Lecture, presentation and classroom expressions

Transitional, discourse markers, “signposting” expressions, question forms and types, and other English expressions for lectures and presentations
Lecture, presentation and classroom expressions

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Lecture expressions

Structures and transitional elements for better flow and organization

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Introduction: Using lecture expressions and questions

In lectures and presentations, you can be kinder to your listeners by providing what educators call “signposts” – indicators of where the talk is going and the organization of ideas. These are words, phrases, or sentences that can help you to organize your sentences, and help listeners understand your flow of thought. This so-called “signposting” includes commonly used words and shorter phrases that linguists call transitionals or discourse markers – expressions that speakers use to organize thoughts, and that provide transitions. Also, these sometimes provide cues about the interpretation of sentences and speakers' attitudes toward what they are saying.

Another important strategy is using questions. A pure lecture makes for a passive learning experience for students that is not much different than watching a TV documentary. Students tend to learn only superficially from lectures, and they tend to forget lecture contents after the exam or after the course. Students can learn more deeply and can retain information more efficiently if the teacher and students engage with each other in posing and answering questions. This means that teachers need to ask questions, and get students to ask questions. This also means that having students engage in small group discussions, learning activities, and problem-solving activities in addition to lecture-discussion format are important for meaningful learning and retaining what they have learned. For more on group activities, see the handouts on www.kentlee7.com for types of group and interactive activities and implementing them.

1. Getting started

You will probably want to find what kind of planning methods work best for you in preparing and organizing the contents of a lecture or presentation. Some people like to brainstorm on paper, in a text or presentation file, or mentally. Some prefer social brainstorming – sharing rough ideas with others in conversation. Some like outlining, making concept maps, or drawing flow charts. Some go straight to creating a PPT file as an organizer. Many people use some combination of methods. Nonetheless, regardless of the brainstorming and outlining methods that you use, it is best to create an outline at some point, whether you do this mentally, on paper, or in a file. A presentation organized around a logical outline will be easier for listeners to follow.

At the outlining stage, it is then important to organize the talk around 3-5 main points. When planning a talk from an outline, it is also possible to prioritize items in the outline. You can identify which parts are more important, and which parts can be skipped, or covered more quickly. While giving a talk, if you find yourself behind, then you can omit those items, or just quickly touch on them.

- A talk ideally consists of 3-5 main points (thus, 3-5 main sections)
- Each main point ideally consists of 3-5 subpoints

This is better for listeners' memory (human short-term memory can hold about 5 items). Thus, better for listeners to follow the flow of a talk. It also helps to prioritize for time
management. If using PPT, plan for about one slide per minute (generally).

After planning the contents, next the presenter needs to plan the introduction, and then plan some transitional expressions that can be used between the main points and subpoints of the lecture. Transitional expressions (or “sign-posting” expressions that tell the listener where the talk is going) can be planned between the major elements of the talk.

• Introductions: “In this presentation I will discuss... To do so, we will look at X, Y and Z” … “So now I’d like to move on to the first point”

• Beginning and ending of each section: “First, let’s look at X”... “Now that we’ve seen how ... let’s look at the implications of X for Y”

• Repeating and emphasizing key points: “Let me repeat that” ... “Let me draw your attention to...”

• Conclusions: “So we’ve seen how...” ... “which show that X would be the better policy or course of action”

The first section provides model transitional expressions, as well as ways of framing explanations of contents within lectures and presentations. Occasionally, some items are indicated as colloquial. These are okay for lectures, and if used conservatively, for more formal academic talks such as conference presentations. In fact, most English classroom lectures today tend to be somewhat informal.
Basic lecture structure expressions

The following are basic expressions for introductions, various types of explanations of contents, and conclusions of lectures and presentations.

1. **Lecture introductions**

Effective introductions usually one or more of the following elements.

1. **Overview.** Explain the main points and topics to be covered in the lecture or lesson. This helps students to follow the flow of the lecture / lesson. It is best to organize the lesson around 3-5 main points, as human working memory can keep track of 3-5 main items at once. A fairly detailed overview is most helpful to both serial, analytical learners and holistic learners.

2. **Rationale or lesson objectives.** Explain why the lecture topic and/or main points are relevant or interesting – why should the students care about this?

3. **Bridge.** Remind students of what you talked about last time, and make a connection between the previous class material and today's topic.

4. **Get the listeners' attention.** For example, an interesting example or lead-in question.

A good overview with a rationale is essentially the same as stating the lesson objectives. Other possibilities include lead-ins that arouse students' attention and that lead into your topic (or into one of the above introductions), such as these.

1. Thought-provoking question – posing a problem, dilemma or interesting question to the class
2. A rhetorical question
3. A statement of a problem
4. A joke or amusing story
5. An interesting story or anecdote, e.g., the story behind the discovery of the concepts that you are lecturing about that day; or a story that provides an analogy or example of a key point
6. An interesting example
7. A brief analogy

It also can be helpful to summarize the main points of the talk in your introduction, e.g.,

Today we will talk about X because.... In order to understand X, we need to examine A, B, and C. So we'll look at A, which is... [brief description / definition of A], and its implications for B, that is.... [brief description of B] and for C... [brief description of C]. Afterwards, you will be able to... [explanation of applications, implications or relevance of X, A, B, C].
1.1. Starting the class
Okay, let's get started.
We have a lot to cover today.
Let's continue where we left off.
Last time we were looking at X, so today let's continue / go on to / move on to...
If you remember last time, we were talking about X and how that relates to Y, so today let's...

1.2. Introducing a lecture or new topics
In our last class we talked about ..., and today we continue with ....
Last time, we talked about..., and today we'll discuss / go on to
I'd like to start with / by
What we are going to cover today is...
Today I am going to talk about...
Today, I will discuss / talk about
First of all, I'd like to talk about...
Let's begin with / First of all, ...
Starting with
Today's topic is...
What I want to do today / talk about today is...
The important point I want to make today is...
Hi, everyone! / Hello, everybody! / Hello, class! / Good morning, everyone!
OK. Let's get started. / Let's begin. / Shall we get started?
Could one of you please turn on the lights when you come in?
Let's review some of the concepts we talked about last time.
We have a lot to cover today.
Let's continue where we left off.
Let's look at one case from Chapter 5 and examine its ramifications for the future of financial regulation.

2. Changing or shifting to new topics, points or sections

2.1. Sequence
Firstly...secondly... (British)       Next,
First...second... (North American)   After that, / Afterwards,
First of all (colloquial)

Note the difference between the North American style (first, second, third...) and British style (firstly, secondly, thirdly); chose one style and use it consistently. For any form of English, 'first of all' is colloquial style.
2.2. Transitions between ideas, topic shift to new item

Now,
Now turning to
Let’s turn to
Let’s turn our attention to
Now, let’s move on to / I’ll move on to
Let me move on to
Next, let’s talk about / I’ll talk about / discuss
Now I’d like to discuss
This raises the following issues / question(s)

So how about / what about …?
If I could now turn to
My next point is
Now, let’s see what happens.
Now that that’s clear / we’ve resolved that
We will go on to the next point.
Now let’s approach this problem in a different way.
The second point I’d like to make is…

When making topic transitions, speakers often indicate shift to a new topic with a high falling intonation over the transition words, which can capture or redirect the listeners’ attention¹.

Now let’s turn our attention to the implications of these findings for second language reading instruction at the university level.

It is also possible to do minor topic shifts (moving to a topic that is related to a previous point) like so. The structures in #1, #2 and #3 are known as inverted sentences; inversion is used to make a transition to a related topic (in writing and in speaking). Topic shifts with there in #4 and #5 are for introducing new items to the discussion; there is/are in #4 is less common in English academic writing, and is more common in informal writing or in spoken English.

1. Noun phrase at the beginning of a sentence (sometimes with a higher intonation on the noun)

Motivation in psychology can be subdivided into different types of motivation. Extrinsic motivation refers to motivation driven by an external reward. Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation that is driven by a personal or intellectual interest in what one is doing.

At the time, no one dared challenge the reigning paradigm until the late 50s, except in certain subfields. Substantial opposition to this view arose from two different places around this time.

2. Prepositional phrase

The order of Coleoptera represents a large and diverse grouping of insects. Within Coleoptera we find that 90% of species belong to the suborder Polyphaga.

Theoretical linguistics includes the fields of syntax, morphology, phonology, and semantics. In the field of syntax, one investigates issues of sentence structure and word order.

3. Adverb, adjective or participle phrase

In writing, standard subject-verb-object type sentences are used for a normal logical flow, and are not designed to capture readers’ attention. More interesting, however, are inverted sentences, such as this one, for the logical flow of an essay.

Speakers may use transition words like “now” for topic shifts. Also helpful are so-called paratones on a new noun subject for making a topic transition.

¹ Some linguists call this a “paratone” - a discourse paragraph, of sorts, in that the elevated intonation signals a topic shift, just as a new paragraph in writing brings about a shift to a new topic.
4. *there is / are* + subject
   
   These were traditionally viewed as mutually exclusive categories. *There is* another way to look at this, however, as we will see later.

5. *there* + intransitive verb
   
   At the time, no one dared challenge the reigning paradigm until the late 50s, except in certain subfields. *There seemed to be* no substantial opposition to this view until two fronts opened up in what would become a paradigm war.

2.3. **Topic reshifts — returning to previous topic**

   - Now, as for
   - As for / as to
   - As regards
   - Regarding
   - Anyway,
   - Anyhow,
   - Returning to...
   - As mentioned / As we saw earlier / As I mentioned previously
   - .....the aforementioned....
   - As we saw / noted earlier
   - Let’s go back to / get back to
   - I’d like to finish talking about...before we move on

   In lecturing in Korean, one can start a sentence using a noun (the sentence subject) with the ending -은/는, which seems to function as a topic transitional, including reshifts to a previously mentioned term, item, or concept, or shifts to a related term, item, or concept. There is no direct equivalent to this in English. Instead, one would use reshift markers like those above, or other topic shift markers above. Or one could start the English sentence with a full nouns phrase, perhaps with a higher intonation to mark a new subject.

3. **Explanations**

3.1. **Categorizing and classifying**

   - *X can be divided / classified / categorized by / into / according to*
   - the first type / kind
   - the second
   - the last category

3.2. **Comparison and contrast**

   - although
   - however
   - in comparisons
   - in contrast
   - likewise
   - nevertheless
   - on the other hand
   - similarly
   - whereas
   - yet

   Now let’s consider the other side of the argument
   - Although some claim that...,
   - Some claim / have proposed that ...; however, ...
   - ...; however, I would like to argue / show that ...
3.3. Adding more information / details

Besides
Furthermore
In addition
Indeed
In fact
Moreover
Second...Third..., etc.
What this means is that...

3.4. Examples

For example, / e.g.,
Take..., for example
For instance
In particular / Particularly
Specifically / To be more specific
To demonstrate
To illustrate
This can be seen / understood in the following example
To illustrate, / To illustrate this point
By way of analogy
What this means is that

3.5. Explaining processes

at first / initially
begin / began by / with
the second step / stage
afterward [colloquial: afterwards]
then / next / later
as / as soon as
upon (+noun or gerund phrase)
finally, at last

3.6. Analysis

Let's analyze this in more detail
Where does that lead us?
Let's examine the implications of this
In real terms, this means
in terms of

3.7. Reason, cause, purpose

as
because / because of
due to
for (conjunction)
for the reason that
since
in the hope that
in order to
so / so that
with __ in mind
for the purpose of

3.8. Cause and effect, results

accordingly
consequently
so / thus / therefore
hence
first (second, third); another, next
in conclusion, in summary
finally, last
because, since, for
of course
nevertheless
on the other hand, to the contrary

Some may / might say / claim / maintain (that)
It has been claimed / argued / posited that
4. **Summarizing and concluding**

4.1. **Finishing a topic / item**
- Well, I've told you about
- That's all I have to say about
- We've looked at / We've seen (how)
- So much for...

4.2. **Summarizing and concluding**
- To summarize
- In summary
- What we have been talking about...
- Okay, we have discussed...
- In conclusion
- To conclude
- How would you summarize the theory?
- So far (up to now), I have been trying to show...
- Let's put together everything we have talked about so far
- The conclusions we can draw from this are...

4.3. **Preparing to summarize and move on**
- Consequently
- Therefore
- To sum up
- All in all
- Just one more thing / comment before we move on
- There's another point that relates to this issue that we haven't considered yet
- Okay, we have finished / completed [topic X], and now we need to...
- Well, moving on to the next issue

5. **Classroom management**

5.1. **Class administration**
- Who's absent today? Have you seen Carlos?
- Is everybody here today? Is anybody absent?
- Could I have your attention, please? / Please let me have your attention.
- Please give me your attention when I'm talking.
- Please focus. / Please focus on what we're doing.
- Excuse me...this is important. Please pay attention.
- Let's review some of the concepts we talked about last time.
- Now I'm going to hand out the syllabus.
- Today I’d like to discuss / talk about the syllabus.
- Let's discuss / look at the syllabus.
- I'd like to talk about the goals of the class.
- Please check the syllabus for the schedule.
- Please look at ‘Weekly Class Schedule’ on the second page.
- Please notice that you must attend class at least 75 percent of the time.
- Please notice that you are allowed only 5 absences.

5.2. **Wrapping up**
- Thank you. You are dismissed.
Okay, we’re finished/ done for today. See you next week.
Before I let you go, I want to discuss one more question.
Before we finish, I have one more thing that I’d like to discuss.
Before we finish, please look at page 10.
Thanks for your effort today!
Before we finish, I want to summarize the main points we covered today. First..., second..., finally...
That’s all I have for today. See you next week.
OK. That should do it for today. / That’s it for today. / That’s enough for today.
See you Friday. / See you on Friday.
Don’t forget to do your homework!
Have a nice weekend.

5.3. Managing behavior
Watch out here. / Consider this closely.
Try to get to class on time.
What are you always late?
Please put your cell phone away. / I really hate to see students using cell phones in class.
It bothers me when I see students using cell phones in class.
Please shut your cell phones off. Thank you.
Please keep your cell phones in your bag.
Would you like me to bring a pillow for you?
That’s funny. I don’t remember telling you to buy that book.

5.4. Task management
Please pay special attention to the graph on page __.
Let me draw your attention to...
Please note / observe the following.
Please note the author’s comments on page 45.
Remember to study the chart on page 10. It’s really important. It might be on the midterm.

5.5. Assignments and tests
OK everyone, please give me your attention. I want to give you your next assignment.
For our next class, please read pages 15-20.
You’ll need to read this article at least 3 times.
For Monday, please do exercises 1-10 on page 16.
For next class, read Chapter 7 and do questions 1-10.
Did you do your homework?
Did you have any problems with the assignment?
Please turn in your assignments.
Our midterm will be next Friday. / The midterm is scheduled for next Friday.
Today I’d like to review for the midterm test.
For the 10th quiz, please study pages 10-24.
The mid-term will cover Chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5.
Pay particular attention to the chart on page 10 for the next quiz.
The test will include some true/false, multiple-choice, matching, fill-in-the-blank, and short answer questions.
The final test will be held during week 16.
Please don’t wait until the last minute to study / work on X.
Making classes more interactive

1. Using questions

It is important to ask meaningful, well-constructed questions that will provoke discussion. Some question types are cognitively simpler, and others are more challenging and complex. The better questions for class discussion are those that require students to engage in conceptual thinking, or even those with multiple valid answers (open-ended), to help students explore key concepts in class.

A traditional kind of question is the so-called knowledge display question: the instructor asks students to repeat or restate information that has already been explained or learned; the student simply displays what s/he has memorized, such as a factual question (who discovered background cosmic radiation?), or repeating basic concepts (how did Einstein explain the relationship between energy and mass at near-light speeds?). This kind of question requires little original thinking (unless perhaps you are probing a complex or difficult concept), so in modern teaching, we prefer to avoid display questions.

In the following sections, some basic question techniques are illustrated. Then to help instructors develop more cognitively engaging question types, a well-known classification of question types is presented below. The more complex question types involve analysis, synthesis (creatively combining different ideas and information), and evaluation of different ideas. This is followed by examples of question types for specific purposes that involve analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (from Brookeld & Preskill, 2005). These will be more useful for promoting discussion and getting students to think – to meaningfully engage and interact with the material, and thus, learn meaningfully.

1.1. Basic questions in lecture-discussion

1.1.1. Posing questions

Now I’d like to open it up for questions / take some questions
Do you have any questions?
Who would like to say/ask something?
Could you say a little more about that?
Can you elaborate on that?
Do you agree?
What do you think?
How do you feel (about)...?
What comparisons can you make between?
What is the point made by the author of this article?
How would you summarize this theory?
Do you have any thoughts on this subject? What do you think about this?
Do you agree that...?
How does this compare with X’s theory about...?
What’s the point of this experiment/article?
Would someone like to add to what X just said?
1.1.2. Eliciting and handling questions

Don't hesitate to ask a question. / Feel free to ask any question.
OK. What questions do you have?
Is there anything you want me to repeat?
Are there any questions about Topic X?
Were there any questions from yesterday's readings that we should go over today?
What are some key points from yesterday's articles?
What's the theme [main message/ main idea/ point] of Section 2?
How did you come up with this answer?
Going back to the issue of business ethics, what can we learn from this?

1.1.3. Responding to correct answers or good questions

Right
You've got it
Good thinking
That's correct
Yes, indeed
X has raised an interesting point

1.1.4. Responding to poor answers or questions

Good guess, but...
That's an interesting idea, but...
Nice try, but not quite right
You're close, but...
She is asking whether...
He thinks that...
Can you try again?
Good point, but...
Interesting question, but...

1.1.5. Closing a discussion

Finally
I'll summarize by saying

Are there any final questions?

2. Question types by cognitive complexity

Educational psychologist Benjamin Bloom developed a classification of types of classroom and test tasks according to cognitive and intellectual complexity, and others have made slight revisions since then. This can help teaching choose tasks according to how demanding they are, and to sequence tasks or activities accordingly. For example, based on this taxonomy, a teacher could sequence classroom exercises and activities in an appropriate order from simpler to more complex; a teacher could choose activities for a lesson, or items for a test, that involve certain types of cognitive complexity. That is, a teacher could consider what would be appropriate for a lesson and for students’ levels. Generally, knowledge recall questions are best if minimized or avoided, and more complex types of tasks are preferred. Remember to focus more on some of these types learning goals:
- Comprehension
- Application of concepts or skills
- Analyzing concepts
- Synthesizing concepts and information
- Critiquing or evaluating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>level</th>
<th>description</th>
<th>students must...</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Knowledge</td>
<td>Knowledge display questions - for checking if students can recall information</td>
<td>define, duplicate, identify, locate, list, match, memorize, name, outline, recall, recognize, repeat, reproduce, show, state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Comprehension</td>
<td>Checking if students explain ideas or concepts.</td>
<td>classify, compare, describe, discuss, distinguish, explain, identify, interpret, locate, paraphrase, recognize, report, restate, select, summarize, translate, paraphrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Application</td>
<td>Checking if students can use knowledge in a new way, apply it to something else</td>
<td>apply, calculate, choose, demonstrate, dramatize, employ, implement, illustrate, interpret, modify, operate, schedule, sketch, solve, use, write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Analysis</td>
<td>Identifying parts / aspects; analyzing problems or info; classifying data</td>
<td>analyze, appraise, categorize, compare, contrast, criticize, deduce, diagram, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, examine, experiment, relate, question, test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Synthesis</td>
<td>Creating new ideas or product; connecting different pieces of knowledge, making new connections among ideas / info</td>
<td>assemble, construct, create, design, develop, discuss, formulate, hypothesize, organize, plan, report, write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Evaluation</td>
<td>Students critique or evaluate ideas, knowledge, etc.; justify a belief or decision; critically compare two positions on an issue; argue for one view over another</td>
<td>advocate, appraise, argue, asses, critique, criticize, conclude, defend, evaluate, judge, rate, select, support, value, write a review of something</td>
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</table>

- **Application questions** that help students apply concepts, principles or generalizations in different contexts – e.g., “How could we apply this model to the Korean educational system?”
• **Analytical questions** that encourage students to pull apart different elements of the material they have been learning about to draw comparisons and contrasts, identify causes and effects; reason through explanations or arguments; etc. – e.g., “What are the key differences between Model A and Model B?” “Explain the different parts of this theory and how they fit together”

• **Synthesis questions** that require students to integrate the elements of the material in new and different ways – e.g., “How could you combine elements of these two models and implement them in company X” or “Explain the differences and similarities between Model 1 and Model 2.” “Compare the use of metaphor between these two authors.”

• **Evaluation questions** that require students to make informed judgments, using some combination of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis and/or synthesis – e.g., “Which method of teaching is more effective in your opinion and why?” “Which of the interactive methods for engaging students during lecture sessions do you think might work best together in a lecture on art appreciation?”

• **Problem-solving questions** that challenge students to use their creativity, as well as the knowledge they have gained – e.g., “How would you go about designing a new course in your subject area that involves all of the levels of cognitive functioning in Bloom’s taxonomy?” “What is the best way to design a skyscraper in Taipei to withstand a possible 8+ magnitude earthquake?”

2.1. **Checking for comprehension or attention**

2.1.1. **Comprehension**
- Are you following me? / Are you with me? / Is that clear?
- Does it make sense?
- Do you understand what I mean?
- If you don't understand, please tell me.
- If you don't understand, please tell me and I'll try to spell it out for you.
- Is there anything you don't understand so far?
- Do you understand everything we've been talking about so far?
- Do you have any questions or comments about what you read?

2.1.2. **Encouraging feedback**
- Is that clear to everyone?
- Are there any questions?
- Would anyone like me to repeat that?

2.1.3. **Asking about students’ progress**
- How’s it going here?
- Are you keeping up?
- Do you need help with X?
- Are you following / understanding okay?
- Are you having trouble with this concept / procedure?

3. **Question types for specific discussion purposes**
The following types of questions are generally at the analytical, synthetic, and evaluative levels, and thus are more cognitively engaging and appropriate for group discussion activities.
3.1. **Evidential questions – questions seeking more evidence**
These are designed to help students understand the reasons for X, or why X might not be correct or well supported – not as a challenge to the student him/herself.
How can we be certain of this claim?
What data is that claim based on?
What information in the article supports this claim?
What evidence could you provide to one who is skeptical of this claim?

3.2. **Clarification questions**
These help to expand on conceptual understanding.
Can you give an example of that?
Could you give an example of how that works / how that might apply to...?
How could you explain that term you just used?
What does the word ‘theory’ mean in scientific usage? How is it different from hypothesis, conjecture, or belief?

3.3. **Open-ended (or open) questions**
These questions do not necessarily have one single correct answer, and require some thought. Such questions, especially with “how” or “why”, can stretch students’ conceptual, critical thinking, and problem-solving skills.
Is it ethically appropriate for photojournalists to artificially stage a news photo scene?
Can people really act out of purely altruistic motives? Or are all intentions for good behavior tainted by ulterior or selfish motives?
Why might rote memorization be a poor strategy for learning a foreign language?
Which of these two theories can better account for X, and why?
What are the relative advantages and disadvantages of X and Y?
Why would people devote their lives to education despite the low pay and less than ideal working conditions?
Which view of moral reasoning can better address a moral dilemma such as X?
Does Kuhn’s view of scientific paradigms really endorse or entail a form of relativistic philosophy?
How could hypothesis X be empirically tested?
Why do you think Captain Ahab obsess so much over the white whale in Moby Dick?
Why does Melville play with gnostic elements in this novel?
Were these people motivated by political idealism or economic self-interest?

3.4. **Linking or extension questions**
These questions link different comments, or different concepts, ideas, or topics that have come up in the discussion. These can be good for promoting student-to-student discussion.
How does your observation relate to X’s comment from a few moments ago?
Does your idea challenge or support X’s theory?
How does your idea go beyond what X has said?
How does your comment relate to X’s ideas?
3.5. Hypothetical questions  
These challenge students to apply concepts to new situations, thereby deepening their analytical thinking skills.  
How might have World War 2 turned out differently if Hitler not attacked the Soviet Union in 1941?  
If Shakespeare had intended Iago to be a tragic or more sympathetic character, how might he have changed Othello’s narrative?  
How would the universe be different if the gravitational constant [or other constants] tweaked to be slightly different by X amount? Would the development of some form of life on some planets still be possible?

3.6. Cause and effect questions  
These also cause students to consider implications and applications of concepts.  
What effect would [a change in the exchange rate of type X / a change of type X in the prime interest rate] have on the Korean economy?  
How would a larger / smaller class size affect the effectiveness of discussion or group activities in a high school math / English / chemistry class?  
What effect would higher parking fees have on traffic patterns in region X of the city?

3.7. Summary and synthesis questions  
These lead students to identify important ideas in ways that will help them remember contents or concepts.  
What are the most important ideas that have emerged from today’s discussion?  
What remains unresolved or contentious about this topic?  
Based on today’s discussion, what do we need to discuss next time in order to better understand this topic?  
What is the main “take home message” from today’s class discussion?

4. Managing class discussions  
Discussions and groups can be more effective than passively listening to lectures in helping students:  
• Develop problem-solving and analytical skills  
• Retain their knowledge for a longer period of time  
• Learn more deeply and meaningfully – more conceptual knowledge rather than rote learning  
• Being able to apply their knowledge to new and different situations  
• Changing students’ attitudes  
• Making students more motivated and interested

Prepare students to participate in discussions by:  
• Explaining why you think class discussions are important, how you plan to use them during your course, and (if you plan to do so) how you will grade students on participation in class discussions
• Discussing the various methods and ground rules you will use to encourage participation (e.g., voluntary hand-raising, random calling on students by the lecturer, by seating order, permitting students to say, “I pass; please call on me later,” etc.)

• Creating an environment that encourages students to feel comfortable about speaking during class discussions (e.g., if possible, arranging chairs so that students can see each other; reassuring students that all questions and different viewpoints are valued; getting to know your students and helping them get to know each other; breaking large classes down into manageable smaller groups for discussions)

• Alerting students if a class discussion will be based on a reading assignment; Asking students to take notes on the reading and/or write down some thoughts on questions that you intend to pose during the discussion; Asking students to write down questions to pose during the discussion

• Listing out and posting the key questions that you want to cover during the discussion

Facilitate and manage student discussion by:

• Asking stimulating questions

• Giving students time to reflect on your question rather than rushing to “fill the silence”

• Monitoring participation so that you don’t call on the same few eager students too often.

• Encouraging non-participating students to join the discussion by having them read something aloud, or directly posing a question that you know s/he can answer.

• Show that you value everyone’s contributions, e.g., praising correct answers; letting a student know that s/he has brought up an interesting (or different, new, etc.) perspective; asking students to expand on incomplete answers, helping students understand the implications of an apparently incorrect answer; asking students to explain unclear answers; asking other students to comment on a student’s answer that is incomplete, unclear or incorrect rather than correcting the student directly; asking students to help another with his/her answers.

• Asking the students if the room falls silent – e.g., do you need to clarify or rephrase the question; are they unfamiliar with your terminology; is the question too complicated?

• Leaving time to summarize key points before moving on to another topic.

• Asking students to summarize the main points rather than always doing this yourself

• Having students write down the 3 most important things they learned from the discussion, as well as any questions they still have and pass these in anonymously. Review this feedback and address misconceptions and questions during the next class.

4.1. Giving hints
You’re on the right track, but have you considered...?
If you do this, what do you think will happen?
If we follow that suggestion, here’s what might happen
But what about...?
What if you looked at this problem in another way, for example, by...?
4.2. Clarifying student comments

In other words... / In other words, you’re saying...
What you said is...
I think I understand what you mean. Let me put it another way...
If I understand you correctly, you mean...
Would you like to elaborate on this point?
Could you restate your point? I’m not sure I understand.
I’m not sure I understand what you’re trying to say.
Could you restate your comment / question?
If I understand correctly, you’re asking...
Is that right?
Could you give me an example of what you mean?
Could you please repeat your question?
Could you explain that?
Sorry, I didn’t understand the question. Could you please rephrase it?
What do you mean by...?
What would that look like?
Would that be an example of...?

4.3. Restatement for clarification

If I understand you correctly...
If I read you right
Do you mean that...
You seem to be saying...
In other words
Let me try to answer what I think you are asking

4.4. Telling a student that something is unrelated, irrelevant, or incorrect

Yes, that applies to..., but in this case that won’t work.
Yes, but what’s going on here?
Well, how can X be true if Y is the case?
That’s what people thought for a long time. But remember... And now we know that...

4.5. Following up

Did everyone hear that? X wanted to know...
Did you all get this point?
Does everyone get / understand this point / idea?
Is this explanation clear now?
Would you like for me to go over another example?

4.6. Interrupting / redirecting a conversation

Let me interrupt for a minute
Speaking of... we need to move on to...
That reminds me of...
Well, we need to...
What you’re saying relates to...
May I add something here?

Your comments related to our next topic
Actually, I’m getting to that topic soon
Okay, let’s get back to...
Let’s get back to our main point...
Let’s get back to the original question

Let’s get back to what we were discussing / what X asked about a few minutes ago
4.7. **Interrupting a speaker who is going on too long**
Let’s stop right there and focus on...
Good example. Can someone else give another example of...
Hold on, let’s give someone else a chance to speak

4.8. **Expressing opinions**
I think that...
I believe that...
In my opinion...
From my point of view, ...
From my perspective

4.9. **Expressing agreement**
I agree that
I agree with your idea that...
That’s a good point
I think that you’re right about...

4.10. **Expressing disagreement**
I disagree with the viewpoint that...
On the other hand, have you considered...?
I’m afraid I disagree
I’m afraid I can’t agree with that because...
But don’t you think...?

5. **Managing group tasks**
I’m going to give you a small group number. Please remember it. (Points and counts.)
1, 2, 3, 4, 5. OK. Who are the 1’s? Please raise your hands. 2’s? 3’s? OK. All the 1’s meet here.
2’s meet over here. 3’s over there. 4’s in the corner. 5’s over there. There should be at least five students in each group.
I want you to get into groups of five. Now, get together with your teammates and work on Exercises 9-13.
Now I would like for you to get with a few of your neighbors and form groups of 4-5 people each. In your groups, I want you to discuss the following question...
Specific linguistic strategies and devices

Various linguistic structures can be used for structuring lectures and the presentation of specific information and concepts. The following sections are drawn from applied linguistics literature and discourse and text structure.

1. Sentence and topical adverbs

1.1. Sentence adverbs
Sentence adverbs begin the sentence and indicate the speaker’s attitude toward the following contents, and/or qualify or frame how listeners are to interpret the following contents. They can be used for explanations and to manage topic shifts.

For example:

Fortunately, a way has been found to resolve this long-standing problem.

Naturally, one would want to assess the risks first.

Especially, we would like to contain our company’s bleeding of cash.

actually, apparently, basically, by the way, briefly, certainly, clearly, conceivably, confidentially, curiously, potentially, predictably, particularly, presumably, regrettably, surprisingly, theoretically, therefore, thankfully, hopefully, hypothetically, ideally, incidentally, interestingly, ironically, naturally, predictably, presumably, regrettably, surprisingly, truthfully, ultimately, unfortunate, wisely

1.2. Topical adverbs
Topical adverbs (this is my own name for them – this is not a standard term) are somewhat similar to sentence adverbs, except that they function to identify or qualify the topic of the coming clause. This adverb is similar to a normal adverb within a sentence, but moved to the beginning to make the topic more explicit, to emphasize the speaker’s point, to give it more prominence, to shift the topic to a new but somewhat related topic, or to avoid too many other adverbs inside the sentence.

Economically, this would be infeasible to implement while the markets are too unstable. (cf. “This would be economically infeasible to implement”)

Politically, it would be unwise for the senator to suddenly propose such an outrageously expensive funding project at an economically depressed time as this.

Note that especially as a sentence adverb at the beginning of a clause or sentence is considered colloquial or informal style; it is not used so commonly like this in formal or academic writing, where it would be better to place it inside the main clause, or to omit it completely.
Biologically speaking, it would be imprecise to call this a virus.

Many words could be used like this, such as these, and many others, such as adverbs related to specific topics or fields of study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverb</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>scientifically</td>
<td>economically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mathematically</td>
<td>politically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>artistically</td>
<td>intellectually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>financially</td>
<td>biologically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intellectually</td>
<td>environmentally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>philosophically</td>
<td>presently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>computationally</td>
<td>evolutionarily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>psychologically</td>
<td>emotionally</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A fairly similar expression is in terms of X, for identifying a specific topic or a particular aspect of discussion. However, one should not overuse this, as using it too often can sound mechanical, artificial, or “officialese.”

The idea looks good on paper, but in terms of use of the company's resources, this would not be feasible in the current economic environment.

2. Highlighting, emphasizing

2.1. Relevance markers

These expressions draw attention to the more important information and points in a lecture. They overlap somewhat with the next category of emphasis markers.

2.1.1. Adjective patterns

That's important to know / remember
It's important to know that...
It's important / interesting to note that...
The point about ... that is quite important is...
What's important / crucial / noteworthy / interesting is...
What's interesting to consider is...
It's worth noting / remembering that...

2.1.2. Noun patterns

The key / noteworthy / important thing / point here is that...
(There are / here are) a few more key points to bear in mind
(There are / here are) two main ideas that you need to keep in mind / remember
So the first important point is...
So the main point here is...
The main idea here is that...
The thing is that...
The point here is... / The point about this is that...

2.1.3. Verb patterns

The thing that you have to remember / keep in mind / consider is...
What you have to remember is (that)...The essential question (that) I want to address is...
I want to stress this point
It is absolutely vital / crucial / important that you...
You/We need to remember... / You/We have to keep in mind that...
Remember that....
Please consider that....
Please consider the following
So we are interested in...
We want to consider / remember / keep in mind
You might want to remember this for the exam
You should also note that...
I want to focus you attention on...
I ask you to consider / bear in mind / remember that...
Now just to reinforce / remind you that...
Now just remember this. / Now just remember that....
Notice / Note / Consider / Remember / Keep in mind (again) that...
I want to draw your attention to the following...
I should stress that...
I am stressing this because....
Again I've pointed out that...
If you forget everything else that I say, just remember that...
I want to emphasize that... / the following...

2.1.4. Adverbial patterns
Essentially,
Basically,
More importantly,
...is significantly lower / higher / greater....
...is essentially / basically ____
We'll come back to this later, but essentially what I'm saying is that...

2.2. Emphasis
a lot, a lot of                             great(ly)                       sure(ly)
certain(ly)                                indeed                        total(ly)
clear(ly)                                  no way                        a true ...
complete(ly)                               outright                        a real ...
definite(ly)                               pure(ly)                        a regular ...
extact(ly)                                 real(ly)                        the/this very...
extreme(ly)                                such a (+ noun)               
for sure                                   strong(ly)                     

Sometimes ‘for sure’ can be colloquial or slang, and ‘a lot of’ and ‘lots of’ are colloquial. The adjectives ‘true,’ ‘real’ and ‘regular’ intensify a noun, as does ‘very’; however, ‘very’ as an intensifier is more formal or literary.

He's a real hero.
She's a real gung-ho writer.
He's a regular comedian (=is often funny)
This very problem that vexed him turned actually held the key to another problem.
2.3. Repetition (for emphasis or clarification)$^3$

Again, ...  
Once again,  
that bears repeating  
let me repeat / reiterate (that)  
that is / that is to say  
i.e.,  
The point to understand is...  
This brings us to our major question  
What this means is that....  
The next main idea is...

This can also be achieved by the following:
1. Pauses – especially before the sentence predicate [술부], new information, or key point of a sentence  
The most important thing we can conclude about this is... that these effects cannot be underestimated, and if you do, you do so at your own risk.
2. Repetition  
There is absolutely no proof for the effectiveness of this drug – let me repeat – there is absolutely no proof for its effectiveness.
3. Reformulations – a paraphrase or reworded explanation.  
The study found no significant correlation between input and output under these conditions – in other words, there was no meaningful relationship between input and output, or any effect of input on output, in such a context.

3. Hedges or “softeners”$^4$

Here are a few words and phrases which are used to soften, “hedge” or mitigate statements, for the sake of politeness, or to simply qualify statements. A Korean example would be the commonly used term 혹시, which is used to soften or qualify a statement, and to be more polite. The following classifies hedges into abstract linguistic categories; this list is only a partial list.

3.1. Epistemic hedges  
These soften statements by toning down the forcefulness of the truth value of statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>basically</th>
<th>hypothetically</th>
<th>really</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>according to</td>
<td>indeed</td>
<td>relative(ly)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actually</td>
<td>likely</td>
<td>roughly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apparent(ly)</td>
<td>most (+adjective)</td>
<td>somehow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approximate(ly)</td>
<td>normal(ly)</td>
<td>somewhat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>broad(ly)</td>
<td>potential(ly)</td>
<td>theoretically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clear(ly)</td>
<td>presumably</td>
<td>the very +-most (adj.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comparative(ly)</td>
<td>probable, probably</td>
<td>virtually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>essential(ly), in essence</td>
<td>rare(ly)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^3$ Also, certain words can be given greater intonation and stress for clarity or emphasis.

$^4$ Some of these are from http://www.umich.edu/~jlawler/lakoffhedgesCLS8.pdf. A hedge is a protective shrub around one’s property. Analogously, linguistic hedges serve to protect the speaker’s and listeners’ sense of “face” (체면) by softening the forcefulness of a statement.
3.2. **Lexical (phrase) hedges**

These are longer expressions that act like epistemic hedges.

- as it were
- more or less
- strictly speaking
- so to say
- most
- in one sense
- so to speak
- something like
- in some sense
- (at) about
- sort of
- in a real sense
- if you know what I mean
- more of a...
- would like to
- in a way
- sort of
- details aside
- kind of
- kind of
- I wouldn't
- might as well be
- can be looked at
- if not...
- more of a ___
- can be viewed as

3.3. **Possibility hedges**

- by (some/any) chance
- possible, possibly
- may
- hopefully
- in case (of)
- might
- maybe
- could
- perhaps
- can
- if you catch / get / understand my meaning / drift
- if you know what I mean (to say)
- if you/we know/understand (what it/that means)

3.4. **Quality hedges**

These expressions hedge the speaker's commitment to the truth value of statements (truth quality), one's certainty of statements, or the directness of such statements.

- (as) we all know
- in a manner of speaking
- as far as we/I know
- don't you think
- as is (well) known
- wouldn't you say
- as you/everyone/the reader know(s)
- as far as I/we know
- as the saying goes
- as you know
- (as) everyone/people/people/they say(s)
- I / we understand that
- from what I hear/know/see/understand
- so-called
- in a sense
- -like, -esque, -ish
- one/you they say(s)/tell(s) it
- quasi-
- for all intents and purposes
- practically
- for all practical purposes
- in name only
- one might say that
- like
- let us say that

E.g.: That’s rather Clinton-like. That’s rather Obama-esque. That’s more of a quasi-theory, if not a bad theory altogether. The color is kind of navy-ish.

3.5. **Performative verb hedges**

Certain verbs themselves perform the action they refer to. For example, consider the verb ‘declare’ in “I declare that X is true.” In such statements, the verb itself performs the action of declaring, and linguists refer to such verbs as performatives. In a lecture, one can begin a discussion by saying, “I’d like to discuss X,” and one can indicate that X is only one’s opinion by stating, “I think / believe that...”
A relatively new expression in colloquial English is “I’m just saying,” which is added as an afterthought to distance oneself from the preceding statement; it is like saying, “that’s just an observation” or “I’m just stating that as a possibility.”

I think the teacher looks cute. …. Hey, I’m just saying.

3.6. Other expressions

- at least
- that is
- i.e.,
- should have
- ought to

Other hedges include the colloquial phrases ‘like’ and ‘it’s like,’ which are discussed in the section on discourse markers.

4. Disfluencies and errors

4.1. Pauses, delays

A disfluency (occasionally spelled ‘dysfluency’) is what linguists call those instances when a speaker has trouble thinking of the right expression, or has to go back and correct himself/herself. More often this happens before the predicate, new information, or main idea of a sentence, as you need more time to think of how to formulate and verbalize those ideas and words. A similar phenomenon is the ‘tip of the tongue’ phenomenon, when a speaker is trying to think of the right word, and it seems close or familiar, but cannot find it (“the word is on the tip of my tongue”). For those times when you need an extra second or two to find and articulate the right expression, which of these are better methods? Which do you use?

1. Using pause fillers: uh, um, er, oh... However, using these often or regularly can be distracting, even annoying to listeners, and makes the speaker appear unprepared or lacking in confidence.

2. Using other fillers: okay, you know, well, I mean, like. These can be used for slightly longer pauses, but again, these should not be used too often. Using like is rather colloquial and informal, as a hedge marker (see below), or in giving examples.

3. Apologizing for your speech errors – however, this is not a good idea, because it creates a greater interruption, and it makes you look less self-confident.

4. Moving on to something else

5. Using simpler vocabulary, so you don't have to spend too much mental effort to think of specific vocabulary.
6. **Using silent pauses:** A brief silent pause can be sometimes more effective than *uh, um*... This is often the most preferred strategy for handling disfluencies. For those who are less skilled or experienced in public speaking, learning to use silent pauses instead of filled pauses is a significant challenge that requires some effort and attention. Silent pauses can be an effective way to emphasize a point, or to get the listeners’ attention as you are coming to an important point. In this sample, the pauses are marked with ellipses [...] Utilitarian philosophers claim that the morality of an action is to be evaluated by the outcome of the action. However, there are several problems with this view, as other philosophers like Rawls have pointed out. We operate behind what is called ... the “veil of ignorance,” meaning that we cannot know or predict those outcomes. The second problem is that we fail to treat others with dignity and respect, and only think of our longer term goals. The third is that are decision making processes are often ... clouded by our own psychological biases. Psychologists have provided ample evidence of a number of such biases ... hindsight bias, attribution biases ... self-preservation biases, and others.

4.2. **“Light” vocabulary items**

There are some simpler vocabulary items that you can use sometimes to avoid the mental effort to think of a precise academic term. You can use common nouns like *thing, good, people* instead of specific academic terms; however, overusing them can make you sound less professional or less prepared. Instead of specific verbs, you can rely more on so-called light verbs, which are “light” or general in meaning, are very common words, and can be used in many contexts. However, in a formal presentation, more specific verbs would be better, especially for technical descriptions (e.g., “we conducted a reaction-time experiment” cf. “we did a reaction-time experiment”). So in a lecture or informal talk, *give* would be easier to use, but in a formal presentation, a more specific word would be better, e.g., *contribute, yield, donate*. However, even in a formal presentation, some light verbs or other general purpose words (like those below) are useful for (1) speaking naturally and freely during the presentation, which would be much better than following a script; and (2) for question-and-answer times at the end of the talk.

1. **light verbs:** *be, have, do, make, go, come, run, set, put, get, take, let, become*
2. **common nouns and adjectives:** *good, bad, man / men, woman / women, people, thing*
3. **indefinite pronouns:** *everything, everyone, something, someone, anyone, anything, everywhere, somewhere, anywhere*

4.3. **Error corrections**

Sometimes you have to correct what you have just said, and having to do so may result in disfluencies, errors, or misunderstandings. While these cannot be entirely avoided, they can be minimized or handled more smoothly by using discourse markers like these.

- I mean...
- you know...
- that is...
- that is to say,
- oh, ...
- excuse me...
- I meant...
- or rather...
- let me back up...
- actually...
- let me rephrase that...
5. Discourse markers
Discourse markers are minor grammatical words that we use to indicate pauses, transitions, or other aspects of communication when we are talking. They are unstressed, and occur frequently, in both formal and informal English speech. Each discourse marker typically has multiple related functions. You have probably heard some common markers such as well, like, you know, etc. Below is a list of common discourse markers and their uses. The discourse markers (DM) marked as [colloquial] occur more often in informal, colloquial English speech and have a particularly colloquial style.

5.1. Well
Of course, this has very different meanings as a noun, adjective, or adverb. As a discourse marker, it occurs at the beginning of sentences, clauses, or phrases, and it functions as a response marker. That is, it marks some kind of transition in a response to a question or to a preceding statement.

5.1.1. Unexpected response
Often what a speaker intends to say may be slightly different from what the hearer expects. It can also indicate a response that the speaker knows may be an insufficient response. It may even be a response that the hearer wouldn't like. Thus, it often occurs in discussions in which people share viewpoints, communicate expectations, or even in disagreements and rejections to soften responses.

A: How much education do you think a person needs to get a good job?
B: Oh, definitely a bachelor's degree.
A: Well, I think even more than that. At least a master's degree.

A: She can listen and tell you not only the composer but the name of the piece.
B: Well, that’s no big deal.

A: Who wants to know?
B: Well, I want to know.

A: Can I borrow your textbook?
B: Well, I need it tonight in order to study.

5.1.2. Pause, delay
Sometimes speakers need a couple of seconds to pause to think of what to say. They may also need to hold their turn in the conversation so others won't assume they have finished speaking. So speakers fill the pause with a discourse marker, generally with uh for short pauses and sometimes well for longer pauses. This fits the idea of unexpected or less-than-preferred response, since listeners expect an efficient delivery of information and turn-taking, and well fills these gaps to make one's delivery smoother and more polite.

Well...I don’t know if I can make it to the party tomorrow.
It’s, well, not the best way to do it, but go ahead.

5.1.3. Topic shift
When speakers shift to a new topic or to a different aspect of a topic, they often begin with well to indicate such transitions.
[as people are chatting informally] Well, let's move on to our business at hand. Speakers may shift back to a previous topic of discussion, after a new topic or a digression has come up. Resuming the old topic can be indicated with *well*.

...Well, like I was saying, I think the only difference between our neighborhoods might be the better trash collection in our neighborhood, since...

Sometimes when a conversation fizzles out or degenerates, a speaker may deliberately shift topics using *well*. Occasionally this might be done for a slightly humorous effect with a totally irrelevant new topic.

Well, how about that World Cup soccer?

### 5.1.4. Turn-taking

Speakers take turns in speaking up in conversation. The beginning of a speaker's new turn may be begun with *well*. This may be especially so in a dynamic conversation where a speaker must compete with others for the chance to say something. *Well* allows a person to jump in at an appropriate pause, and buy a few seconds in order to think of what to say.

A: We all used to go camping in the mountains near Denver.
B: Well, I used to do the same thing, too, when I was young.

### 5.1.5. Dispreference signal

In some sentences like commands and disagreements, *well* more politely signals that what the other person has said, or his/her behavior, doesn't fully meet the speaker's desires, expectations, or preferences. Thus, it adds a nuance of impatience or other negative attitude, but more politely so.

Well, hurry up!
Well, I don't think so.

### 5.2. Oh

As in interjection (often written with an exclamation mark), this can indicate surprise, anger, or other strong emotional reactions, as in “Oh, my gosh!” As a regular discourse marker, it indicates a shift in the speaker's thinking, flow of information, or train of thought, as speakers think and plan what they are about to say.

#### 5.2.1. Realization

Speakers indicate realization, shifts of attention, and the need to make a sudden shift in the conversational topic by *oh*.

A. So I was going to see him at the music hall – oh, that reminds me, the London Symphony will be playing there next May.
B. Oh, I didn't know that.

#### 5.2.2. Communication repair

When a speaker realizes that s/he has made a mistake or has misspoken, s/he can quickly break and pause with *oh* to mark a correction.

I think that law was passed in 1976. Oh, maybe it was 1978, I don't remember for sure.

#### 5.2.3. Clarification

Speakers use *oh* to ask for clarification or further information about something that they did not understand. Speakers also use it when they realize or understand something that
they did not understand at first. That is, they clarify the information to themselves as they think through it, and indicate their realization by oh.

A: He sometimes got notices for staying out past curfew.
B: Oh, curfew? What curfew?
A: Well, the police issued a curfew because of the nighttime gang activity, so the children had to be home by 9:00.
B: Oh, I see. All the kids were under curfew.
A: Yeh.

Like the second *oh* in the above passage, speakers may realize or understand something that at first they did not understand properly, or that was contrary to their expectations. Likewise, speakers may realize that their assumptions or expectations were incorrect about what was said or understood. For example, below speakers use *oh* to indicate that they have understood something, that something was unexpected and had to think about it first to understand it, or they realized that they needed to clarify something.

A: How can I get a grant for that?
B: Oh, I didn't realize they gave grants. I'm not the one to ask about that.
A: I saw this guy working as a waiter with a Ph.D.! He couldn't get a good job!
B: Really? What was his Ph.D. in?
A: Oh, I didn't talk to him. My lunch partner told me about him.

5.2.4. Approximation
In the middle of a sentence, *oh* can indicate that what follows is approximate, or one of several possible items.

I'll take, oh, I guess, thirty of them.

5.3. You know (ya know, y'know) [very colloquial]

5.3.1. Familiarity
The discourse marker *you know* is often said quickly, like *y'know*. Speakers use you know to indicate that they assume the listener is somehow familiar with the information. It basically conveys the sense of “You probably know / are familiar with this already; I know you're not dumb, but I'm telling you; of course”.

That idiot used to be our president, you know.
You know, that really bugs me.

5.3.2. Ending a point
Speakers can end a sentence with *you know* to indicate or emphasize that they've made a point.

You can't wait forever, you know.

5.3.3. Solicit affirmation
At the end of a sentence (or with question intonation), you know can be used by the speaker to check if the listener agrees or is following what the speaker has said. This use is somewhat similar to a tag question or “right?”

Well, you have to go thru the subway tunnel to get to the station, you know. But when I was already in the tunnel, I realized that I didn’t have my wallet, so I had to backtrack.

In the form of a question, or in the phrase *you know what*, the speaker can check the
listener for his/her interest, or agreement or willingness for the speaker to continue.

A: You know what?
B: Hmm?
A: I feel like ordering pizza right now.

5.4. I mean [colloquial]
This is roughly equivalent to “that is, in other words”. It allows the speaker to rephrase his/her words (for clarification or communication repair), to clarify his/her meaning, or to elaborate a point by adding additional explanation.

I don’t know the priest, I mean, the pastor, but I see him all the time in the coffee shop.
It’s to my advantage, I mean, it’s to our mutual advantage, to work together on the project.
She was angry, I mean, she was really indignant about the whole matter.

5.5. Like [very colloquial]
This word has many meanings as a noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and conjunction. As a discourse marker, it can be used to indicate further information to support or explain a point. This is very common in colloquial English. Some teenagers and young adults tend to overuse it, to the point of putting it in almost every sentence, which can be annoying to others. It is better to use it conservatively in academic lectures; otherwise, the lecturer may seem too colloquial, or may seem like s/he is simply pretending to be “cool.”

5.5.1. Focus marker
More often, as a discourse marker, speakers use like to focus the listener’s attention on new or important information in a sentence. It marks whatever new information follows as further detail, description, explanation, or examples of the previous point. It can also add a little emphasis to the following information. Like can precede any kind of items, e.g., in the predicate, a whole predicate, a whole phrase.

I saw a bunch of fish in the little pond, like, dozens of them, all fighting for the food.
We used to visit my uncle in Maryland, and this guy was like crazy. I mean, he would like talk to himself and have conversations with himself all the time. And as he got older he got worse, ‘cuz he’d like wear women’s clothes when no one was around. (‘cuz = because)

5.5.2. It’s like [very colloquial]
Similar to the focus marker like, this highlights new or important information. But it’s like is used to begin a sentence or clause and seems to put emphasis on the entire sentence or clause.

I wake up, and it’s like no one’s at home, and I have no idea where anyone is.

5.5.3. Softener & approximator
Often like in the middle of a sentence can function to “soften” or hedge a request, to make it more polite. Also in the middle of a sentence, it may indicate that what follows is an approximation or somewhat figurative ( = “so to speak, as it where”).

Could you like loan me a hundred bucks?
I must’ve missed like 40 questions on that text.

5.6. Uh, um
Uh indicates brief pauses, and gives the speaker a chance to plan what s/he is going to
say. It’s helpful to use this and other pause markers in order to hold the listener’s attention. However, excessive use of these pause markers can indicate nervousness or may be distracting or annoying for listeners. *Uh* and *um* are useful for brief pauses, or searching for a word to say.

I, uh, want to talk to you today about scabies. For longer pauses, repeated use of the same pause markers can also be distracting. For slightly longer pauses, *well* is often used. For even longer pauses (as when the speaker can’t think of what to say, or are hesitant to mention an item), speakers tend to use a variety of discourse markers to avoid sounding too repetitive.

I, uh, want to talk to you about, uh...um...well...I mean...uh, about marriage.

As in the above examples, *uh* can also signal that the items to follow, or the pause itself, is unexpected, undesired or less than preferable.

5.7. Now
This indicates a shift in the conversation to a new topic, or a return to a previous topic.

Now, as I was saying before...

5.8. Okay

5.8.1. Receipt of information
A speaker can use okay to signal that s/he has heard or understood what another person has said.

A. Your mother wants you to come home.
   B. Okay.

5.8.2. Closing
Okay can signal the speaker’s desire to “wrap up” or finish a conversational topic and switch to a new topic, or to wrap up the conversation.

Okay, let’s get going, shall we?

5.9. Feedback markers

5.9.1. Yeh / yeah, um, hmm
These feedback markers indicate that one is paying attention to the speaker or agrees with the speaker.

5.9.2. Huh?
This indicates surprise, or asks the speaker to repeat.

5.9.3. Huh, hmm
With a short falling intonation, this indicates disapproval, surprise, or other mild emotional reactions. With a longer falling intonation, it indicates interest, surprise, or feedback. Other kinds of intonation on these feedback markers (like exaggerated rising or falling intonation) can convey other attitudes such as disbelief, curiosity, sarcasm, etc.
5.10. **Though**
At the end of a sentence, this works like a sentence adverb, indicating the speaker's attitude toward the sentence. Like the conjunction though, its meaning is similar to *but* or *however*.

I don’t really know, though.

5.11. **Gosh [colloquial]**
As an interjection / exclamation, this indicates surprise. As a discourse marker, this indicates that the speaker is not familiar with the information, that it is new to him/her.

Gosh, I dunno. (dunno = don’t know)

5.12. **Heck [colloquial]**
*Heck* and related words as interjections / exclamations indicate strong emotional reactions. As a discourse marker, it indicates that the information is known to the speaker and therefore obvious, or it conveys the speaker’s certainty.

Heck, I dunno

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6. **Korean versus English markers**
Korean has the following expressions, for which English has no direct equivalent. These may lead Korean speakers to use Konglish transitional expressions, or to feel unable to express their flow of thought in English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Korean marker</th>
<th>English equivalence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NOUN+은/는</strong> (e.g., on a sentence subject or topic)</td>
<td>No equivalent. We may use contrastive or emphatic stress on a noun, including a noun at the beginning of a sentence, or the new topic transition intonation (see the section on topic transitions above). Otherwise, we simply start a sentence with a new noun subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...경우에요</td>
<td>Literally, “in case of, in X case.” This is colloquial – less common in formal speaking, and rare in academic writing. It can signal examples in colloquial English, and are thus okay for lectures. But it can also express a conditional; e.g., “In case of fire, break glass” = “If there is a fire...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>증거 (e.g., 증거로 해서...)</td>
<td>Literally, “as evidence,” which is pure Konglish, not English. More appropriate would be “as an example,” “evidence for X comes from...”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...있다</td>
<td>This translates as “have” or “there is/are.” These are fine in colloquial English, and are thus okay for lectures, but are less common in formal English or academic writing. The phrase “there is/are” is mainly for shifting to a new topic. Instead of using “there is/are” excessively, one can use other intransitive verbs, e.g., “there arose, there came, there appeared...”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A couple of Korean expressions for examples or evidence do not translate directly into English, at least not so well. One is 경우에는 = “case, in case of”:

내 경우에; 그럴 경우에; 서 경우에(는)

Koreans may try to express this in expressions like ‘in my case’ which is colloquial (which may be okay occasionally in a lecture), or slightly awkward expressions like these, which can be reworded. In fact, ‘in case of’ sounds more like a conditional in English, e.g., signs stating, “In case of an emergency, fasten your seat belts.”

In (the) case of Korea
→ In Korea...; In Korea's situation...; In the Korean situation...

In the case of Fukushima, the reactor was not built to withstand a major catastrophe.
→ In Fukushima, the reactor was not built... / The reactor in Fukushima was not built...

Another is 증거 as in 증거로 해서..., meaning ‘as evidence’. This does not translate into English. Likewise, ‘as support’ does not work well in developing argumentation, and can sound slightly awkward. Such expressions need to be reworded.

As evidence, we can look to recent studies showing that...
→ Recent studies provide evidence that...
→ Evidence for this comes from recent studies which show that...

As support / In support of this claim, a recent study found that...
→ A recent study provides further support that...
→ More support for this comes from a recent study...
References

A number of linguistics researchers have analyzed these kinds of expressions, and they often use rather differing terminology. This mainly falls within the linguistic domains of pragmatics (the study of language use in context) and text linguistics. Some representative researchers are cited below, so this is by no means a complete list of references.

The section on hedges is based on Lakoff and others (Brown, 1987; Lakoff, 1975), and some of the emphasis markers, sentential adverbials, and hedges are drawn from work in text linguistics and second language writing (e.g., Hinkel, 2002, 2013). The section on discourse markers is drawn from a whole set of literature on this topic (e.g., Hansen, 1998; Schiffrin, 1988), and relevance markers are discussed in analyses of classroom discourse (Deroey & Taverniers, 2012). The section on disfluencies comes from psychology research on speech production and discourse linguistics (e.g., Arnold, Tanenhaus, Altmann, & Fagnano, 2004). Some classroom management expressions are based on 영어강의 이렇게 준비하자 (How to Prepare for English Lecture), pg. 25-33 기획, 집필 허명수, 조대연, 이관희, Abraham Lee, Scott Lincoln. The section on question types is drawn from (1) the famous Bloom taxonomy in educational psychology, and classifications of types of lecture-discussion questions (Brookfield & Preskill, 2005; Harris, 2002; Segrist, 2010).


