
<i>wh</i>	[w]—some native speakers also use [hw] (<i>white</i>)
<i>x</i> in word-initial position	[z] (<i>xylophone</i>)
<i>x</i> in other positions	[ks] (<i>fax</i>)
<i>y</i> in word-initial position and after a vowel	[j] (<i>year, day</i>)
<i>y</i> in other positions	[aɪ] (<i>xylophone</i>) or [ɪ] (<i>system</i>)

Basic Communicative Strategies

Since in intercultural communication the politeness conventions of one's interlocutor are endangered of being easily violated, a number of rules should be respected.

- (1) The first fundamental principle is: Mindful and respectful listening, mindful and respectful speaking.
- (2) As a “saver”, a sentence like *That's how we say (in my country)* ['ðæts haʊ wi: 'seɪ ɪn 'maɪ 'kʌntri] can be inserted or added. This signals the interlocutor that the speaker is just transferring his or her own conventions into Global English. Another way is to say directly: *I think there is a misunderstanding* [aɪ 'θɪŋk ðeər ɪz ə 'mɪsʌndərstændɪŋ].
- (3) A positive atmosphere is created if positive words are used. This holds even true for complaints. If you want to stay polite, then it is advisable that you use the positive element of antonymic word-pairs. Instead of *good—bad* [gʊd bæd] it is better to use *good—not good* or (still more polite) *good—not so good* ['nɒt səʊ gʊd].
- (4) Terms of address: In the field of personal pronouns, English (in contrast to many other languages in the world) only has *you* [ju:], both as a formal and as an informal pronoun, both for one addressee and for several addressees. Apart from this, there are a number of “neutral titles”, e.g. *sir* [sɜ:r], *Mr.* ['mɪstər] (when addressing male adults), *madam* ['mædəm] or *mam* [mæm], *Ms.* [mɪz] (when addressing female adults). *Mr.* and *Ms.* can also be used in connection with the family names. Besides, there are professional titles like *President* and academic titles like *Professor*. If you introduce yourself for the first time you should say your full given and family name as well as your title and then say (indirectly or directly) if the interlocutor can or should neglect the title (e.g. “I am the president. My name is Dr. Paul Miller. You can call me Paul.” in contrast to “I am President Dr. Paul Miller.”; in the latter instance the interlocutor will use a very formal term of address like “President”). If you are not sure about how to address someone else you can ask this person: “So what would be the right way to call you?” [səʊ 'wɒt wʊd bi: ðə 'raɪt weɪ tʊ 'kɔ:l ju:]. A neutral greeting term is *Hello* [he'ləʊ] (informally also *Hi* [haɪ]), a neutral leave-taking term is *Good-bye* [gʊd'baɪ] (informally also *Bye*). After *Hello* it would be polite to ask the other person *How are you?* [haʊ 'a: ju:]; but in general you just expect the answer *Fine* [faɪn] and not an extended “honest” account. Letters can be opened with *Dear* + name (or + *madam/sir*, if the name is not known). Informal letters can also be opened with *Hi* + name. A letter can be closed with *Best wishes* or, if the letter is formal, with *Best regards*, or *Yours truly*, + signature.
- (5) Especially with critical topics you need to make sure that you have understood an utterance by your interlocutor. This may be done with the following phrases: *So do I understand you correctly that you want me do the following: ...* or *So do I understand you correctly that we should do the following:* With criticals topics you also want to make sure that your interlocutor has understood your utterance. This can be done the following way: *I am not sure if my explanation was good enough. Could you tell me in your words what you think I wanted to say?* If you use words that are unknown to your interlocutor, be ready to paraphrase words with the techniques given in the Vocabulary section under point 5 (2). Normally you should not use figurative language, because some cultures may not understand your images. However, if you want to use figurative language for explanation, say: *This is like...* or *This is similar to ...*
- (6) Questions and requests should not just be formed as simple interrogative or imperative sentences. The word *please* should always be added at the end. Moreover, a request should be formulated as an interrogative, not as an imperative sentence. Example: Instead of *Open the window!* it is more polite to say *Could you open the window,*

please? [kʊd ju: 'ʊpən ðə 'wɪndəʊ plɪ:z]. If need be, you have to state explicitly that you're not uttering an order, but a request: *I wanted to say a request, not an order.* Besides, a conversation that is started in order to ask something from the other person should be started with the words *Excuse me, ...*. The same holds true if you want to complain or express that you disagree. In the former case, you can say: *When you do this, I feel sad, because my need for autonomy/health/beauty/leisure is not satisfied. Would you be ready to do the following?* [wən ju 'du: 'ðɪs aɪ fi:l 'sæd br'kɔ:z maɪ 'ni:d fɔr ɔ:'tɒnəmi 'helθ 'bjʊ:ti 'leɪzər ɪz nɒt 'sætɪsfaɪd wʊd ju bi 'redi tʊ 'du: ðə 'fɒləʊɪŋ]. In the latter case, this can be done with the words *I don't think so* ['aɪ daʊnt 'θɪŋk səʊ] or *I don't agree* [aɪ 'daʊnt ə'gri:] (instead of *don't* the form *do not* is also possible).

- (7) With the words *Sorry* or *I am sorry* [aɪ əm 'sɔ:ri] you apologize for a small and big “offense” you've committed. It is already a small offense if you come too close to somebody. You respond to the phrase (*I am*) *sorry* with the words *That is* [or *That's*] *OK* [ðæts ʊ'keɪ] or *No problem* ['nəʊ 'prɒbləm]. If you feel that there was a true offense, then you may want to ask: *Please tell me if I have hurt you in any way. This was not what I wanted. I am sorry that this has hurt you.* [pli:z 'tel mi ɪf aɪ hæv 'hɜ:rt ju ɪn eni 'weɪ ...]
- (8) Offers should be accepted with *Yes, please. (Thank you.)* or refused with *No, thank you.* For all positive things that others do to you you should say *Thank you* or—for relatively big positive things—*Thank you very much* ['θæŋk ju: ,veri 'mʌtʃ].
- (9) In a case of emergency you should shout *Help!* [help] or *Fire!* [faɪər].
- (10) Small Talk: Safe topics for international small talk are the weather, (positive) travel experiences and sports. You should avoid religion, politics, sexuality and questions that are too private (asking for the professional position is okay, though). You should also avoid jokes. Humor differs a lot between countries. If you have made a joke or a funny remark, you can add the phrase *as we say in my country* or *as we could say in my country* as a “saver”. You should also watch out when paying compliments: you can compliment a gift or the meal of your host; other things should only be complimented if you know that this is common in the host country. For international settings, you should say thank you for a compliment (and give back a similar one). (But in general, reactions to compliments vary from culture to culture.)
- (11) You should seek that you and your interlocutor's share of talking should be roughly equal. If the interlocutor says too little, this may be due to the fact that you've given him/her not enough chances, e.g. because the pauses after your contribution was too short (in some cultures pauses after a conversational turn can be comparatively long).
- (12) Finally, a remark on non-verbal conversational elements: Rules for body distance and eye contact can differ very much from culture to culture. Trained “international” speakers should make sure that the interlocutor does not feel uneasy.

Basic Vocabulary and Paraphrasing Techniques

The vocabulary is the most crucial point in communication. Especially problematic are (a) lexical gaps, (b) “serious” false friends”, (c) metaphorical expressions (that mustn’t be interpreted word-for-word). Because of (a) BGE focusses on the development of a basic vocabulary with word-formation and paraphrasing techniques (Section 2, 1, 5) and an individual word-stock (Section 3) at the same time. Because of (b) it includes a list of “dangerous” false friends (Section 2) and pseudo-Anglicisms (Section 1). The vocabulary should be acquired in parallel to the grammar rules in the next chapter.

1. Internationally Known Words and Internationalisms

Each learner should be aware that he already knows a lot of international words that are of English descent or that are of different descent but are also known in English. These words are international because they denote international things or because they occur in names of internationally known things or because we know them from international media. Examples of such English words are:

airport, basic(s), boss, brunch, business, CD, center, city, college, company, date, dinner, doctor, DVD, e-mail, exit, fax, film, (ham)burger, Internet, lunch, OK/okay, party, restaurant, sandwich, service, start, stop, (tele)phone, TV, university, video

Words from other languages, but well known in English are, for instance:

kebab, modern, postmodern, museum, pizza, police, sake, spaghetti, sushi, vodka, whisky

[It might be useful in languages that share a lot of internationalisms with English to compare the formation of internationalisms in both languages. This will enable the learner to build other words not included in this list as well. Words to be dealt with can be:

logical [ˈlɒdʒɪkəl]
philosophical [fɪləˈsɒfɪkəl]
economic [ɪkəˈnɒmɪk], economical
philosophy, biology [frɪˈlɒsəfi baɪˈɒlədʒi]
variation, nation [væriˈeɪʃən ˈneɪʃən]
variable [ˈværiəbl]
national [ˈnæʃənəl]
professional [prəˈfeʃənəl]
university, quality [jʊniˈvɜːsɪti ˈkwɒləti]
mathematics, arithmetics, physics [mæθəˈmætɪks əˈrɪθmətɪks ˈfɪzɪks]
logic, rhetoric [ˈlɒdʒɪk ˈretərɪk]
telephone [ˈtelɪfoʊn]
microphone [ˈmaɪkrəfoʊn]
mathematician [mæθəməˈtɪʃən]
physicist [ˈfɪzɪsɪst]
biologist [baɪˈɒlədʒɪst]

artist ['ɑ:tɪst]
theater (theatre) ['θi:ətər]
author, monitor

The existence of such lexical equivalents may be different from language to language.]

2. BGE Basic Vocabulary

The words are grouped in various conceptual fields and sub-fields. Sometimes a word has more than one meaning² so that it also occurs in more than one conceptual field (but each

² [Here is the alphabetical list of the 750 words that also marks polysemies—I have not specifically marked that some words are used in different word-classes: *able, accept, accident* ('unexpected event (esp. one causing damage)'), *accuse, act, add, address, admit, advise, afraid, afternoon, again, agree, aim, air, alive, all, allergic, allow, almost, alone, already, also, always, angry, animal, any, answer, apartment, appear, apple, apply, April, arm* ('body-part; weapon'), *arrive, art, ask* ('question; request'), *attach, attack, August, autumn, away, back, bad, bag, bake, ball, bargain, be, beach, beautiful, become, bed, begin, believe, belt, big, bike, bill* ('request for payment; money'), *bird, birth, bitter, black, block, blood, blue, board, boat, body, bomb, book* ('text; arrange to have'), *born, borrow, both, bottle, bottom, bowl, box, boy, bread, break* ('damage; divide; interrupt'), *breast, breath, bring, brother, brown, build, bus, bush, buy, cake, call* ('shout; ring; name; telephone conversation'), *camp, car, card, care, carry, case* ('problem; situation; container'), *cat, cause, celebrate, cereal, certain, chair* ('piece of furniture; head of a board'), *chance* ('occasion; unexpected event'), *change, check, cheese, chicken, child, choose, chop, circle, class, clean, clear* ('obvious; bright'), *clever, clock, close* ('shut; near'), *cloth/clothes, coat, coffee, cold* ('not warm; illness'), *color, come, company, complain, complete, concern* ('problem; worry'), *concert, condition, connect, consider, cook, cope, copy, corner, cost, count, country, course* ('class; development'), *court, crash, cream, cross, cup, cupboard, cut, dance, danger, dare, dark, date, daughter, day, dead, deal with, December, decide, deep, defend, depend on, destroy, develop, dictionary, die, difference, different, difficult, dirty, dish, divide, do, dog, door, dot, dream, dress, drink, drive, dry, each, ear, early, earth, east, easy, eat, education, effect* ('consequence; influence'), *egg, eight, elect, element, else, embassy, emergency, empty, end* ('finish; intention'), *enemy, enough, environment, even, evening, ever, every, example, excuse, exercise* ('physical and mental'), *expensive, experience, eye, face, fact, fair* ('just; blond'), *fall* ('move down; autumn'), *false, familiar, family, far, farm, fast, father, fault* ('guilt; defect'), *favorite, fear, feature, February, feel, few, field, fight, fill in, find, fine* ('pretty; thin'), *finger, fire* ('flames; shoot; dismiss from one's job'), *fish, five, fix, floor, flower, follow, food, foot, force, foreign, forest, forget, form, four, free, fresh, Friday, friend, front, fruit, fuel, full, fun, future, game, garden, general, get* ('receive; take; become'), *girl, give, glass/glasses, go, goal, gold, good, govern, grass, great, green, grey, ground, group, grow* ('plant; develop in a concrete sense; develop in an abstract sense'), *guest, guide* (person + book), *guilty, gun, habit, hair, hand, happen, happy, hard, harm, hat, hate, have, head* ('body-part; leader'), *healthy, hear, heart, heavy, help* ('aid; give/take'), *here, high, history, hobby, hold, holiday, home, honest, honey, hope, horse, hospital, hot, hour, house, how, human, hundred, hungry, hunt, hurt* ('injure; cause pain; feel pain'), *husband, ice, idea, ill, important, increase, insect, instrument, interest* ('involvement; money'), *invite, jacket, January, job, joke, judge, juice, July, jump, June, just* ('fair; recently; only'), *keep* ('preserve; continue'), *key* ('for a door lock; on a musical instrument; on a computer'), *kill, kind (of), kiss, knee, knife, know, knowledge, lake, language, large, last* ('final; continue'), *late, laugh, law, lawyer, lead, learn, leave, left, leg, lend, let, letter, lie* ('be in horizontal position; say not the truth'), *life, lift* ('elevator; raise'), *light* ('bright; not heavy; flame; cause burning'), *like* ('similar to; love'), *line, list, listen, little, live, long, look* ('see; appear'), *lose, lot, love, low, luck, machine, mainly, maize, make, man, many, map, March, market, marry, match, May, meal, mean* ('denote; evil; not generous'), *meat, medicine* ('the discipline; substance'), *meet, milk, mind* ('memory; reason'), *minus, minute, mirror, mistake, misunderstanding, mix, moment, Monday, money, month, moon, more ... than, morning, mother, mountain, mouth, move, much, music, name, nation, natural, neck, need, never, new(s), next, nice, night, nine, no, north, nose, nothing, November, now, number, October, off* ('not switched on; away from' [the use as a preposition is listed in the grammar chapter]), *offer, often, old, on, once, one, only, open, order, origin, other, own, package, pain, paint, pair, paper* ('material; presentation; medium'), *park, part, partner, passport, past, pay, peace, pen, people, per cent, perhaps, person, pharmacy, picture, piece, place, plan, plane, plate, play, please, plus, pocket, point, police, poor, popular, position, possible, post office, pot, potato, power* ('physical energy; administrative energy; electric energy'), *practical, practice, present* ('now; gift; show'), *price, print, prison, private, probable, problem, program, promise, pronounce, protect (from), public, pull, punish, push, put, quality, question, quite, rain, rather, reach* ('achieve/grab'), *read, ready, real,*

entry contains all meanings). [The conceptual fields comprehend 4 columns. In Column 1 the English word is given, in Column 2 the pronunciation, Column 3 is reserved for grammatical irregularities (which concerns the words marked with an asterisk), in Column 4 the meaning is given (together with the word-class – cf. also the grammar chapter). On the grammatical categories cf. also the grammar sections, i.e. Section (2) for “Plural”, Section (8) for “Past Tense Forms”, Section (6) for “Present Tense Forms”, Section (14) for “Adverbs”, Section (15) for “Comparative/Superlative”.]

(1) I

life* [laɪf]	foreign ['fɔːrɪn]	have [hæv]
name [neɪm]	single ['sɪŋɡl]	smoke [smoʊk]
born [bɔːrn]	religion [rɪ'lɪdʒən]	change [tʃeɪndʒ]
birth [bɜːrθ]	passport ['pɑːspɔːrt]	plan [plæn]
year [jɪər]	[pæːspɔːrt]	want [wɒnt]
old [oʊld]	language ['læŋɡwɪdʒ]	wish [wɪʃ]
country ['kʌntri]	tongue; mother tongue [tʌŋ]	own [aʊn]
nation ['neɪʃən]	['mʌðətʌŋ]	

Important sentences:

My name is ...

What is your name?

How old are you?

I am ...

I live in ...

(2) Emergency

emergency [ɪ'mɜːrdʒənsi]	help [help]	cope (with) [kəʊp]
toilet ['tɔɪlət]	need [niːd]	trouble [trʌbl]
police [pəʊ'liːs]	protect (from) [prəʊ'tekt	from]

reason ('explanation; judgement'), , *red, refer, regard(s)* ('view; refer; greetings'), *religion, rely on, remember, rent, report, responsible, result, retire, rice, rich, ride, right* ('not left; not wrong; permission'), *river, road, room* ('place/space'), *round, rule, run* ('go fast; last'), *sad, salad, salt, same, satisfied, Saturday, sausage, save, say, school, science, scissors, sea, secret, see, seem, sell, send, sense* ('meaning; reason'), *separate, September, set* ('put; collection; tool (of several elements); group; ready; fixed'), *seven, several, shake, shirt, shoe, shop, short, show, side, sign* ('mark; to write one's signature'), *signature, silent, silver, similar, simple, sing, single* ('not married; only; separate/individual'), *sister, sit, six, size, skill, sleep, slow, small, smell, smile, smoke, snow, so, society, soft, solve, some, son, song, soon, sound, soup, south, speak, special, spell, sport, spot, spring, square* ('with four sides of equal length/place'), *stairs, stand, star, state* ('say/claim; condition; state'), *station, stay, steal, step, still* ('motionless; continued'), *stomach, stone, story, straight ahead, strange, street, strong, student, study, such, sugar, suggest* ('propose; think'), *summer, sun, Sunday, sure, surprise, sweet, swim, system, table, take, talk* ('conversation; presentation'), *tall, task, taste* ('sense; attempt'), *tea, teach, team, tell, ten, terrible, test, thank, theater, then, there, thin, thing, think, thirsty, thousand, three, throat, Thursday, time(s), tired, today, together, toilet, tomato, tomorrow, tongue* ('language; body-part'), *too, tool, tooth, top, topic, touch, toy, traffic, train, translate, trash* ('garbage; nonsense; destroy'), *travel, treat, tree, trip, trouble, trousers, true, truth, try, Tuesday, turn* ('change of direction; opportunity; duty'), *two, understand, use, usual, valuable, vegetable, very, view* ('opinion; sight'), *visit, wait, wake, wall, want, war, warm, warn, wash, watch, water, way* ('route; technique'), *weak, weapon, weather, Wednesday, week, welcome, west, wet, what, when, where, which, white, who, whole, why, wife, win, wind, window, winter, wish, woman, wonderful, wood, word, work, world, worry, write, wrong, year, yellow, yes, yesterday, yogurt, young, zero.*]

accident ['æksɪdɪnt]	danger ['deɪndʒə]	allergic [ə'lɜːrdʒɪk]
fall* [fɔːl]	enemy ['enəmi]	pain [peɪn]
crash [kræʃ]	gun [ɡʌn]	cold [kəʊld]
fix [fɪks]	fire [faɪə]	hospital ['hɒspɪtəl]
fight [faɪt]	attack [ə'tæk]	pharmacy ['fɑːrməsi]
bomb [bɒm]	hurt* [hɜːrt]	medicine ['medɪsən]
arm [ɑːrm]	steal* [stiːl]	ill [ɪl]
destroy [dɪ'strɔɪ]	mean [miːn]	healthy [helθi]
law [lɔː]	judge [dʒʌdʒ]	defend [dɪ'fend]
rule [ruːl]	lawyer ['lɔɪə]	fault [fɔːlt]
court [kɔːrt]	accuse [ə'kjuːz]	embassy ['embəsi]

Important sentences:

Help!

Fire!

My arm is hurting./My arm hurts.

I don't (or do not) feel well.

I am not well.

I am OK.

(3) General Useful Words

be* [biː]	get* [get]	bring* [brɪŋ]
seem [siːm]	let* [let]	carry ['kæri]
appear [ə'piə]	keep* [kiːp]	put* [pʊt]
become* [brɪ'kʌm]	force (to) [fɔːrs]	set* [set]
do* [duː]	dare [deə]	wait [weɪt]
make* [meɪk]	hold* [həʊld]	connect [kə'nekt]
cause [kɔːz]	happen ['hæpən]	fill (in) [fɪl ɪn]
develop [dɪ'veləp] [-'ləp]	depend (on) [dɪ'pend ɒn]	
kind (of) [kaɪnd ɒv]	origin ['ɒrɪdʒɪn]	element ['eləmənt]
thing [θɪŋ]	end [end]	dot [dɒt]
act ['ækt]	aim (at) [eɪm]	spot [spɒt]
system ['sɪstəm]	chance [tʃɑːns] [tʃæːns]	condition [kən'dɪʃən]
effect [ɪ'fekt]	case [keɪs]	
great [ɡreɪt]	real [riəl]	such [sʌtʃ]
wonderful ['wʌndərfʊl]	separate (from) ['sepəreɪt]	quite [kwaɪt]
important [ɪm'pɔːrtənt]	away (from) [ə'weɪ]	rather ['rɑːðə] ['ræðə]
main ['meɪnli]	usual ['juːʒuəl]	even ['iːvən]
possible ['pɒsɪbl]	also [ɔːlsəʊ]	general ['dʒenərəl]
probable ['prɒbəbl]	too [tuː]	special ['speʃəl]
sure [ʃʊə]	enough (of) [ɪ'nʌf]	secret ['siːkrət]
certain ['sɜːrtən]	very ['veri]	still [stɪl]
	so [səʊ]	
remember [rɪ'membə]	forget* [fɔːr'get]	pull [pʊl]

push [pʊʃ]
 same [seɪm]
 different (from) [ˈdɪfərənt]

similar (to) [ˈsɪmɪləɹ]
 heavy [ˈhevi]
 light [laɪt]

private [ˈpraɪvət]
 public [ˈpʌblɪk]

what [wɒt]
 who [huː]
 which [wɪtʃ]

where [weəɹ]
 when [wen]
 how [haʊ]

why [waɪ]

(4) Family and Friends

family [ˈfæməli]
 father [ˈfɑːðəɹ]
 mother [ˈmʌðəɹ]
 brother [ˈbrʌðəɹ]
 sister [ˈsɪstəɹ]

wife* [waɪf]
 husband [ˈhʌzbənd]
 marry [ˈmæri]
 child* [tʃaɪld]
 son [sʌn]

daughter [ˈdɔːtəɹ]
 friend [frend]
 guest [gest]
 partner [ˈpɑːtnəɹ]

die [daɪ]

dead [ded]

alive [əˈlaɪv]

invite (to) [ɪnˈvaɪt]
 stay [steɪ]
 give* [gɪv]
 present [ˈprezənt]
 package [ˈpækɪdʒ]

surprise [səɹˈpraɪz]
 favorite [ˈfeɪvərɪt]
 familiar [fəˈmɪliəɹ]
 care (for) [keəɹ]
 rely (on) [rɪˈlaɪ ɒn]

true [truː]
 truth [truːθ]
 kiss [kɪs]
 match [mætʃ]

(5) Humans and Human Features

person [ˈpɜːrsən]
 people [ˈpiːpl]
 group [gruːp]
 society [səˈsaɪəti]
 human* [ˈhjuːmən]

man* [mæn]
 woman* [ˈwʊmən]
 boy [bɔɪ]
 girl [gɜːrl]
 quality [ˈkwɒləti]

feature [ˈfi:tʃəɹ]
 habit [ˈhæbɪt]
 fault [fɔːlt]

old [əʊld]
 young [jʌŋ]
 tall [tɔːl]
 small [smɔːl]
 popular [ˈpɒpjʊləɹ]
 good* (at – for) [gʊd]
 bad* [bæd]
 nice [naɪs]
 terrible [ˈterɪbl]

mean [miːn]
 beautiful [ˈbjuːtɪfʊl]
 clever [ˈklevəɹ]
 fair [feəɹ]
 fine [faɪn]
 healthy [ˈhelθi]
 strong [strɒŋ]
 weak [wiːk]
 soft [sɒft]

thin [θɪn]
 rich [rɪtʃ]
 poor [pɔːr]
 honest [ˈɒnəst]
 just [dʒʌst]
 able (to) [ˈeɪbl]
 simple [ˈsɪmpl]
 strange [streɪndʒ]

(6) Talking and Writing

talk (about) [tɔːk]
 say* [seɪ]
 speak* (about) [spiːk]
 listen (to) [ˈlɪsən]
 call [kɔːl]

meet* [miːt]
 tell* (about) [tel]
 translate [ˈtrænzˈleɪt]
 understand* [ˌʌndəɹˈstænd]
 clear [klɪəɹ]

misunderstanding
 [ˌmɪsʌndəɹˈstændɪŋ]

letter ['letər] card [kɑ:rd]	write* [raɪt] print [prɪnt] attach [ə'tætʃ]	report [rɪ'pɔ:rt] list [lɪst]
think* (of/about) [θɪŋk] believe (in) [bɪ'li:v] suggest [sə'dʒest] warn (of) [wɔ:rn]	promise ['prɒmɪs] accept [æk'sept] admit [əd'mɪt] advise [əd'vaɪz]	advice [əd'vaɪs] agree (with) [ə'grɪ:] allow [ə'laʊ]
word [wɜ:rd] mean* [mi:n]	sense [sens] pronounce [prəʊ'nɑ:ns]	spell [spel]
question ['kwɛstʃən] ask (for) [ɑ:sk] [æsk] answer ['ɑ:nsə] [ʔænsə] topic ['tɒpɪk] deal* with [di:l wɪð] treat [tri:t] concern [kɒn'sɜ:n]	point [pɔɪnt] story ['stɔ:ri] new; news [nju:]; [nju:z] fact [fækt] lie [laɪ] state [steɪt] view [vju:]	consider [kən'sɪdər] regard [rɪ'gɑ:rd] refer (to) [rɪ'fɜ:r] reason ['ri:zən] cause [kɔ:z] joke [dʒoʊk] laugh [lɑ:f] [læ:f]
yes [jes]	no [nəʊ]	perhaps [pər'hæps]
welcome ['welkəm] [-kʌm] excuse (for) [ek'skju:s] [ek'skju:z]	please [pli:z] thank [θæŋk] regards [rɪ'gɑ:rdz]	luck [lʌk]

Important sentences (cf. also Chapter 2: Elementary Politeness Strategies):

Welcome!

(Best) regards!

Thank you!

Good luck!

... please

Excuse me...

I think that ...

In my view ...

(7) Numbers and Quantities

zero ['ziərəʊ]	five* [faɪv]	ten [ten]
one* [wʌn]	six [sɪks]	hundred ['hʌndrəd]
two* [tu:]	seven ['sevən]	thousand ['θaʊzənd]
three* [θri:]	eight [eɪt]	
four* [fɔ:r]	nine [naɪn]	

Numbers 11-19 are built by adding *-teen*, e.g. *sixteen* (save 11, 12, 13, 15). Decads are built by adding *-ty*, e.g. *sixty* (save 20, 30, 50). Otherwise the positions within numbers are said from left to right, e.g. 264 = *two hundred (and) sixty-four*. We can distinguish between cardinal numerals (“1, 2, 3”) and ordinal numerals (“1st, 2nd, 3rd”). With cardinals higher than 3, the

ordinals are formed by attaching *th* to the cardinal, e.g. *four—fourth*. The ordinals of the first three numbers are: *one—first, two—second, three—third*. Instead of the construction “ordinal + noun” (e.g. *second man*) the construction “noun + number + cardinal” can be used (e.g. *man number two*). If there are only two of a kind, you can say (*the*) *one ... the other*. For the last element, you can also use the word *last*.

other ['ʌðər] last [lɑ:st] [læ:st] else [els]

The amount of occurrences can be indicated with the word *time(s)*, e.g. *one time, two times, three times*. For *one time there* is also the form *once*, for *two times* there is also *twice*.

time, times [taɪm] [taɪmz] once [wʌns]

More important words in this conceptual field:

nothing ['nʌθɪŋ]	piece [pi:s]	size [saɪz]
any ['eni]	part [pɑ:rt]	per cent [pɜ:r'sent]
some [sʌm]	whole [həʊl]	only ['əʊnli]
pair [peər]	all [ɔ:l]	almost ['ɔ:lmoʊst]
few* [fju:]	both [bəʊθ]	increase ['ɪnkri:s]
little* ['lɪtl]	together [tə'geðər] [tʊ'--]	[ɪn'kri:s]
several ['sevərəl]	each [i:tʃ]	add [æd]
much* [mʌtʃ]	every ['evri]	full [fʊl]
many* ['meni]	mathematics [ˌmæθə'mætiks]	empty ['empti]
lot [lɒt]	number ['nʌmbər]	more ... than [mɔ:r ðæn]

(8) Date, Time, Calendar

day [deɪ]	evening ['i:vnɪŋ]	afternoon [æftər'nu:n] ~ a:ftər'nu:n]
morning ['mɔ:rnɪŋ]	night [naɪt]	
minute ['mɪnɪt]	week [wi:k]	year [jɪər]
hour [aʊər]	month [mʌnθ]	date [deɪt]
Monday ['mʌndeɪ]	Thursday ['θɜ:rzdeɪ]	Sunday ['sʌndeɪ]
Tuesday ['tju:zdeɪ]	Friday ['fraɪdeɪ]	
Wednesday ['wenzdeɪ]	Saturday ['sætərdeɪ]	
January ['dʒænjʊəri]	May [meɪ]	September [sep'tembər]
February ['februəri]	June [dʒu:n]	October [ɒk'təʊbər]
March [mɑ:rtʃ]	July [dʒʊ'laɪ]	November [nəʊ'vembər]
April ['eɪprəl]	August ['ɔ:gəst]	December [dɪ'sembər]
spring [sprɪŋ]	autumn, fall ['ɔ:təm], [fɔ:l]	
summer ['sʌmər]	winter ['wɪntər]	
today [tʊ'deɪ]	now [naʊ]	present ['prezənt]-[prɪ'zent]
yesterday ['jestərdeɪ]	then [ðen]	past [pɑ:st] ~ [pæ:st]
tomorrow [tʊ'mɒrəʊ]	ever ['evər]	future ['fju:tʃər]

soon [su:n]	moment ['moumənt]	
never ['nevər]	again [ə'geɪn] [ə'geɪn]	late [leɪt]
often ['ɒftən] ['ɒfən]	already [ɔ:l'reɪdi]	last [lɑ:st] [læ:st]
always ['ɔ:lweɪz]	early ['ɜ:rlɪ]	begin [brɪ'gɪn]

The date can be given in the form *January 1, 2006* – both in spoken and in written language; in spoken language you can also say “the first of January”.

Other important sentences:

What time is it?

It is 12:15.

It is 12 (o'clock [ə'klɒk])

What day is it?

What date is it?

It is Monday.

It is January 1.

(9) Food

drink* [drɪŋk]	tea [ti:]	juice [dʒu:s]
water ['wɔ:tər]	milk [mɪlk]	coffee ['kɒfi]
eat* [i:t]	cereal ['sɪəriəl]	chop [tʃɒp]
food [fu:d]	maize [meɪz]	sausage ['sɒsɪdʒ]
bread [bred]	potato [pə'teɪtəʊ]	salad ['sæləd]
fruit [fru:t]	rice [raɪs]	soup [su:p]
apple ['æpəl]	egg [eg]	salt [sɔ:lt]
tomato [tə'meɪtəʊ]	cake [keɪk]	sugar ['ʃʊgər]
vegetable ['vedʒətəbl]	honey ['hʌni]	cream [kri:m]
cheese [tʃi:z]	meat [mi:t]	yogurt ['jɔ:gərt]
sweet [swi:t]	fresh [frefʃ]	cold [kəʊld]
bitter ['bɪtər]	hot [hɒt]	healthy ['helθi]
thirsty ['θɜ:rsti]	hungry ['hʌŋgri]	
knife* [naɪf]	bowl [bəʊl]	pot [pɒt]
plate [pleɪt]	glass [glɑ:s] [glæs]	
bottle ['bɒtl]	cup [kʌp]	
dish [dɪʃ]	cook [kʊk]	mix [mɪks]
meal [mi:l]	bake [beɪk]	

(10) Clothes

cloth; clothes [klɒθ]; [klaʊðz]	dress [dres]
cut [kʌt]	look [lʊk]

hat [hæt]	pocket ['pɒkɪt]	belt [belt]
shirt [ʃɜ:t]	coat [kəʊt]	shoe [ʃu:]
jacket ['dʒækɪt]	trousers ['traʊzəz]	
big [bɪg]	short [ʃɔ:t]	size [saɪz]
small [smɔ:l]	long [lɒŋ]	

In several countries, the following sizes are distinguished (from small to large):
S (small) – M (medium) – L (large) – XL (extra-large)

small [smɔ:l]	large [lɑ:rdʒ]
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(11) Living in the House

address [ə'dres] ['ædrəs]	key [ki:]	bed [bed]
house [haʊs]	stairs [steərz]	cupboard ['kʌbɔ:d]
home [həʊm]	room [ru:m]	clock [klɒk]
apartment [ə'pɑ:rtmənt]	window ['wɪndəʊ]	box [bɒks]
floor [flɔ:r]	wall [wɔ:l]	mirror ['mɪrər]
door [dɔ:r]	table ['teɪbl]	lift [lɪft]
	chair [tʃeər]	power ['paʊər]
build* [bɪld]	sleep [sli:p]	wash [wɒʃ]
rent [rent]	wake(*) up [weɪk ʌp]	clean [kli:n]
live [lɪv]	sit [sɪt]	

trash [træʃ]	dirty ['dɜ:rtɪ]
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(12) Colors

color [kʌlə]	brown [braʊn]	red [red]
black [blæk]	green [grɪn]	white [waɪt]
blue [blu:]	grey, gray [greɪ]	yellow ['jeləʊ]

(13) At School and University

education [ˌedʒʊ'keɪʃən]	practice ['præktɪs]	pen [pen]
school [sku:l]	task [tɑ:sk] [tæsk]	scissors ['sɪsəz]
student ['stju:dənt]	complete [kəm'pli:t]	board [bɔ:rd]
class [klɑ:s] [klæs]	difference ['dɪfərəns]	result [rɪ'zʌlt]
course [kɔ:rs]	problem ['prɒbləm]	match [mætʃ]
study ['stʌdi]	solve [sɒlv]	right [raɪt]
learn [lɜ:n]	idea [aɪ'diə]	wrong [rɒŋ]
teach* [ti:tʃ]	test [test]	false [fɔ:ls]
example [ɪg'zɑ:mpəl] [eg's- [ɪk's-] [ek's] [-æmpl]	easy ['i:zi]	mistake [mɪ'steɪk]
read* [ri:d]	difficult ['dɪfɪkəlt]	language ['læŋgwɪdʒ]
write* [raɪt]	hard [hɑ:rd]	dictionary ['dɪkʃənəri]
exercise ['eksəsaɪz]	paper ['peɪpər]	table ['teɪbl]
	line [laɪn]	history ['hɪstəri]

science [saɪəns]	plus [plʌs]	circle ['sɜ:rkɪl]
mathematics [ˌmæθə'mætiks]	minus ['maɪnəs]	round [raʊnd]
count; count up [kaʊnt]; [kaʊnt 'ʌp]	divide [dɪ'vaɪd]	square [skweə]
	form [fɔ:rm]	break* [breɪk]

Basic Mathematics

1 + 2 = 3	1 plus 2 is 3
1 - 2 = -1	1 minus 2 is minus 1
1 × 2 = 2	1 times 2 is 2
1 : 2 = 0.5	1 divided by 2 is 0 point 5

(14) At Work

work [wɜ:rk]	letter ['letər]	off [ɒf]
job [dʒɒb]	skill [skɪl]	use [ju:s]-[ju:z]
farm [fɑ:rm]	experience [ɪk'spɪəriəns]	practical ['præktɪkəl]
company ['kʌmpəni]	responsible [rɪ'spɒnsəbl]	copy ['kɒpi]
team [ti:m]	machine [mə'ʃi:n]	report (on) [rɪ'pɔ:rt]
position [pə'zɪʃən]	tool [tu:l]	list [lɪst]
lead* [li:d]	save [seɪv]	check [tʃek]
decide (on) [dɪ'saɪd]	program ['prəʊgræm]	send* [send]
apply (for) [ə'plai]	on [ɒn]	attach [ə'tætʃ]

retire [rɪ'taɪər]

(15) Hobbies, Free Time

hobby ['hɒbi]	sing* [sɪŋ]	sport; sports [spɔ:rt]; [spɔ:rts]
interest ['ɪntrəst]	song [sɒŋ]	jump [dʒʌmp]
like [laɪk]	dance [dɑ:ns] [dæ:ns]	swim [swɪm]
please [pli:z]	ball [bɔ:l]	game [geɪm]
fun [fʌn]	concert ['kɒnsərt]	goal [gəʊl]
holiday ['hɒlɪdeɪ]	show* [ʃəʊ]	toy [tɔɪ]
music ['mjuzɪk]	theater ['θɪətər]	card [kɑ:rd]
sound [saʊnd]	book [bʊk]	beach [bi:tʃ]
play [pleɪ]	paint [peɪnt]	camp [kæmp]
instrument ['ɪnstrʊmənt]	picture ['pɪktʃər]	celebrate ['seləbreɪt]
key [ki:]	visit ['vɪzɪt]	

Important sentences:

What are your hobbies?

I like playing football.

(16) Feelings

feel* [fi:l]	happy ['hæpi]	angry (with) ['æŋgri]
state [steɪt]	satisfied ['sætɪsfɑɪd]	sad [sæd]
love [lʌv]	smile [smɪl]	alone [ə'ləʊn]
like [laɪk]	hate [heɪt]	tired [taɪəd]

worry ['wʌri]
concern [kɒn'sɜ:n]

afraid (of) [ə'freɪd]
fear [fiə]

hope [həʊp]
dream [dri:m]

Important sentences:

I love you.

I feel happy.

(17) On the Road

road [rəʊd]
street [stri:t]
way [wei]
go* [gəʊ]
come* [kʌm]
arrive [ə'raɪv]
reach [ri:tʃ]
travel ['trævəl]
leave* [li:v]
turn [tɜ:n]
cross [krɒs]

trip [trɪp]
ride* [raɪd]
move [mu:v]
run* [rʌn]
step [step]
drive* [draɪv]
bike [baɪk]
car [kɑ:r]
bus [bʌs]
fuel [fjuəl]
train [treɪn]

station ['steɪʃən]
plane [pleɪn]
boat [bəʊt]
traffic ['træfɪk]
bag ['bæg]
guide [gaɪd]
follow ['fɒləʊ]
fast [fɑ:st] [fæ:st]
slow [sləʊ]

north (of) [nɔ:rθ]
south [saʊθ]
east [i:st]
west [west]
left [left]
right [raɪt]
here [hɪə]
there [ðeə]
side [saɪd]

next [nekst]
corner ['kɔ:mər]
block [blɒk]
straight ahead [streɪt ə'hed]
top [tɒp]
bottom ['bɒtəm]
high [haɪ]
low [ləʊ]

deep [di:p]
front [frʌnt]
back [bæk]
map [mæp]
far (from) [fɑ:r]
place [pleɪs]
square [skweə]
find* [faɪnd]

(18) The Environment

environment [ɪn'vaɪrənmənt]
world [wɜ:ld]
natural ['nætʃərəl]
earth [ɜ:rθ]
ground [graʊnd]
field ['fi:ld]
garden ['gɑ:dən]
grass [grɑ:s] [græs]
park [pɑ:rk]
flower [flaʊə]
cereal ['siəriəl]
bush [bʊʃ]
tree [tri:]

forest ['fɒrɪst]
wood [wʊd]
grow* [grəʊ]
river ['rɪvər]
sea [si:]
lake [leɪk]
mountain ['maʊntən]
ice [aɪs]
sun [sʌn]
moon [mu:n]
star [stɑ:r]
light [laɪt]
clear [kɪlə]
dark [dɑ:rk]

weather ['weðə]
air [eə]
wind [wɪnd]
rain [reɪn]
snow [snəʊ]
hot [hɒt]
warm [wɔ:rm]
cold [kəʊld]
dry [draɪ]
wet [wet]
stone [stəʊn]
silver [sɪlvə]
gold [gəʊld]

(19) Body-Parts

body ['bɒdi]	hear* [hɪər]	take* [teɪk]
head [hed]	listen ['lɪsən]	shake* [ʃeɪk]
mind [maɪnd]	face [feɪs]	finger ['fɪŋgər]
know* [nəʊ]	mouth [maʊθ]	touch [tʌtʃ]
knowledge ['nɒlɪdʒ]	breath [breð]	arm [ɑːrm]
hair [heər]	tongue [tʌŋ]	breast [breɪst]
eye [aɪ]	speak* (about) [spi:k]	heart [hɑːrt]
glasses [glɑːsɪz] [glæːsɪz]	say* [seɪ]	stomach ['stʌmək]
see [siː]	taste [teɪst]	back [bæk]
watch [wɒtʃ]	tooth [tuːθ]	leg [leg]
look [lʊk]	neck [nek]	stand* [stænd]
nose [nəʊz]	throat [θrəʊt]	knee [niː]
smell [smel]	hand [hænd]	foot* [fʊt]
ear [ɪər]	reach [ri:tʃ]	blood [blʌd]

Important sentences:

My arm is hurting./My arm hurts.

(20) Business, Shopping

shop [ʃɒp]	signature ['sɪɡnətʃər]	cost* [kɒst]
company ['kʌmpəni]	sign [saɪn]	interest ['ɪntrəst]
open ['əʊpən]	bargain ['bɑːrgən]	offer ['ɒfər]
close [klaʊz]	pay* (for) [peɪ]	price [praɪs]
market ['mɑːrkt]	buy* [baɪ]	valuable ['væljuəbl]
money ['mʌni]	sell* [sel]	expensive [ek'spensɪv]
post office ['pəʊst'ɒfɪs]	win* [wɪn]	borrow ['bɒrəʊ]
bill [bɪl]	lose* [luːz]	lend* [lend]
card [kɑːrd]	choose* [tʃuːz]	complain (about) [kəm'pleɪn]

Important sentence:

How much is this?

(21) Government

govern ['gʌvərn]	power ['paʊər]	elect [ɪ'lekt]
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(22) Animals

animal ['ænɪməl]	fish* [fɪʃ]	cat [kæt]
hunt [hʌnt]	insect ['ɪnsekt]	chicken ['tʃɪkən]
bird [bɜːrd]	dog [dɒg]	horse [hɔːrs]

3. Individual Word-Stock

Each learner should prepare a personal vocabulary book and **gradually** elaborate two parts with a rather comprehensive dictionary.

Part 1: 150 words that are necessary to talk about one's own life, interests, friends and culture

Part 2: 100 words of another culture the learner is interested in

It is advisable to divide every page of the vocabulary book into 5 columns. In column 1 the English word is noted down, in column 2 the pronunciation and grammatical particularities (if necessary), in column 3 a paraphrase consisting of the words of the Basic Vocabulary in Section 2 (if necessary), column 4 is reserved for a learning aid (if necessary), column 5 for the equivalent in the learner's mother tongue.

P.S.: For on-line dictionaries cf. www.onomasiology.de (> "Helpful Internet Sources").

4. Frequent Conflict-Laden False Friends

[Overviews of "false friends" collections are given by Gorbahn-Orme (1991), Lipczuk (2000) and the constantly updated internet list by Daniel Bunčić (http://www.uni-bonn.de/~dbuncic/ffbib/bib_un.htm). Only the real conflict cases should be dealt with.]

5. Word-Formation Patterns and Paraphrasing Techniques

(1) Word-Formation Techniques

With a number of techniques new words can be built on the basis of the words from the Basic Vocabulary:

- (a) by combining two words (sequence: in English the first word determines the second), e.g. *main street, birthday, home country, front door, computer program, mother tongue* [already listed in the Basic Vocabulary] (the elements are sometimes written as separated words, sometimes as one word, sometimes with a hyphen—however, this is irrelevant for successful communication)
- (b) by using a word in a different word-class—this method, as illustrated several times in the Basic Vocabulary, is very popular and frequent in English and is termed "conversion"; e.g. the words *offer, interest* and *list* from the Basic Vocabulary or *e-mail*, which can also be used as a verb, or *mix*, which can also be used as a noun
- (c) by adding prefixes and suffixes:
 - *er* attached to a verb expresses the Agent of an Action (the Agent can be a human being or a thing), e.g. *dancer, mixer, player, interpreter, driver, baker* (if a verb ends in *e*, only *r* is attached)
 - *ing* attached to a verb expresses the Action in the form of an adjective or a noun, e.g. *cooking, building, painting, interesting*
 - *ment* attached to a verb expresses the Action in the form of a noun or the result of the Action, e.g. *judgement, development, payment*
 - *ness* attached to an adjective expresses the characteristic feature in the form of a noun, e.g. *happiness* (a final *y* in the adjective regularly becomes *i*), *weakness, smallness*
 - *ful* attached to a noun expresses as an adjective that the characteristic feature is present, e.g. *powerful, colorful, helpful*
 - *y* attached to a noun expresses the same as *ful* or that the quality that the adjective describes shows similarity with the quality expressed by the original noun, e.g. *rainy, juicy, silvery*
 - *able* attached to a verb expresses the quality that the Action is possible, e.g. *readable, understandable, solvable, reliable* (*y* becomes *i*)
 - *un, non-* attached to an adjective expresses the opposite of the adjective, e.g. *unhappy*

(2) Paraphrasing Techniques

- If you know the word you need, you should not forget about the usefulness of the words *make, do, be, become, have, cause, thing, person, action, feature* and *quality*.
- In paraphrases and explanations the sequence “superordinate term – particular feature” may be helpful, e.g. *a cat is an animal that eats mice; a piano is an instrument with white and black keys; a piano is the instrument that Duke Ellington and Arthur Rubenstein played.*
- Be careful with metaphorical expressions—if your expressions cannot be understood word-for-word, make sure that your interlocutor really understands what you want to say!

Basic Grammatical Patterns

First, we should keep in mind some recurrent technical terms. In English we distinguish the following word-classes:

Nouns	they denote concrete visible things (e.g. table, man) and abstract things that cannot be grasped (e.g. peace, beauty)
Pronouns	they mostly stand in for nouns
Verbs	they denote through the word activities (e.g. go, love) and descriptions (e.g. stand, shine)
Adjectives	they denote characteristics (e.g. red, light, quiet) and serve for specifying nouns
Adverbs	they serve for specifying verbs, adjectives or other adverbs
Conjunctions	they link sentences and clauses
Prepositions	they introduce phrases with nouns and/or pronouns and signal their function in the sentence (e.g. possessor, goal, adverbial of place, time adverbial etc.)

- (1) The most basic rule of the order of an English sentence is “Agent—Verb—Patient/Object of the Action”, e.g. *Paul loves Paula*. The words for the Agent and the Patient are always in the basic form when they are nouns. In other cases little words called prepositions must be used to clarify the function of a noun or pronoun when it is not the Agent or the Patient/Object of a sentence. Example: *In the morning the father of Paul has written a letter to Paula*. Explanation: *in* introduces a place or a “period”, *of* introduces the “owner”, *to* introduces the “target” or the “beneficiary” of an Action. Instead of the preposition *of*, the owner can also be marked by the attachment of ‘s; however, in this instance the owner is put before the possession. Example: *This is the house of Peter*. = *This is Peter’s house*. The following list presents the most important prepositions. Unfortunately, prepositions in different languages have different semantic ranges. The list indicates the basic meanings, which must not only be understood literally:

<i>of</i> [ɒv]	introduces an “owner” (<i>the father of Paul, the house of Paul</i>), an “affiliation/membership” (<i>the man of the year</i>), a “superordinate whole” (<i>part of the group, a glass of wine</i>), a “characteristic” (<i>a man of friendliness</i>)
<i>from</i> [frɒm]	introduces a “temporal or spatial point of departure” (<i>he came from the park, this e-mail is from last January</i>), a “benefactor/giver” (<i>Paula got a letter from Paul</i>), an “origin” (<i>I am from Germany</i>)
<i>to</i> [tu]	introduces a “temporal or spatial target-point” (<i>he went to the house, from Monday to Friday</i>), a “beneficiary (who is directly involved in the Action described)” (<i>Paul wrote a letter to Paula</i>)
<i>for</i> [fɔːr]	introduces a “purpose/benefit” (<i>I watched the program for my exam</i>), a “beneficiary (who does not directly partake in the Action described)” (<i>Paul wrote a letter for Paula</i> ‘Paul wrote a letter for Paula’)
<i>in</i> [ɪn]	introduces the place you are in (<i>in the house</i>), a “period (except a day)” (<i>in the morning, in (the) summer, in the year 2000</i>)
<i>on</i> [ɒn]	introduces the place you are on (<i>on the table</i>), a “day” (<i>on Monday, on June 6</i>)
<i>at</i> [æt]	introduces the place you are at (<i>at the house</i>), a point of time (<i>at 6 o’clock</i>)
<i>by</i> [baɪ]	introduces a “creator” (<i>the books by Shakespeare</i>) or the deadline of a

- task (*by Friday*)
- with* [wɪð] introduces a “company, escort” (*I went with Paula*), an “instrument” (*Fill this glass with water*), a “possession” (*the man with the golden gun*), an “opposite” (*I never argue with people*)
- against* [ə'geɪnst] introduces an “opponent”, a “resistance, opposition”
- before* [bɪ'fɔːr] introduces a later point of time or the next element in a series (*Sunday comes before Monday*)
- after* ['aftər~'æf-] introduces an earlier point of time or the preceding element in a series (*Monday comes after Sunday*)

Apart from these vague prepositions, there are also quite concrete prepositions that are rather rarely used figuratively:

- during* ['d(j)ʊərɪŋ]
- in front of* [frʌnt]
- next to* [nekst]
- behind* [bɪ'haɪnd]
- opposite* ['ɒpəzɪt]
- into*
- onto*
- out of* [aʊt ɒv]
- up* [ʌp]
- down* [daʊn]
- along* [ə'lɔːŋ]
- across* [ə'krɒs]
- through* [θruː]
- over* ['oʊvər]
- under* ['ʌndər]
- than* [ðæn]
- as ... as* [æz]
- about* [ə'baʊt]
- above* [ə'bʌv]
- ago* [ə'ɡoʊ] (postponed)
- among* [ə'mʌŋ]
- around* [ə'raʊnd]
- below* [bɪ'ləʊ] = *under*
- between* [bɪ'twɪn]
- off* [ɒf]
- towards* [tə'wɔːrɪdz]
- since* [sɪns]
- (un)til* [ʌn'tɪl]
- inside* [ɪnsaɪd]
- outside* [aʊtsaɪd]
- near* [nɪər]

Many prepositions can also be used as adverbs—sometimes in figurative use (e.g. *Wake me up!*). Adverbs are best put at the beginning or at the end of the sentence. Adverbs and combinations with adverbs like *in the morning* and *to Paula* shall be termed “Complements”.

- (2) With nouns we distinguish between (a) forms referring to one item (= singular) and (b) forms referring to more than one item (= plural). With (a) you use the basic form, with (b) you normally write an *s* or, if the word already ends in an *s*-like sound (i.e. [s, z, ʃ,

ʒ], *es* attached to the basic form. This (*e*)*s* is pronounced [ɪz] after an *s*-like sound (*glasses*), [z] after any other voiced sound (*boys, girls*), [s] after any other voiceless sound (*cats*). Important irregularities are: *man* [mæn] > *men* [men], *woman* ['wʊmən] > *women* ['wɪmɪn], *child* [tʃaɪld] > *children* ['tʃɪldrən], *foot* [fʊt] > *feet* [fi:t], *tooth* [tu:θ] > *teeth* [ti:θ].

- (3) Nouns are mostly preceded by one of two adjective-like words, the articles: *the* [ðə, ði] and *a* [ə]. The first one, *the*, precedes the noun (and its accompanying adjectives) when the thing that the noun refers to has already been mentioned or if it only exists once; the second one, *a*, precedes the noun (and its accompanying adjectives) in all other instances. Example: *There is a house. The house is big.* In native English *an* is taken instead of *a* if the pronunciation of the following noun starts with a vowel, e.g. *an apple* [ˈæpəl], *an hour* [aʊər] vs. *a house* [haʊs], *a university* [jʊniˈvɜːrsɪti].
- (4) If you want to speak of persons without using their proper name or a noun, you can use pronouns (= personal pronouns). The English pronouns are *I* [aɪ] ‘speaker, writer, addresser’, *we* [wi:] ‘speakers, addressers’, *you* [ju:] ‘addressee(s)’, *he* [hi:] ‘a third person talked about, male’, *she* [ʃi:] ‘a third person talked about, female’, *it* [ɪt] ‘a third, non-human referent talked about’, *they* [ðeɪ] ‘third, human or non-human things (i.e. more than one) talked about’. In contrast to nouns there are some pronouns which have specific forms if not used in the Agent function (i.e. as a Patient or after a preposition): *I* > *me* [mi(:)], *we* > *us* [ʌs], *he* > *him* [hɪm], *she* > *her* [hɜːr], *they* > *them* [ðəm]. There are no formal changes with *you* and *it*. Examples: *I love you, I love her, she loves him.*
- (5) Apart from the personal pronouns there are also a number of other pronouns:
- the demonstrative pronouns: *this X* [ðɪs] : *that X* [ðæt] ‘the X here’ : ‘the X there’ (plural: *these* [ðiːz] : *those* [ðoʊz]);
 - the possessive (possessor-indicating) pronouns of the personal pronouns: *my* [maɪ] (with *I*), *your* [jɔːr] (with *you*), *his* [hɪs] (with *he*), *her* [hɜːr] (with *she*), *its* [ɪts] (with *it*), *our* [aʊər] (with *we*), *their* [ðeɪr] (with *they*). Example: *This is Peter’s house; it is his house. And this is Paula’s house; it is her house.*
 - the interrogative pronouns: *who* [hu:] (asking for the animate/human Agent, Patient, Beneficiary, etc.), *where* [wɜːr] (asking for the Place), *what* [wɒt] (asking for the inanimate Agent, Object), *why* [waɪ] (asking for the Reason), *when* [wen] (asking for the Time), *how* [haʊ] (asking for the Manner), *which* [wɪtʃ] (asking for the Agent, Patient, Object of a particular group), *whom* [hu:m] (like *who*, but never when asking for the Agent), *whose* [hu:m] (= *of who(m)*)
 - the indefinite pronouns: *any* [ˈeni] and *some* [sʌm] ‘undetermined amount of something’ (e.g. *anyone* = *anybody*; likewise *someone* = *somebody* – Difference: *any* is used in questions and negative sentences, *some* in affirmative sentences)
 - the reciprocal pronoun *each other* [i:tʃ ˈʌðər] ‘[Action done by] A to B and B to A’
 - the reflexive pronouns with *self* [self]: *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves*
- (6) If you want to describe something valid in general or enumerate successive actions, you use present tense. If the Agent of the Action is *I, we, you, they* or a plural noun, the verb stays in the basic form; if the Agent of the Action is a singular noun or *he/she/it*, you normally add an *s* or, if the verb already ends in an *s*-like sound (i.e. [s, z, ʃ, ʒ]), *es* attached to the basic form, e.g. *he sings, he washes*. This (*e*)*s* is pronounced [ɪz] after an *s*-like sound (e.g. *he washes* [ˈwɒʃɪz]), [z] after any other voiced sound (e.g. *he sings* [sɪŋz]), [s] after any other voiceless sound (e.g. *he paints* [peɪnts]). Important irregularities: *be* [bi:]: *I am, we/you/they/plural noun are, he/she/it/singular noun is; have* [hæv]: with *he/she/it/singular noun* the form is *has*; *do*: with *he/she/it/singular*

noun the form is *does* [dʌz].

- (7) To describe something that is only valid and in progress at a certain moment (“frame action”), a construction called *progressive* is used: “form of *be* (depending on whether *I/you/we/they/he/she/it* or a noun precedes it) + basic form of the verb + *ing* attached to the verb”, e.g. *I am singing, Paul is painting*. However, if the normal verb form is used instead of the *ing*-construction, there will be no danger of miscommunication, if forms like *now* [naʊ] or *at the moment* [æt ðə 'moumʰnt] are used.
- (8) To describe something in the past, a frequent possibility is to write an *ed* attached to the basic form. This *ed* is pronounced [ɪd] after [d] or [t] (e.g. *he painted*), [d] after any other voiced sound (e.g. *he lived, died* [lɪvd daɪd]), [t] after any other voiceless sound (e.g. *he talked* [tɔ:kt]). It is also possible to use a combination of *did* + basic form of the verb (e.g. *he did paint*). Native speakers use this construction for emphasis. An alternative for describing something in the past is to use the present form of *have* (*have* or *has*) and the past participle, which is also frequently formed by attaching *ed* to the stem (e.g. *I have painted, he has lived*). This latter solution is preferred by native speakers when the past Action has some connection with the present. However, if the wrong past form is used, there will hardly occur any misunderstandings. Unfortunately, there are a number of frequent irregularities in the forms. Here the past form comes before the dash, the past participle after it: *be* > *was* (with *I/he/she/it* or a singular noun) or *were* (with *you/they* or a plural noun) – *been* [bi: wɒz wɜr bi:n], *have* > *had* – *had* [hæv hæd], *do* > *did* – *done* [du: did dʌn], *go* > *went* – *gone* [gou went gɒn], *make* > *made* – *made* [meɪk meɪd], *come* > *came* – *come*, *become* > *became* – *become*, *get* > *got* – *got*, *tell* > *told* – *told*, *say* > *said* – *said*, *give* > *gave* – *given*, *take* > *took* – *taken*, *eat* > *ate* – *eaten*, *put* > *put* – *put*, *think* > *thought* – *thought* and other verbs from the BGE Vocabulary. The forms of the first four verbs should definitely be memorized. If you can’t memorize the others, adding *ed* to the basic form will mostly be understood by other people. N.B.: The first past tense form is called “simple past”, the second “present perfect”.
- (9) If Action X is the background or the frame for Action Y in the past, Action X must be expressed in a specific form. In other words: if Action X has already begun when Y starts, then Action X must be put into a specific form. This specific word is again the progressive form introduced in rule (7), only this time it occurs in past tense. Example: *Paula came into the room. Paul was watching a film*. (‘Paul had already started to watch a film before Paula came in.’).
The situation is different when Action Y simply follows Action X. Then both occur in the simple form. Example: *Paula came into the room. Paul watched a film*. (‘First Paula came in, then Paul started to watch a film.’).
- (10) To describe something in the future, the present tense can be used as long as the future reference is made clear otherwise (e.g. adverbs). Native speakers of English use several different constructions, which express different notions. The two most frequent ones are “*will* [wɪl] + basic verb form” or “*am/are/is going to* + basic verb form”. Present tense is used by native Americans and Brits only in connection with time-tables. However, if present tense is generally used, successful communication will hardly be endangered.
- (11) Many native speakers of English—especially in written language—use a syntactic construction called “passive”. In this construction not the Agent, but the Object or Beneficiary is put in front of the verb. It is particularly used when the Agent is unknown. The construction is “Object or Beneficiary + Form of *be* + participle from 2nd past tense form of the Verb (past participle) + *to*-Beneficiary or Object”. Examples:

Paula was written a letter.

A letter was written to Paula.

If you want to express the Agent nevertheless, the Agent can be added at the end of the construction after the preposition *by*. Examples:

Paula was written a letter by Paul.

A letter was written to Paula by Paul.

It suffices to have passive knowledge of this construction. The “basic” construction “Agent + Verb + Object + *to* + Beneficiary” will always be enough even if the Agent is not known. In this case *someone* should be used. Example:

Someone wrote a letter to Paula.

- (12) Apart from the important auxiliaries *be*, *have* and *do* (which will be explained in Points 16 and 17), there are some more auxiliaries that are always put in front of the main verb, and the main verb always occurs in the basic form then

will [wɪl] expresses future reference or certainty

shall [ʃæl] expresses offer or (if the Agent is *I*) obligation

can [kæn] expresses ability, possibility, permission or offer (in the past you must use the form *was/were able to*)

may [meɪ] expresses offer, possibility or permission

must [mʌst] [mʌst] expresses obligation or certainty (in the past you must use the form *had to*)

would [wʊd] expresses possibility (often tied to a precondition) or (if the Agent is not *I*) a request

should [ʃʊd] expresses advice; in connection with postponed *have* + 2nd past tense form of verb: past obligation

ought to [ɔ:t tu] = *should*

could [kʊd] expresses possibility, permission or request; expresses past ability

All these forms are invariable (i.e. it is *he will go*, not **he wills go*). The form *must not* negates not the obligation, but the action that you are obliged to do (i.e. *You must not go there* = ‘You are obliged not to go there’, not **‘You are not obliged to go there’*).

- (13) Sometimes more than an adjective is necessary to describe a noun. Here a specific form of clause can help: adjective clauses, also called relative clauses. They are placed after the noun that they refer to and are introduced by a relative pronoun. The two most important relative pronouns are *who* with persons and *which* with “non-persons”. Examples:

(a) *the man who was in the park yesterday* (b) *the dog which was in the park yesterday*

(c) *the man who I saw in the park yesterday* (d) *the dog which I saw in the park yesterday*

This illustrates that the two relative pronouns can occur both in the function of the Agent of the Action on the relative clause (a and b) and in the function of the Patient or Complement of the Action of the relative clause (c and d). Complete sentences could be:

The man who was in the park yesterday is at the circus today.

The man who I saw in the park yesterday is at the circus today.

In many but not all cases native speakers of English also use that and, if the relative pronoun expresses the Patient of the Action, they often use a “zero” form, e.g. *The man ___ I saw in the park yesterday is at the circus today*. But with *who* and *which* sentences are always correct. And if these are mixed up, there will hardly be any misunderstandings either.

- (14) Adjectives can also be used as adverbs. While adjectives specify nouns, adverbs specify verbs (except *be*, *become*, *feel*, *smell*, *taste*, *sound*, which are always followed by the adjective form), adjectives, other adverbs and whole sentences. They are then called

adverbs and a *ly* [li] is attached to the stem (e.g. *He is a terrible and loud man* vs. *He is a terribly loud man* vs. *He sings terribly and loudly* vs. *He sings terribly loudly*). An important exception is the adverb of *good*: *well*. If learners omit *ly*, though, there will hardly be any misunderstanding. Some adjectives keep their form when they are used as adverbs: *fast, hard, much, (a) little*.

- (15) Nouns can be specified by adjectives, which normally precede the noun. The only occasions when these adjectives change are in comparing. If you have two or more referents and you want to express that the one is more X than the other, then you put a *more* [mɔ:r] in front of the adjective, e.g. *more happy*; if you have a group of referents and want to express that one of its members is the most X of this group than you add a *most* [moust] in front of the adjective, e.g. *most happy*. Important irregularities are: *good – better – best, bad – worse – worst, little – less – least, much/many – more – most*. Many native speaker of English form the comparative and superlative of one-syllable adjectives by attaching *er* and *est* to the stem (e.g. *small – smaller – smallest*), two-syllable adjectives ending in *y* can form their comparative and superlative by *-er/-est* or with *more/most* (e.g. *happy – happier – happiest* or *happy – more happy – most happy*), all other adjectives use the formation with *more/most*.
- (16) If a sentence or part of a sentence is to be negated, the word *not* [nɒt] must be put in front of the respective part of the sentence. Examples: *He is in the house, not in the garden. I love not her, I love you.* – For the negation of verbs there are normally specific rules: With *be* or auxiliary verbs *not* is put directly after the verb form, with other verbs the form *do not* (or *don't*) or—in connection with *he/she/it/singular noun*—*does not* (or *doesn't*). Examples: *I don't love her, I love you.* or *I can't love her, I can love only you.* or *I don't hate her, I can only love her.*
- (17) The basic word-order rule (cf. Rule 1) only works with declarative sentences. But there are also interrogative sentences and imperative sentences. The basic structure of imperative sentences is: “Verb + Object and/or Complement” (e.g. *Come to me!, Write a letter to Paula!*). With interrogative sentences we can distinguish between (a) Yes-or-No questions and (b) questions that are introduced by an interrogative pronoun.

(a) The easiest way of forming a yes-or-no question is to simply take the word-order rule for declarative sentences and raise the voice on the last syllable, e.g.

You can see Peter. You see Peter. She sees Peter. Peter is nice.

turns into

You can see Petér? You see Petér? She sees Petér? Peter is nice?

The standard British and American way, however, is to reverse the basic word-order rule:

	Agent	(auxiliary verb)	(main) Verb	rest of sentence
	<i>You</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>see</i>	<i>Peter.</i>
	<i>You</i>		<i>see</i>	<i>Peter.</i>
	<i>She</i>		<i>sees</i>	<i>Peter.</i>
	<i>Peter</i>		<i>is</i>	<i>nice.</i>

into

Auxiliary verb	Agent		(main) Verb	rest of sentence
<i>Can</i>	<i>you</i>		<i>see</i>	<i>Peter?</i>

Auxiliary verb	Agent		(main) Verb	rest of sentence
<i>Do</i> (when there was no other auxiliary)	<i>you</i>		<i>see</i>	<i>Peter?</i>
<i>Does</i> (when there was no other auxiliary)	<i>she</i>		<i>see</i>	<i>Peter?</i>
<i>Is</i> (exception with forms of <i>to be</i>)	<i>Peter</i>			<i>nice?</i>

(b) Interrogative sentences that need an interrogative pronoun can simply be formed if you insert the interrogative pronoun into the position where the answer would normally appear in a declarative sentence and raise your voice on the interrogative pronoun and on the final syllable of the sentence. Thus

		<i>Peter</i>		<i>meets</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for dancing.</i>
		<i>Peter</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>meet</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for dancing.</i>
		<i>Peter</i>		<i>is</i>	<i>nice.</i>		

can become

		<u><i>Whó</i></u>		<i>meets</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for dancing?</i>
		<i>Peter</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>meet</i>	<u><i>whó</i></u>	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for dancing?</i>
		<i>Peter</i>		<i>meets</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<u><i>whén</i></u>	<i>for dancing?</i>
		<i>Peter</i>		<i>meets</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for <u>whát?</u></i>
		<i>Peter</i>		<i>meets</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for dancing</i>
		<i>Peter</i>		<i>is</i>	<u><i>whát?</i></u>		

The first interrogative sentence, where the Agent of the action is unknown and asked for, is also standard British and American. With the other sentences, where it is not the Agent that is asked for, the standard British and American way is, again, to use a reversed word-order rule by putting the interrogative pronoun and an auxiliary (with the same rules as in Type A) in front position:

		<u><i>Whó</i></u>		<i>meets</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for dancing?</i>
<i>Who</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>Peter</i>		<i>meet</i>	_____	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for dancing?</i>
<i>When</i>	<i>does</i>	<i>Peter</i>		<i>meet</i>	<i>Mary</i>	_____	<i>for dancing?</i>
<i>What</i>	<i>does</i>	<i>Peter</i>		<i>meet</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<i>on Mondays</i>	<i>for _____?</i>
<i>What</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>Peter</i>			_____?		

- (18) Not only nouns and pronouns can occur after the vague prepositions in rule (1), but also verbs. In this instance an *ing* is attached to the basic form (if the basic forms end in *e*, this *e* is deleted), e.g. *I dream of playing football, I am afraid of driving a bus.*
- (19) Sometimes sentences can be very simple: *I saw this* or *This is not interesting*. Sometimes an entire description is needed to express “Agent” or “Object”: (a) one possibility is an entire (subordinate) clause. This clause is then introduced by *that*. Compare the following examples:

I saw this.

I saw that the man was in the park.

This is not interesting. That the man was in the park is not interesting.

Beside these constructions, English has two more constructions if the Agent of the main clause and the Agent of the subordinate clause are the same: (b) *to* + basic form (e.g. *to do*), (c) basic form + *ing* (e.g. *doing*). After a preposition you always use (c) (rule 18). In other instances form (b) is more frequent. With two verbs the two constructions express semantically different things that should be memorized:

<i>stop:</i>	<i>He stopped to smoke.</i> 'He stopped and then smoked.'	<i>He stopped smoking.</i> 'He quit smoking.'
<i>like:</i>	<i>I like to dance.</i> 'current feeling'	<i>I like dancing.</i> 'general predilection'

(20) Conjunctions link sentences or clauses:

<i>because</i> [bɪ'kɔ:z]	introduces a cause
<i>since</i> [sɪns]	introduces a cause or the start of a period
<i>(un)til</i> [ʌn'tɪl]	introduces the end of a period
<i>(al)though</i> [ɔ:l'dəʊ]	introduces a possible counter-argument or a reason for potential surprise
<i>if</i> [ɪf]	introduces a prerequisite
<i>when</i> [wen]	introduces a contemporary Action
<i>after</i> ['aftər~'æftər]	introduces a preceding Action
<i>before</i> [bɪ'fɔ:r]	introduces a succeeding Action
<i>so that</i> [səʊ ðæt]	introduces a consequence or a wish
<i>and</i> [ænd]	links two equally valid items
<i>or</i> [ɔ:r]	links two equally valid options
<i>but</i> [bʌt]	introduces a restriction
<i>however</i> [haʊ'evər]	= <i>but</i>

The basic sentence structure rule is "(Complements) + "Agent" + Verb + "Object/Patient" + (Complements)". If a conjunction cannot be memorized, two separate sentences can be formed. Examples:

For *I love Paula because she is nice.*

a) *I love Paula. She is nice.*

b) *I love Paula. The reason is: She is nice.*

For *I love Paula although she is not nice.*

Paula is not nice. But I love Paula.

For *I wrote a letter to Paula so that she calls me.*

I wrote a letter to Paula. I wish that Paula phones me.