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#### **Abstract**

This paper aims at presenting some theoretical considerations on English idioms and colloquial expressions in general. The discussion is based on the author's foreign language learning and teaching experience and a review of what some renown linguists say on the issue. In the first place, the notions of formal and informal language and literal and nonliteral meaning are explained. Then the concepts of euphemism, idiom, metaphor, phrasal verb, proverb, and slang are presented as they occur in informal or colloquial speech and writing. Finally, it is concluded that these expressions are language- and culture-specific; therefore, they are usually learned through interaction with native speakers of a language, or they need to be taught to foreign language learners and their meaning often needs to be looked up in a dictionary.

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**English Idioms and Colloquial Expressions** 

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Learning a foreign language well is more than just learning the sounds, grammar and vo-

cabulary of a language (Grammatical or linguistic competence); it demands that you also

acquire or learn (a) the ability to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a

meaningful whole out of a series of utterances (Discourse competence); (b) knowledge of

the sociocultural rules of language and of discourse, i.e., an understanding of the social con-

text in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and

the function of the interaction (Sociolinguistic competence); and (c) strategies to compen-

sate for breakdowns in communication due to imperfect knowledge of language rules or

performance factors such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention (Strategic competence).

These four types of competence together are referred to as Communicative Competence

(Brown, 1994; Canale & Swain, 1980).

In this paper, I am going to be concerned with some aspects of sociolinguistic compe-

tence. In particular, I will concentrate first on the differences between formal and informal

English and the notions of literal versus nonliteral meaning. Then I will touch on some

manifestations of informal English, such as euphemisms, idioms, metaphors, phrasal verbs,

proverbs, and slang

<sup>1</sup> **Discourse** means everything from simple spoken conversation to lengthy written texts.

No one speaks his or her native language in the same manner all the time; we all gen-

erally adapt our language to the topic being dealt with, the setting or situation in which we

find ourselves, the social, political or religious status of person we are addressing (ad-

dressee) or degree of familiarity that we have with that person (Zapata Becerra, 2000). For

example, adults speak one way to children and another way to adult friends and colleagues.

What varies in these diverse situations is not simply tone of voice and vocabulary (the in-

sertion of please and thank you, for example, in children's exchanges with adults) but syn-

tax as well: the English professor who studiously adheres to noun-pronoun agreement rules

when addressing students (Everyone has his or her weakness) may well kick up his or her

heels at home and join the majority of English speakers in employing the "singular their"

(Everyone has their weakness) (The Guide, n.d).

Similarly, when a teacher is lecturing, he or she pronounces quite carefully and slowly,

avoids using contractions, tries to use syntactic constructions and words that can be under-

stood by everybody, and so on (formal style). But as soon as that same person meets his or

her friends at a party, he or she will speak more carelessly and rapidly, will use a lot of con-

tractions, syntactic constructions and words typical of the situation or setting (informal

style) (Zapata Becerra, 2000).

The variations of a person's speech or writing depending on the context in which the

language is being used are referred to as speech styles, or simply styles.<sup>2</sup> Although not all

<sup>2</sup> Some linguists use the term **register** in this sense (cf. Richards et al. 1992).

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linguists agree on the types of styles and their characterization, we have to admit that we all

automatically adjust our language to the situations and people we deal with (Zapata Be-

cerra, 2000). Speech styles are often expressed in terms of **degrees of formality**, namely,

formal, informal (or colloquial), and intimate. Following is a brief description of the main

characteristics of formal English and informal English.

To start with, **formal English** is used in academic writing (e.g., essays, reports, resumes,

theses, and the like), and formal social events such as public speeches, graduation ceremo-

nies, and assemblies depending upon the topic. It is often characterized by the following

features:

a) It is more commonly used in writing than in speech.

b) It follows the conventions of "standard" language; i.e., it uses language forms that

often grammatically and lexically considered "correct" or agreed upon by most edu-

cated users of the language. For example,

b.1) Sentences are often long and complex;

b.2) Subject-verb agreement is observed;

b.3) Contractions are avoided;

b.4) The passive voice is often used (making it more impersonal);

b.5) It is better organized and thought out;

b.6) The past tense of modal auxiliaries is common, and so on.

c) Clear and precise vocabulary is used; hence, clichés<sup>3</sup>, colloquialisms, idioms, phrasal verbs, proverbs and slang are avoided. Likewise, a lot of synonyms are used in order

to avoid the repetition of the same words. Also, much vocabulary derived from

French and Latin is used.

d) Polite words and formulas like Please, Thank you, Madam, Sir, Mr. /Mrs.

/Miss/Ms, Would you mind...?, May I...?, Could you please...?, etc. are often used

in speech.

e) When spoken, words are more carefully and more slowly pronounced than in infor-

mal English.

In contrast, informal English (also referred to as colloquial English) is "relaxed and

friendly without being restricted by rules of correct behavior" (Longman Dictionary of

Contemporary English, 2000). It is suitable for ordinary conversations or letters to friends.

Informal English is characterized by the following features:

a) It is more used in everyday speech (esp., conversations) than in writing.

b) It often violates the conventions of "standard" language. For example:

b.1) Sentences are often short (or choppy) and simple;

b.2) Subject-verb agreement is not necessarily observed;

b.3) Contractions and acronyms are very common;

<sup>3</sup> *Clichés* are expressions that are overused (i.e., are used too often and have lost most of their meaning) (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2000). They are usually as metaphors, idioms, proverbs,

and so on.

b.4) The active voice is often used;

b.5) The present tense of modal auxiliaries is common, and so on.

b.6) It is less organized and thought out;

c) Vocabulary use is somewhat liberal; hence, lots of clichés, colloquialisms, idioms,

phrasal verbs, proverbs and slang are often used. Also, vocabulary derived from

French and Latin is not common.

d) Words that express rapport and familiarity are often used in speech, such as

brother, buddy, man, you know, and the like.

e) When spoken, words are less carefully and more quickly pronounced (often

chopped) than in formal English (Lesson Plan, n.d.).

**Literal Meaning and Nonliteral Meaning** 

In all languages, the meaning of words and sentences can be literal or nonliteral (Za-

pata Becerra, 2000). On the one hand, we say that a word has a literal meaning if we can

easily identify its referent; i.e., we know to what person, animal, thing or event it makes

reference, regardless of the fact that the person, animal, thing or event is real or imaginary;

e.g., man, dog, table, party. Similarly, we say that an expression or a sentence has a literal

meaning if we can understand its global meaning because we know the meaning of the in-

dividual words that form that expression or sentence; e.g., A bottle of milk; The sun is shin-

ing; The dog chased the cat (Zapata Becerra, 2000).

On the other hand, we say that a word has a **nonliteral** (or **figurative**) **meaning** if we

cannot easily identify its referent because it depends on the context in which we find it;

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e.g., spring, boot; Dr. Smith is a butcher. Likewise, we say that an expression or a sentence

has a nonliteral meaning if we cannot guess its global meaning, even if we know the mean-

ing of the individual words that make it up. That is to say, its meaning depends on the con-

text or situation in which we use or encounter the expression, and consequently it has to be

learned as a whole; e.g., This exercise is a piece of pie; I put my foot in my mouth; John

spilled the beans. (Zapata Becerra, 2000).

Among the language forms which usually have nonliteral meaning, we find euphe-

misms, idioms, metaphors, phrasal verbs, proverbs, and slang. They are part of what we call

informal language and often used in colloquial speech. Below I describe each one of these

language forms.

**Euphemisms** 

In order to avoid the use of taboo words (i.e., terms which are not often used in public

because they, and/or the things they refer to, are seen as offensive, obscene, or somewhat

disturbing to listeners or readers), people use euphemisms (Fromkin & Rodman, 1998;

O'Grady et al., 1997). A **euphemism** is a word or an expression that replaces a taboo word

or serves to avoid frightening or unpleasant subjects (Fromkin & Rodman, 1998). For ex-

ample, in many societies death is feared; thus instead of using the verb to die, people are

more likely to use the phrasal verbs to pass on or to pass away, or metaphors such as to

give up the ghost. Similarly, in order to avoid taboo words that relate to the bodily func-

tions, intimacy or private parts, people use Latinate terms<sup>4</sup> or euphemisms like the ones presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Some euphemisms and their meanings

| Euphemism                          | Meaning                               |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| privates (or private parts)        | male or female genitals               |
| to make love                       | to engage in sexual intercourse       |
| to perspire                        | to sweat                              |
| to pass away (or to pass on)       | to die                                |
| collateral losses                  | civilian casualties                   |
| to take a leak                     | to urinate                            |
| funeral director                   | mortician or undertaker               |
| sales representative               | salesperson                           |
| to have the telephone out of order | to have the telephone service cut off |

We must warn that, from a linguistic point of view, the words of a language are not intrinsically clean, dirty, good or bad; they simply reflect individual or societal values and prejudices. The filth or beauty of a word resides in the ear or mind of the listener or reader, not in the word itself.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> We should also note that the Latinate terms are used mostly by educated people not the common people.

**Idioms** 

Idioms (or idiomatic expressions) are fixed sequences of words (phrases or sen-

tences), with a fixed meaning that is not composed of the literal meaning of the individual

words (cf. Cipollone et al., 1998); e.g., to kick the bucket means 'to die'; to pull someone's

leg means 'to tease someone'; He's in my bad books means 'He's in disfavor with me'.

According to Long et al. (1979), **idioms** usually have the following **characteristics**:

1. Most idioms have only a nonliteral or metaphorical meaning; i.e., one cannot often

discover their meanings by looking up the individual words in an ordinary dictionary. E.g.,

The thieves took everything, so I was left really up a gum tree (= in a difficult situation).

However, some idioms have both a literal and a nonliteral meaning; e.g., He spilled the

beans can mean (a) literally: 'He allowed the beans to get out of a container and fall on the

floor or other surface; (b) nonliterally: 'He revealed a secret'.

2. Most idioms are more or less invariable or fixed, both in wording and in certain

grammatical ways. That is to say, they function like lexical units or wholes. Because

of this:

a. We cannot often make substitutions of synonymous words into idioms without

loss of their idiomaticity or metaphorical meaning. E.g., in the idiom John gave

up the ghost (= 'John died'), we cannot replace ghost by apparition and say John

gave up the apparition; it would no longer mean 'to die'.

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b. We cannot often introduce modifiers (e.g., adjectives and adverbs) into idioms.

E.g., in the idiom He let the cat out of the sack (= 'he revealed a secret'), we

cannot say He let the black cat out of the sack; it is no longer considered an id-

iom.

c. They cannot often be used in the passive. E.g., Mrs. Jones gave up the ghost can-

not be transformed into The ghost was given up by Mrs. Jones; it is no longer an

idiom.

d. Some idioms have slightly variant forms. E.g., We can say until kingdom come or

till kingdom come (='for a very long time in vain') as in You can protest till

kingdom come; however, no one will pay attention to you. Similarly, you can say

up to the/one's ears/eyes/neck/eyeballs (= 'wholly concerned with something,

esp. something troubling, work, business, or debt') as in The secretary is up to

her ears (in) addressing and stamping letters. Another example is to be in some-

one's good/bad books (= 'to be in favor/disfavor with someone').

e. Most idioms are entered in dictionaries or the lexicon as single items of vocabu-

lary.

3. Most idioms belong to informal spoken or written language; therefore, they are gen-

erally avoided in formal speech or writing.

4. Most idioms are language- and culture-specific; i.e., they make sense or meaning mainly to the speakers of a given language or members of a given culture. Therefore, most idioms cannot be translated word for word into other languages.

### Metaphor

A **metaphor** (or **metaphorical expression**) is a word, phrase or sentence which is used instead of other more common words, in order to describe or refer to a person, object, place, concept, etc. by likening them to other persons, objects, places, concepts, etc. in certain particular contexts (cf. Pei, 1966). The nonliteral meaning expressed through a metaphor is referred to as **metaphorical meaning**. For example, the following expressions are metaphors in English.

**Table 2: Some metaphors and their meanings** 

| Metaphor                         | Meaning  |
|----------------------------------|--|
| the big drink                    | the ocean or the sea   |
| He's in the prime of life.       | He's very young.   |
| She is the apple of my eyes.     | I love her more than anything else.  |
| That car is a lemon.             | That car often breaks down and requires constant repairs.                        |
| The stork is visiting Mary again | Mary is (pregnant and) expecting a child/baby again.                             |
| Walls have ears.                 | Others might listen to what you're saying, even if they're not in the same room. |

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Metaphors can be considered an expressive and subtle (sometimes indirect) way to say

things or make reference to particular persons, objects, animals, places, concepts, ideas, etc.

Metaphors can be used for many purposes; e.g., to embellish our speech or writing, to

sound derogatory or pejorative, to praise someone or something, to sound humorous, etc.

Notice the following metaphors:

*It makes my heart ache to see her suffer.* = It makes me sad to see her suffer.

*Poor Mrs. Smith has gone to meet her Maker.* = Mrs. Smith has died.

That little girl is an angel. = That little girl is a beautiful, innocent or kind person.

It is important to note that many metaphors are idioms. The main difference between

these two types of expressions is that idioms are generally fixed sequences of words which

function as wholes, while metaphors are not necessarily fixed sequences of words. That is

to say, metaphors are more flexible expressions both from a lexical and a grammatical point

of view.

**Phrasal Verbs** 

Phrasal verbs are lexical units formed by a verb plus a preposition. The preposition has

an adverbial function; therefore, it is often referred to as an adverbial particle. Phrasal

verbs may have a literal meaning, but more often than not they have a nonliteral meaning,

which cannot be guessed from knowing the meaning of its component elements; e.g., I ran

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across a strange piece of art in an old shop. No one knows what brought about his anger.

John is always sucking up to the boss. I won't put up with your rudeness.

**Proverbs** 

A proverb is "a short well-known statement that contains advice about life in general"

(Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2000); e.g., Every cloud has a silver lin-

ing. There's many a slip between cup and lip. They are definitely culture-specific and can-

not often be translated literally into another language; instead, equivalent expressions must

be used. E.g., "No hay mal que por bien no venga." "Del dicho al hecho hay mucho tre-

cho."

Slang

Slang is the style or register of language that consists of terms that can substitute for

standard terms of the same conceptual meaning, but have stronger emotive impact than the

standard terms, in order to express an attitude of self-assertion toward conventional order

and moral authority and often an affinity with or membership in occupational, ethnic, or

other social groups, and which ranges in acceptability from sexual and scatological crudity

to audacious wittiness (cf. Chapman, 1987).

Mario Pei (1966) notes the following **characteristics of slang**:

a. It is non-standard vocabulary characterized by extreme informality;

b. Its currency is not limited to a region;

- c. It is composed of coinages or arbitrarily changed words, clipped forms, extravagant forced, or facetious (= amusing) figures of speech, verbal novelties;
- d. It is short-lived and therefore subject to decline into use;
- e. Generally, slang is only intelligible to those people associated with the group or groups who use it.

For example, slang is very common among adolescent and college students, in the army, among gang members, etc. O'Grady et al. (1997) gives us some examples of slang terms used in a US college (See Table 3 below).

Table 3: Some examples of American English slang.

| Slang Term | Meaning                | Slang Term           | Meaning        |
|------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------|
| buzz       | feeling of pleasure or | bummed               | depressed      |
|            | excitement (e.g., af-  |                      |                |
|            | ter drinking some      |                      |                |
|            | alcohol)               |                      |                |
| bent       | angry                  | booze                | alcohol        |
| fake-bake  | tanning salon          | pot                  | marijuana      |
| gork       | nerd                   | sucky                | awful          |
| chicken    | coward                 | can                  | bathroom       |
| homeboy    | very close male        | to have missile lock | to concentrate |
|            | friend                 |                      |                |

It must be warned that slang terms vary from region to region and from time to time.

Also, the practitioners of almost any trade and occupation usually have their own slangy expressions.

### **Conclusions**

English idioms and colloquial expressions are usually part of informal English. They have a figurative meaning and are considered to be language- and culture-specific; i.e., they have meaning or sense mostly among the speakers of a given language or members of a given culture. They are usually learned through interaction with native speakers of a language, or they have to be explicitly taught to people learning a foreign or second language, or the learners have to look them up in a dictionary. Likewise, idioms and colloquial expressions cannot often be translated word for word from one language into another. They generally appear in informal speech and writing.

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# **Appendix 1: Informal "Contractions"**

| Contraction  | Pronunciation                 | Uncontracted      | Examples                  |
|--------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
|              |                               | Form              |                           |
| 'bout        | baut                          | about             | He was talkin'            |
|              |                               |                   | 'bout you.                |
| betcha       | ˈbetʃə                        | bet you           | I betcha you              |
|              |                               |                   | dunno it.                 |
| 'cause, cos, | 'kəːz, 'kɒz, 'kʌz             | because           | I left 'cause             |
| cuz          |                               |                   | you didn't                |
|              |                               |                   | come on time.             |
| c'mere       | kə'mıər                       | Come here!        | John, c'mere!             |
| c'mon        | kə'mɒn                        | Come on!          | C'mon, John!              |
| could've,    | 'kʊdəv, 'kʊrəv, 'kʊrə         | could have (+     | We could've               |
| could of,    | kədəv, kərəv, kərə            | pp. form of       |                           |
| coulda       |                               | verbs)            | instead.                  |
| couldja      | ˈkʊdʒə                        | Could you?        | Couldja help              |
|              |                               |                   | me?                       |
| couldn't've  | 'kʊdn̞təv, 'kʊdn̞tə, 'kʊdn̞ə  | couldn't have (+  | He couldn't've            |
| couldn't of, |                               | pp. form of       | done that.                |
| couldnta     |                               | verbs)            |                           |
| couldna      | Harridge 4Ca                  | G 11 2 0          | C 11 . 1                  |
| couldntcha   | ˈkʊdn̞tʃə                     | Couldn't you?     | Couldntcha                |
| 1,           | din day day                   | Da 9              | go?                       |
| d'you        | dju:, dʒʊ, dʒə<br>ˈdɪdʒə, dʒə | Do you?           | D'you smoke?              |
| didja        | dıd 'jæv, dzæv                | Did you? Did you  | Didja see him? Didj'ave a |
| didj'ave     | did jæv, djæv                 | Did you have?     | Didj'ave a good time?     |
| dontcha      | ˈdəʊntʃə                      | Don't you?        | Dontcha love              |
| dontena      | uoongo                        | Don't you?        | me?                       |
| dunno        | dəˈnəʊ, rəˈnəʊ                | don't know        | I dunno.                  |
| gimme        | 'gımı                         | give me           | Gimme love.               |
| gonna        | ˈgɒnə, ˈgʌnə                  | going to (+ verb) | I'm gonna                 |
| 89           | 3 · ·, g                      | 50mg to (1 1010)  | sleep.                    |
| gotta        | 'gatə, 'garə                  | got to (+ verb)   | I've gotta go             |
| 6            | ˈgɒtə, ˈgɒrə                  | 8-1-13 ( 220)     | now.                      |
| hafta        | 'hæftə                        | have to (+ verb)  | I have to eat             |
|              |                               |                   | now.                      |
|              |                               |                   | We have to go             |

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> These contractions are often used in informal spoken language; they should **never** be used in formal writing.

| 1             | III make                           | 1 (               | now.               |
|---------------|------------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| hasta         | 'hæstə                             | has to (+ verb)   | John has to eat    |
|               |                                    |                   | now.               |
|               |                                    |                   | She has to go      |
| 1 1'          | 11 1                               | II 1: 1 0         | now.               |
| howdja        | 'haodʒə                            | How did you?      | Howdja get         |
| 1 . 1         |                                    | 1: 1 6            | here?              |
| kinda         | kaındə                             | kind of           | I'm kinda sad.     |
| letcha        | ˈletʃə                             | let you           | I'll letcha do it. |
| lemme         | 'lemı                              | Let me            | Lemme see it.      |
| lotsa         | 'latsə, 'lɒtsə                     | lots of           | He ate lotsa       |
|               |                                    |                   | grapes.            |
| lotta         | 'latə, 'larə                       | lot of            | I need a lotta     |
| -             | 'lotə, 'lorə                       |                   | help.              |
| meetcha       | ˈmiːtʃə                            | meet you          | I'll meetcha at    |
|               |                                    |                   | three.             |
| might've,     | 'maitəv, 'mairəv, 'mairə           | might have (+     | We might've        |
| might of,     |                                    | pp. form of       | done it.           |
| mighta        |                                    | verbs)            |                    |
| must've must  | 'mastəv, 'mastə                    | must have (+ pp.  | She must've        |
| of, musta     |                                    | form of verbs)    |                    |
| mustn't of,   | 'masṇtəv, 'masṇəv, 'masṇtə, 'masṇə | mustn't have (+   |                    |
| mustn't've,   |                                    | pp. form of       | hit it.            |
| mustnta       |                                    | verbs)            |                    |
| needja        | 'ni:dʒə                            | need you          | I needja.          |
| oughta        | 'atə, 'arə, 'btə, 'brə             | ought to (+ verb) | We oughta go       |
| 1 11          | 'orte, 'orre                       |                   | home.              |
| should've,    | ˈʃʊdəv, ˈʃʊɾəv, ˈʃʊɾə              | should have (+    | They should've     |
| should of,    | ∫ədəv, ∫ərəv, ∫ərə                 | pp. form of       | run.               |
| shoulda       | 16 1 4 16 1 4                      | verbs)            | Y 1 11 1.1         |
| shouldn't've, | ˈʃʊdntəv, ˈʃʊdntə                  | shouldn't have    | I shouldn't've     |
| shouldn't of, |                                    | (+ pp. form of    | run.               |
| shouldnta     | (4 5)                              | verbs)            | XX7 - 2            |
| sorta         | soirtə, soirrə (AmE)               | sort of           | We're sorta        |
|               | 'sɔːtə, sɔːrə (BrE)                |                   | bored.             |
| supposta,     | 'spəʊstə, 'spəʊstʊ                 | supposed to       | He s'posta be      |
| s'posta       |                                    | 1                 | here by five.      |
| useta         | 'juːstə, 'juːstʊ                   | used to           | I useta live       |
|               |                                    |                   | here.              |
| waddaya       | 'wɒrəjə, 'wɑrəjə, 'wʌrəjə          | What are          | Waddaya say?       |
|               |                                    | you? What do      | Waddaya            |
|               |                                    | you?              | sayin'?            |

| wanna    | 'wanə, 'wanə, 'wanə         | want to (+ verb)                     | I wanna go home.                         |
|----------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| wantcha  | 'wantʃə, 'wɒntʃə<br>'wʌntʃə | want you                             | I wantcha.                               |
| watcha   | 'wotfə, 'watfə, 'watfə      | what you, what you're, What are you? | Whatcha said isn't true. Whatcha sayin'? |
| what'll  | 'wotł, 'warł, 'warł         | What will?                           | What'll you do?                          |
| when'll  | 'wen <sup>‡</sup>           | When will?                           | When'll you come back?                   |
| wheredja | 'wɛərdʒə                    | Where do you?                        | Wheredja live?                           |
| where'll | 'wɛərəł                     | Where will?                          | Where'll they go?                        |
| why'll   | 'waił                       | Why will?                            | Why'll I do it?                          |
| wontcha  | 'wəuntʃə                    | Won't you?                           | Wontcha help me?                         |
| wouldja  | ˈwʊdʒə, dʒə                 | Would you?                           | Wouldja do it?                           |
| y'all    | joł, jo:ł                   | you (pl.), you all<br>(in Texas)     | Y'all know that.                         |

# Appendix 2: Exercises on English and Spanish Idioms and Colloquial Expressions

A. Give the appropriate *Spanish equivalent* of the following English idioms and colloquial expressions.

| Watch out or they will <b>clip</b> you |  |
|--|--|
| at that bar.                           |  |
| My date for the dance was a            |  |
| cold fish.                             |  |
| Our team <b>creamed</b> them badly.    |  |
| Mary has a <b>crush</b> on Paul.       |  |
| I need some <b>dough</b> before I can  |  |
| go Christmas shopping.                 |  |
|  |  |
| The addict needs another <b>fix</b> .  |  |
| Paul <b>cut/ditched class</b> today.   |  |
| John went to jail for buying a         |  |
| hot car stereo.                        |  |
| This computer program has a            |  |
| glitch.                                |  |
| His salary is twenty <b>grand</b> .    |  |
| Out of sight, out of mind.             |  |
| Every cloud has a silver lining.       |  |
| His mannerisms suck.                   |  |
| I'm <b>beat</b> !                      |  |
| That <b>pisses</b> me <b>off</b> .     |  |
| John is sure <b>thick</b> .            |  |
| Have a <b>splash</b> while it lasts.   |  |

B. Give the appropriate *English equivalent* of the following Spanish idioms and colloquial expressions.

| Del dicho al hecho hay mucho      |  |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| trecho.                           |  |
| Juan habla hasta por los codos.   |  |
| Vamos a echar una cana al aire.   |  |
| Cuando hay santos nuevos los      |  |
| viejos no hacen milagro.          |  |
| Aquí hay gato encerrado.          |  |
| Antes de que te cases, mira lo    |  |
| que haces.                        |  |
| Este trago va por cuenta de la    |  |
| casa.                             |  |
| No me tomes el pelo.              |  |
| A Juan lo agarraron con las ma-   |  |
| nos en la masa.                   |  |
| ¿Quién te ha dado velas en este   |  |
| entierro?                         |  |
| Al mal tiempo, buena cara.        |  |
| Pasé la materia de chiripa.       |  |
| Al que madruga Dios lo ayuda.     |  |
| Metí la pata.                     |  |
| Estoy entre la espada y la pared. |  |
| Juan compró su casa con el su-    |  |
| dor de su frente.                 |  |
| No le eches la culpa a María.     |  |