

**UNDERSTANDING
AND USING**

**ENGLISH
GRAMMAR**

Second Edition

TEACHER'S GUIDE
Volume B



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Volume B**

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PRENTICE HALL REGENTS
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

Editorial/production supervision: *Janet Johnston*
Interior design: *Rqs Herion Freese*
Cover design: *Joel Mitnick Design*
Manufacturing buyers: *Ray Keating, Lori Bulwin*



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A Division of Simon & Schuster
Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey 07632

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Printed in the United States of America

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

ISBN 0-13-944018-6

Prentice-Hall International (UK) Limited, *London*
Prentice-Hall of Australia Pty. Limited, *Sydney*
Prentice-Hall Canada Inc., *Toronto*
Prentice-Hall Hispanoamericana, S.A., *Mexico*
Prentice-Hall of India Private Limited, *New Delhi*
Prentice-Hall of Japan, Inc., *Tokyo*
Simon & Schuster Asia Pte. Ltd., *Singapore*
Editora Prentice-Hall do Brasil, Ltda., *Rio de Janeiro*

11/10/16

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Preface

This *Teacher's Guide* is intended as a practical aid to teachers. You can turn to it for notes on the content of a unit and how to approach the exercises, for suggestions for classroom activities, and for answers to the exercises in the main text and to the Guided Study practices in the workbooks.

General teaching information can be found in the introduction. It includes:

- the rationale and general aims of *Understanding and Using English Grammar*
- classroom techniques for presenting charts and using exercises
- suggestions on the use of the workbook in connection with the main text
- comments on differences between American and British English
- a key to the pronunciation symbols used in this *Guide*.

The rest of the *Guide* contains notes on charts and exercises.

The notes about the charts may include:

- suggestions for presenting the information to students
- points to emphasize
- common problems to anticipate
- assumptions underlying the contents
- additional background notes on grammar and usage

The notes that accompany the exercises may include:

- the focus of the exercise
- suggested techniques as outlined in the introduction
- possible specialized techniques for particular exercises
- points to emphasize
- problems to anticipate
- assumptions
- answers
- expansion activities
- item notes on cultural content, vocabulary, and idiomatic usage. (Some of these item notes are specifically intended to aid any teachers who are non-native speakers of English.)

This *Teacher's Guide* is divided into two volumes. *Volume A* contains the introduction and the notes and answers for Chapters 1 through 4 and Appendix 1. *Volume B* contains the notes and answers for Chapters 5 through 10.



Introduction

General Aims of *Understanding and Using English Grammar*

The principal aim of *Understanding and Using English Grammar* is, simply put, to provide review and reinforcement of basic English structures and, upon this foundation, to enable the students to expand their performance repertoire in all skill areas. The text seeks to apprise English language students of certain grammatical features of high frequency and utility in English. As learners become aware of these structures, they begin to see and hear them more easily. This can lead, in turn, to more success in using the structures naturally and appropriately in their own speaking and writing, especially if they are provided with numerous practice opportunities. The exercises provide practice in listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, since grammar underlies all of them.

The text depends upon a partnership with a teacher, for the teacher animates and directs the students' language-learning experiences. In practical terms, the aim of the text is to support teachers by providing a substantial base of material to be used creatively according to their needs and preferences.

Classroom Techniques

Following are some techniques that have proven useful. *Suggestions for Presenting the Grammar Charts* are discussed first. Next are some notes on *Degrees of Teacher and Student Involvement*. Then *Techniques for Exercise Types* are outlined.

Suggestions for Presenting the Grammar Charts

A chart is a concise visual presentation of the structures to be covered in one section of a chapter. Some charts may require particular methods of presentation, but generally any of the following techniques can be used.

Technique #1: Use the examples in the chart and your own examples to explain the grammar in your own words, and answer any questions about the chart. Elicit other examples of the target structure from the learners. Then go to the accompanying exercise immediately following the chart.

Technique #2: Elicit oral examples from the students before they look at the chart in the textbook. To elicit examples from the students, ask leading questions whose answers will include the target structure. (For example, for the present progressive, ask: "What are you doing right now?") You may want to write the elicited answers on the chalkboard and relate them to the examples in the chart. Then proceed to the exercises.

Technique #3: Assign the chart and accompanying exercise(s) for out-of-class study. In class the next day, ask for and answer any questions about the chart, and then immediately proceed to the exercises. (With advanced students, you might not need to deal thoroughly in class with every chart and exercise. With intermediate students, it is usually advisable to clarify charts and do most of the exercises.)

Technique #4: Lead the students through the accompanying exercise prior to discussing the chart. Use the material in the exercise to discuss the focus of the chart as you go along. At the end of the exercise, call attention to the examples in the chart and summarize what was discussed during the exercise.

Technique #5: Before presenting the chart in class, give the students a short written quiz on its content. Have the students correct their own papers as you review the answers. The quiz should not be given a score; it is a learning tool, not an examination. Use the items from the quiz as examples for discussing the grammar in the chart.

Presentation techniques often depend upon the content of the chart, the level of the class, and the students' learning styles. Not all students react to the charts in the same ways. Some students need the security of thoroughly understanding a chart before trying to use the structure. Others like to experiment more freely with using new structures; they refer to the charts only incidentally, if at all. Given these differing learning strategies, you should vary your presentation techniques and not expect students to "learn" or memorize the charts. The charts are just a starting point for class discussion and a point of reference.

Demonstration can be very helpful to explain the meaning of structures. You and the students can act out situations that demonstrate the target structure. Of course, not all grammar lends itself to this technique. For example, the present progressive can easily be demonstrated ("I *am writing* on the board right now."). However, the use of gerunds as the objects of prepositions ("instead of *writing*" or "thank you for *writing*") is not especially well suited to demonstration techniques.

In discussing the target structure of a chart, use the chalkboard whenever possible. Not all students have adequate listening skills for "teacher talk," and not all students can visualize and understand the various relationships within, between, and among structures. Draw boxes and circles and arrows to illustrate connections between the elements of a structure.

The students need to understand the terminology, but shouldn't be required or expected to give detailed definitions of terms, either in class discussion or on tests. Terminology is just a tool, a useful label for the moment, so that you and the students can talk to each other about English grammar.

Most students benefit from knowing what is going to be covered in the following class session. The students should be assigned to read the charts at home so that they can become familiar with the target structure and, it is to be hoped, come to class with questions.

For every chart, try to relate the target structure to an immediate classroom or "real-life" context. Make up or elicit examples that use the students' names, activities, and interests. The here-and-now classroom context is, of course, one of the grammar teacher's best aids.

Degrees of Teacher and Student Involvement

Most of the exercises in the text are intended to be teacher-led, but other options are group work, pair work, and student-led work.

TEACHER-LED EXERCISES

In an eclectic text such as this, many approaches are possible, based on various sound theories of language learning and teaching. The teacher plays many roles and can employ a wide variety of techniques.

In essence, all exercises in the main text are teacher-led. Even so, there is a wide range of possible teacher involvement: from lecturing on "rules" to eliciting deductive understandings,

from supplying answers to eliciting responses, from being the focus of the students' attention to being solely an initiator and facilitator. Consider the students' goals and the time that is available, then decide whether to focus a lot of attention on every item in an exercise or to go through it quickly and spend time on related activities. It is beneficial for students to push hard and work intensively on English grammar, but it is also beneficial for the students to spend relaxed time in class exchanging ideas in structure-oriented conversations or similar pursuits.

GROUP WORK AND PAIR WORK

Many, but not all, exercises in the text are suitable for group or pair work. Suggestions for such alternatives are included in the comments on the exercises in the Chapter Notes in this *Guide*.

Exercises done in groups or pairs may often take twice as much time as they would if teacher-led, but it is time well spent if you plan carefully and make sure that the students are speaking in English to each other. There are many advantages to student-student practice.

When the students are working in groups or pairs, their opportunities to use what they are learning are greatly increased. They will often explain things to each other during pair work, in which case both students benefit. Obviously, the students in group work are often much more active and involved than in teacher-led exercises.

Group and pair work also expands the students' opportunities to practice many communication skills at the same time that they are practicing target structures. In peer interaction in the classroom, the students have to agree, disagree, continue a conversation, make suggestions, promote cooperation, make requests, be sensitive to each other's needs and personalities, and the like—exchanges that are characteristic of any group communication, in the classroom or elsewhere.

In addition, group and pair work helps to produce a comfortable learning environment. In teacher-centered activities, students may sometimes feel shy and inhibited or may experience stress. They may feel that they have to respond quickly and accurately and that *what* they say is not as important as *how* they say it, even though you strive to convince them to the contrary. If you set up groups that are noncompetitive and cooperative, the students usually tend to help, encourage, and even joke with each other. This encourages them to experiment with the language and to speak more.

Students should be encouraged to monitor each other to some extent in group work, especially when monitoring activities are specifically assigned. (But perhaps you should remind them to give some *positive* as well as corrective comments to each other in order to maintain good feelings.) You shouldn't worry about "losing control" of the students' language production, and they shouldn't worry about learning each other's mistakes. Not every mistake needs to be corrected, but you can take some time at the end of an exercise to call attention to mistakes that you heard frequently as you listened in on the groups.

WAYS OF USING EXERCISES FOR GROUP OR PAIR WORK

1. Divide the class into groups of two to six, usually with one student as leader. You may appoint the students to the groups or sometimes let them divide themselves. You may appoint a leader or let the students choose one. Leadership can be rotated. Be sure that the leader understands what to do, and set a reasonable time limit for finishing the activity.

2. For ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED) exercises, only the leader has his/her text open. If these exercises are used for pair work, one student has an open text and the other doesn't. Halfway through an exercise, the pair may change roles.

3. For ORAL or some other types of exercises, the students can discuss completions, transformations, etc., among themselves prior to, or instead of, class discussion. You can move about the classroom answering questions as necessary.

4. For exercises that require writing in the textbook, each group should produce one set of answers that all (or at least a majority) of the members agree are correct. The leader can present

the group's answers for class discussion or hand in a collaborative paper for your correction and sometimes even for a grade. Similarly, pairs of students can compare their answers prior to class discussion and come to an agreement on the correctness.

STUDENT-LED EXERCISES

Once in a while you may wish to ask a student to assume the teacher's role in some of the ORAL or ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED) exercises; the student conducts the exercise by giving the cues and determining the appropriateness of the response, while you retire to a corner of the room. It is helpful, but not essential, for you to work with the student leader outside of class in preparation for his/her role as teacher. Usually, a student-led oral exercise will take twice as much class time as a teacher-led exercise, but if the time is available, it can be a valuable experience for the student-teacher and fun for the entire class.

Techniques for Exercise Types

Some of the exercises in the text have specific labels: ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED), ORAL, WRITTEN, ORAL/WRITTEN, ERROR ANALYSIS, PREPOSITIONS, PHRASAL VERBS, PRETEST. It is important to note that the "oral" and "written" labels on particular exercises are only suggestions to the teacher. If you deem it appropriate, you can have the students write out an oral exercise or discuss a written exercise.

Exercise: ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED)

a. For exercises of this type, which range from simple manipulation to open-ended communicative interaction, the students have their books closed. These exercises are not intended as fast-paced drills to be completed without interruption. Their pace should allow ample time for the students to understand and respond as well as enough time for short spontaneous conversations to occur. These exercises provide a good opportunity for the students to develop their listening and speaking skills while expanding their ability to use the target structures. With their books closed, they can concentrate on what you and others are saying and can practice speaking without relying on written words.

b. Be flexible in handling these exercises. You don't have to read the items aloud as though reading a script from which there should be no deviation. Modify the format to make it more workable for your particular class. Try to add more items spontaneously as they occur to you. Change the items in any way to make them more relevant to your students. (For example, if you know that some students plan to watch the World Cup soccer match on TV, include a sentence about that.) Omit irrelevant items. Sometimes an item will start a spontaneous discussion of, for example, local restaurants or current movies or certain experiences the students have had. These spur-of-the-moment dialogues are very beneficial to the students. Encourage and facilitate the discussion, and then, within a reasonable length of time, bring attention back to the grammar at hand.

c. To initiate an ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED) exercise, give the class an example or two of the format. Sometimes you will want to give explicit oral directions. Sometimes you will want to use the chalkboard to write down key words to help the students focus on the target structure or consider the options in their responses.

d. Repeat a cue in ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED) exercises as often as necessary. Start out with normal spoken English, but then slow down and repeat as needed. You may want to write on the board, do a pantomime, demonstrate, draw a picture—whatever may help the students understand what you're saying. One of your goals is to convince students that they *can* understand spoken English. They shouldn't feel failure or be embarrassed if they don't understand a spoken cue immediately. If an exercise is too difficult for your class as a whole or for particular students, let them do it with their books open.

e. In general, ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED) exercises follow a chart or an open-book exercise. First, students should build up their understanding of the structure and practice using it. Then they will feel more confident during these oral exercises, which for many students are riskier and far more difficult than open-book work.

Essentially, in the ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED) exercises, the teacher is saying to the students, "Okay, now you understand such-and-such [for example, word order in noun clauses], so let's play with it a bit. With any luck, you'll be happily surprised by how much you already know. Mistakes are no big problem. They're a natural part of learning a new language. So just give it a try and let's see what happens."

f. Sometimes ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED) exercises precede a chart or open-book exercises. The purpose of this order is to elicit student-generated examples of the target structure as a springboard to the discussion of the grammar. If you prefer to introduce any particular structure to your students orally, you can always use an ORAL (BOOKS CLOSED) exercise prior to the presentation of a chart and written exercises, no matter what the given order is in the textbook.

Exercise: ORAL

Exercises of this type are intended to be done with books open but require no writing and no preparation. In other words, the students can read what is in the text, but they don't have to write in their books. You don't have to assign these exercises ahead of time; they can be done directly in class. These exercises come in many forms and are often suitable for group or pair work.

Exercise: ORAL/WRITTEN

This label indicates that the material can be used for either speaking practice or writing practice. Sometimes it indicates that the two are combined: e.g., a speaking activity may lead to a writing activity.

Exercise: WRITTEN

In this type of exercise, the students should use their own paper and submit their answers to you. Some of the WRITTEN exercises require sentence completion, but most are designed to produce short, informal compositions. In general, the topics or tasks concern aspects of the students' lives in order to encourage free and relatively effortless communication as they practice their writing skills. While a course in English rhetoric is beyond the scope of this text, many of the basic elements are included and may be developed and emphasized according to your purposes.

For best results, whenever you make a writing assignment, let your students know what you expect: "This is what I suggest as content. This is how you might organize it. This is how long I expect it to be." It is always a good idea for you to sit down and write an assignment yourself before discussing it with the class. If at all possible, give your students composition models, perhaps taken from good compositions written by previous classes, perhaps written by you, perhaps composed as a group activity by the class as a whole (e.g., you write on the board what the students tell you to write, and then you and the students revise it together).

In general, WRITTEN exercises should be done outside of class. All of us need time to consider and revise when we write. The topics in the exercises are structured so that plagiarism should not be a problem. Use in-class writing if you want to appraise the students' unaided, spontaneous writing skills. Tell your students that these written exercises are simply for practice and that—even though they should always try to do their best—mistakes that occur will be considered only as opportunities for learning.

Encourage the students to use their dictionaries whenever they write. Point out that you yourself never write seriously without a dictionary at hand. Discuss the use of margins, indentation of paragraphs, and other aspects of the format of a well-written paper.

Ask your students to use lined paper and to write on every other line, so that you and they have space to make corrections. APPENDIX 3 presents a system for marking errors so that students

may make their own corrections and so that you may mark papers quickly and efficiently. (See p. xviii of this *Guide* for information about using APPENDIX 3.)

Exercise: ERROR ANALYSIS

For the most part, the sentences in this type of exercise have been adapted from actual student writing and contain typical errors. ERROR ANALYSIS exercises focus on the target structures of a chapter but may also contain miscellaneous errors that are common in student writing at this level, such as omission of final -s on plural nouns or capitalization of proper nouns. The purpose of including them is to sharpen the students' self-monitoring skills.

ERROR ANALYSIS exercises are challenging and fun, a good way to summarize the grammar in a chapter. If you wish, tell the students they are either newspaper editors or English teachers; their task is to locate all mistakes and write corrections.

The recommended technique is to assign an ERROR ANALYSIS for in-class discussion the next day. The students benefit most from having the opportunity to find the errors themselves prior to class discussion. These exercises can, of course, be handled in other ways: seatwork, written homework, group work, pair work.

Some teachers object to allowing students to see errors written in a textbook. However, there is little chance that any harm is being done. Students look at errors all the time in their own writing and profit from finding and correcting them. The benefits of doing ERROR ANALYSIS exercises far outweigh any possible (and highly unlikely) negative results. Point out that even native speakers or highly proficient non-native speakers—including you yourself—have to scrutinize, correct, and revise what they write. This is a natural part of the writing process.

Exercise: PREPOSITIONS

Exercises of this type focus on prepositions that combine with verbs and adjectives. The intention is that the students simply make their "best guess" according to what "sounds right" to them when completing each item, then get the correct answers from class discussion and learn the ones they missed. They can refer to the list of combinations in APPENDIX 2 if they want to.

To reinforce the prepositions in an exercise, you can make up quick oral reviews (books closed) by rephrasing the items and having the students call out the prepositions. For example:

Text entry: I subscribe to several magazines.

Made-up oral reinforcement exercise:

TEACHER: "I like to read magazines. I subscribe . . ."

STUDENTS call out: "to"

TEACHER: "Good. Subscribe to. I subscribe to several magazines."

Text entry: Do you believe in ghosts?

Made-up oral reinforcement exercise:

TEACHER: "I'm not convinced that ghosts exist. What about you? Do you believe . . ."

STUDENTS call out: "in"

TEACHER: "Right. Believe in. Do you believe in ghosts?"

Exercise: PHRASAL VERBS

These contain two- and three-word verbs and can be handled in the same ways as the PREPOSITIONS exercises, adding increased emphasis on discussion of the phrases as vocabulary items.

As with the PREPOSITIONS exercises, the PHRASAL VERBS exercises are interspersed throughout the text at the ends of chapters. The intention is that the students review and/or learn a few of the most common of these expressions at a time. The scope and length of the text do not allow for an intensive treatment of the hundreds of phrasal verbs in the English language.

The term "adverb particle" is not used in the text, as it is deemed a possible source of confusion and unnecessary for the students' purposes.

Exercise: PRETEST

The purpose of these exercises is to let the students discover what they do and do not know about the target structure in order to get them interested in a chart. Essentially, PRETEST exercises illustrate a possible teaching technique: quiz the students first as a springboard for presenting the grammar in a chart.

Additional Techniques

Most of the exercises in the textbook do not have specific labels. The following section outlines additional techniques not only for labeled exercises but also for other activities.

The majority of the exercises in the text require some sort of completion, transformation, combination, discussion of meaning, or a combination of such activities. They range from those that are tightly controlled and manipulative to those that encourage free responses and require creative, independent language use. The techniques vary according to the exercise type.

FILL-IN-THE-BLANKS AND CONTROLLED COMPLETION EXERCISES

The label “fill-in-the-blanks” refers to those exercises in which the students complete the sentences by using words given in parentheses. The label “controlled completion” refers to those exercises in which the students complete sentences using the words in a given list. Both types of exercises call for similar techniques.

Technique A: A student can be asked to read an item aloud. You can say whether the student’s answer is correct or not, or you can open up discussion by asking the rest of the class if the answer is correct. For example:

TEACHER: “Juan, would you please read Number 2?”

STUDENT: “Diane *washes* her hair every other day or so.”

TEACHER (to the class): “Do the rest of you agree with Juan’s answer?”

The slow-moving pace of this method is beneficial for discussion not only of grammar items but also of vocabulary and content. The students have time to digest information and ask questions. You have the opportunity to judge how well they understand the grammar.

However, this time-consuming technique doesn’t always, or even usually, need to be used, especially with more advanced classes.

Technique B: You, the teacher, read the first part of the item, then pause for the students to call out the answer in unison. For example:

Text entry: Diane (*wash*) _____ her hair every other day or so.

TEACHER (with the students looking at their texts): “Diane”

STUDENTS (in unison): “*washes*” (plus possibly a few incorrect responses scattered about)

TEACHER: “. . . *washes* her hair every other day or so. *Washes*. Do you have any questions?”

This technique saves a lot of time in class and is slow-paced enough to allow for questions and discussion of grammar, vocabulary, and content. It is essential that the students have prepared the exercise by writing in their books, so it must be assigned ahead as homework.

Technique C: With an advanced class for whom a particular exercise is little more than a quick review, you can simply give the answers so the students can correct their own previously prepared work in their textbooks. You can either read the whole sentence (“Number 2: Diane washes her hair every other day or so”) or just give the answer (“Number 2: *washes*”). You can give the answers to the items one at a time, taking questions as they arise, or give the answers to the whole exercise before opening it up for questions. As an alternative, you can have one of the students read his/her answers and have the other students ask him/her questions if they disagree.

Technique D: Divide the class into groups (or pairs) and have each group prepare one set of answers that they all agree is correct prior to class discussion. The leader of each group can present their answers.

Another option is to have the groups (or pairs) hand in their set of answers for correction and possibly a grade.

It's also possible to turn these exercises into games wherein the group with the best set of answers gets some sort of reward (perhaps applause from the rest of the class).

Of course, you can always mix Techniques A, B, C, and D—with the students reading some aloud, with you prompting unison response for some, with you simply giving the answers for others, with the students collaborating on the answers for others. Much depends on the level of the class, their familiarity and skill with the grammar at hand, their oral-aural skills in general, and how flexible or limited your available classtime is.

Technique E: When an exercise item has a dialogue between speakers A and B, ask one student to be A and another B and have them read the entry aloud. Then, occasionally, say to A and B: "Without looking at your text, what did you just say to each other?" (If necessary, let them glance briefly at their texts before they repeat what they've just said in the exercise item.) The students may be pleasantly surprised by their own fluency.

OPEN COMPLETION EXERCISES

The term "open completion" refers to those exercises in which the students use their own words to complete the sentences.

Technique A: Exercises where the students must supply their own words to complete a sentence should usually be assigned for out-of-class preparation. Then in class, one, two, or several students can read their sentences aloud; the class can discuss the correctness and appropriateness of the completions. Perhaps you can suggest possible ways of rephrasing to make a sentence more idiomatic. Students who don't read their sentences aloud can revise their own completions based on what is being discussed in class. At the end of the exercise discussion, you can tell the students to hand in their sentences for you to look at, or merely ask if anyone has questions about the exercise and not have the students submit anything to you.

Technique B: If you wish to use an open completion exercise in class without having previously assigned it, you can turn the exercise into a brainstorming session in which students try out several completions to see if they work. As another possibility, you may divide the students into small groups and have each group come up with completions that they all agree are correct and appropriate. Then use only these completions for class discussion or as written work to be handed in.

Technique C: Some open completion exercises are designated WRITTEN, which usually means the students need to use their own paper, as not enough space has been left in the textbook. It is often beneficial to use the following progression: (1) assign the exercise for out-of-class preparation; (2) discuss it in class the next day, having the students make corrections on their own papers based on what they are learning from discussing other students' completions; (3) then ask the students to submit their papers to you, either as a requirement or on a volunteer basis.

TRANSFORMATION AND COMBINATION EXERCISES

In transformation exercises, the students are asked to change form but not substance (e.g., to change the active to the passive, a clause to a phrase, or a question to a noun clause).

In combination exercises, the students are asked to combine two or more sentences or ideas into one sentence that contains a particular structure (e.g., an adjective clause, a parallel structure, a gerund phrase).

In general, these exercises, which require manipulation of a form, are intended for class discussion of the form and meaning of a structure. The initial stages of such exercises are a good opportunity to use the chalkboard to draw circles and arrows to illustrate the characteristics and relationships of a structure. Students can read their answers aloud to initiate the class discussion, and you can write on the board as problems arise. Another possibility is to have the students write their sentences on the board. Also possible is to have them work in small groups to agree upon their answers prior to class discussion.

DISCUSSION-OF-MEANING EXERCISES

Some exercises consist primarily of you and the students discussing the meaning of given sentences. Most of these exercises ask the students to compare the meaning of two or more sentences (for example, *You should take an English course* vs. *You must take an English course*). One of the main purposes of discussion-of-meaning exercises is to provide an opportunity for summary comparison of the structures in a particular unit.

The basic technique in these exercises is for you to pose questions about the given sentences and then let the students explain what a structure means to them (which allows you to get input about what they do and do not understand). Then you summarize the salient points as necessary. Students have their own inventive, creative way of explaining differences in meaning. They shouldn't be expected to sound like grammar teachers. Often, all you need to do is listen carefully and patiently to a student's explanation, and then clarify and reinforce it by rephrasing it somewhat.

PRONUNCIATION EXERCISES

A few exercises focus on pronunciation of grammatical features, such as endings on nouns or verbs and contracted or reduced forms.

Some phonetic symbols are used in these exercises to point out sounds that should not be pronounced identically; for example, /s/, /əz/, and /z/ represent the three predictable pronunciations of the grammatical suffix spelled -s or -es. It is not necessary for students to learn a complete phonetic alphabet; they should merely associate each symbol in an exercise with a sound that is different from all others. The purpose is to help students become more aware of these final sounds in the English they hear to encourage proficiency of use in their own speaking and writing.

In the exercises on spoken contractions, the primary emphasis should be on the students' hearing and becoming familiar with spoken forms rather than on their production of these forms. The students need to understand that what they see in writing is not exactly what they should expect to hear in normal, rapid spoken English. The most important point of most of these exercises is that the students listen to your oral production and become familiar with the reduced forms.

Language learners are naturally conscious that their pronunciation is not like that of native speakers of the language. Therefore, some of them are embarrassed or shy about speaking. In a pronunciation exercise, they may be more comfortable if you ask groups or the whole class to say a sentence in unison. After that, individuals may volunteer to speak the same sentence. The learners' production does not need to be perfect, just understandable. You can encourage the students to be less inhibited by having them teach you how to pronounce words in their languages (unless, of course, you're a native speaker of the students' language in a monolingual class). It's fun—and instructive—for the students to teach the teacher.

SEATWORK

It is generally preferable to assign exercises for out-of-class preparation, but sometimes it's necessary to cover an exercise in class that you haven't been able to assign previously. In "seatwork," you have the students do an unassigned exercise in class immediately before discussing it. Seatwork allows the students to try an exercise themselves before the answers are discussed so that they can discover what problems they may be having with a particular structure. Seatwork may be done individually, in pairs, or in groups.

HOMEWORK

The textbook assumes that the students will have the opportunity to prepare most of the exercises by writing in their books prior to class discussion. Students should be assigned this homework as a matter of course.

The use of the term "written homework" in this *Guide* suggests that the students write out an exercise on their own paper and hand it in to you. How much written homework you have the students do is up to you. The amount generally depends upon such variables as class size, class level, available classtime, your available paper-correcting time, not to mention your preferences in teaching techniques.

Most of the exercises in the text can be handled through class discussion without the necessity of the students' handing in written homework. By combining the *Workbook* with the main text, students can regularly do homework that they can correct themselves. Most of the written homework to be handed in that is suggested in the text and in the chapter notes in this *Guide* consists of activities that will produce original, independent writing.

CORRECTING WRITING ERRORS

APPENDIX 3 in *Understanding and Using English Grammar* (pp. A29–A30 in the back of the text) presents a system for marking errors in students' written work. It uses a numbering scheme for the purpose of signaling errors. This system is quite flexible, intended only to give the students hints when they set about correcting their own writing.

Some of the numbers have multiple uses. For example, 2 (Wrong Form) can signal that an adjective has been used instead of an adverb, a noun instead of an adjective, a gerund instead of an infinitive, incorrect *has being done* instead of *has been done*, incorrect *would has* instead of *would have*, etc. Other numbers have more limited uses. For example, 13 is intended only for run-on sentences or comma splices.

Some errors could be marked by either of two numbers. For example, *to*, as in *The weather is to cold*, could be marked by either 3 (Wrong Word) or 8 (Spelling). The word *beautifuls*, as in *I saw some beautifuls pictures*, could be marked by either 1 (Singular-Plural) or 2 (Wrong Form). Simply choose the number that you think will give the student the best help in correcting and learning from the mistake in that context.

For some errors, it is necessary to use two numbers in the same circle. For example, the word *intresting*, as in *I am intresting in that subject*, could be marked by both 8 (Spelling) and 2 (Wrong Form).

Write the full correction for any error that you are sure the student would be unable to correct himself/herself. When necessary, write a more idiomatic phrase. Use 12? (Meaning Not Clear) when you want the student to find a different way to express what s/he is trying to say, or when the handwriting is illegible.

Using the numbers soon becomes automatic, and marking papers proceeds quickly and efficiently.

Reviewing the corrections made later by the students also proceeds smoothly, especially if they have written the original composition on every other line, have left adequate margins, and have used a pen or pencil of a different color to make the corrections. Compositions with numerous errors should be rewritten entirely.

You may wish to add numbers to the list to specify particular problems with structure or style. For example, 14 could suggest Parallel Structure; 15 could denote Repetitiveness. The numbers given in APPENDIX 3 have been distilled from many to a few through years of experimentation, but the system is still adaptable.

Using the *Workbook*

The *Workbook* contains two kinds of exercises: Selfstudy and Guided Study. The answer key for the Selfstudy Practices is found at the end of the *Workbook* on perforated pages. Encourage your students to remove this answer key and put it in some sort of folder. It's much easier for the students to correct their own answers if they make their own answer key booklet. The answers to the Guided Study Practices are in this *Guide*.

The *Workbook* mirrors the main text. Exercises are called "exercises" in the main text and "practices" in the workbook to minimize confusion when you make assignments. Each practice in the *Workbook* has a content title and refers the students to appropriate charts in the main text.

In the chapter notes in this *Guide*, you will find the notation “◇ **WORKBOOK**” followed by the practices that can be assigned at or near that point in the lesson.

SELFSTUDY PRACTICES (ANSWERS GIVEN IN THE WORKBOOK)

Answers to the Selfstudy Practices are included in the *Workbook* so that students can immediately check their understanding and accuracy. The primary purpose of the Selfstudy Practices is to give the students ample opportunity to understand and use the target structures on their own. They should be encouraged to bring any questions about the Selfstudy Practices to class.

Selfstudy Practices can be assigned by you or, depending upon the level of maturity or sense of purpose of the class, simply left for the students to use as they wish. They may be assigned to the entire class or only to those students who need further practice with a particular structure. They may be used as reinforcement after you have covered a chart and exercises in class or as introductory material prior to discussing a chart in class.

In addition, the students can use the Selfstudy Practices to acquaint themselves with the grammar of any units not covered in class. Earnest students can use the *Workbook* to teach themselves.

GUIDED STUDY PRACTICES (ANSWERS NOT GIVEN IN THE WORKBOOK)

Answers to the Guided Study practices are given only in this *Teacher's Guide* for two reasons: (1) because many of the answers depend on students' creativity and require the teacher's judgment, and (2) so that some of the practices can be used as supplementary teaching materials for class use, written homework, individualized instruction, or possibly as quizzes.

PRACTICE TESTS IN THE WORKBOOK

Each chapter in the *Workbook* has Practice Test A (Selfstudy) and Practice Test B (Guided Study). You may wish to use one as a “pretest” and the other as a “post-test,” or simply use both of them as summary review material upon finishing a chapter.

The practice tests are not really intended as “tests.” They are simply another exercise type, to be used as a teaching tool like any other exercise. The students should simply be encouraged to do their best and learn from their mistakes.

You may, however, wish to have the students take a practice test in class under time-pressure conditions for experience in taking that kind of test. (Allow 30 seconds per item.) You could also have the students time themselves if they do the practice test at home.

Notes on American vs. British English

Students are often curious about differences between American and British English. They should know that the differences are minor. Anyone who has studied British English (BrE) should have no trouble adapting to American English (AmE), and vice versa.

DIFFERENCES IN GRAMMAR

Many of the differences in grammar are either footnoted in the main text or mentioned in the chart notes in this *Guide*. For example, the footnote to Chart 5-18 contains the information that BrE uses a plural verb with *government* whereas AmE uses a singular verb. Similarly, the notes in this *Guide* for Chart 2-11 contain the information that *don't let's* is considered incorrect in AmE but is acceptable informal usage in BrE. Teachers need to be careful not to inadvertently mark usage differences as errors; rather, they should simply point out to the students that a difference exists between two equally correct varieties of English.

Differences in article and preposition usage in certain common expressions follow. These differences are not noted in the text; they are given here for the teacher's information. The symbol Ø denotes that "nothing" is used there.

AmE

be in **the** hospital
 be at **the** university (be in Ø college)
 go to **a** university (go to Ø college)
 go to Ø class/be in Ø class
 in **the** future
 did it **the** next day
 haven't done something **for/in** weeks
 ten minutes **past/after** six o'clock
 five minutes **to/of/til** seven o'clock

BrE

be in Ø hospital
 be at Ø university
 go to Ø university
 go to **a** class/be in **a** class
 in Ø future (OR in **the** future)
 did it Ø next day (OR **the** next day)
 haven't done something **for** weeks
 ten minutes **past** six o'clock
 five minutes **to** seven o'clock

DIFFERENCES IN SPELLING

Variant spellings can be noted but should not be marked as incorrect in the students' writing. Spelling differences in some common words follow.

AmE

jewelry, traveler, woolen
 skillful, fulfill, installment
 color, honor, labor, odor
 realize, analyze, apologize
 defense, offense, license
 theater, center, liter
 check
 curb
 forever
 jail
 program
 specialty
 story
 tire
 spilled, dreamed, burned

BrE

jewellery, traveller, woollen
 skilful, fulfil, instalment
 colour, honour, labour, odour
 realise, analyse, apologise
 defence, offence, licence (n.)
 theatre, centre, litre
 cheque (bank note)
 kerb
 for ever/forever
 gaol
 programme
 speciality
 storey (of a building)
 tyre
 spilt, dreamt, burnt (See the footnote to Chart 1-11.)

DIFFERENCES IN VOCABULARY

Differences in vocabulary usage usually do not significantly interfere with communication. Students should know that when American and British speakers read each other's literature, they encounter only very few differences in vocabulary usage. A few differences between AmE and BrE follow.

AmE

attorney, lawyer
 bathrobe
 can (of beans)
 cookie, cracker
 corn
 diaper
 driver's license
 drug store
 elevator
 eraser
 flashlight
 gas, gasoline
 hood of a car

BrE

barrister, solicitor
 dressing gown
 tin (of beans)
 biscuit
 maize
 nappy
 driving licence
 chemist's
 lift
 rubber
 torch
 petrol
 bonnet of a motorcar

AmE

fired/laid off
 living room
 raise in salary
 rest room
 schedule
 sidewalk
 sink
 soccer
 stove
 truck
 trunk of a car
 be on vacation

BrE

made redundant
 sitting room, drawing room
 rise in salary
 public toilet, WC (water closet)
 timetable
 pavement, footpath
 basin
 football
 cooker
 lorry, van
 boot of a motorcar
 be on holiday

Key to Pronunciation Symbols

THE PHONETIC ALPHABET (Symbols for American English)

CONSONANTS

Most consonant symbols are used phonetically as they are in normal English spelling. However, a few additional symbols are needed, and some other letters are more restricted in their use as symbols. These special symbols are presented below. (Note that slanted lines indicate that phonetic symbols, not the spelling alphabet, are being used.)

- /θ/ (Greek theta) = voiceless *th* as in “**thin**,” “**thank**”
- /ð/ (Greek delta) = voiced *th* as in “**then**,” “**those**”
- /ŋ/ = *ng* as in “**sing**,” “**think**” (but not in “**danger**”)
- /ʃ/ = *sh* as in “**shirt**,” “**mission**,” “**nation**”
- /ʒ/ = *s* or *z* in a few words like “**pleasure**,” “**azure**”
- /tʃ/ = *ch* or *tch* as in “**watch**,” “**church**”
- /dʒ/ = *j* or *dge* as in “**jump**,” “**ledge**”

The following consonants are used as in *conventional spelling*:

/b, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z/

Spelling consonants that are **not** used phonetically in English: c, q, x

VOWELS

The 5 vowels in the spelling alphabet are inadequate to represent the 12–15 vowel sounds of American speech. Therefore, new symbols and new sound associations for familiar letters must be adopted.

Front

/i/ or /iy/ as in “**beat**”

/ɪ/ as in “**bit**”

/e/ or /ey/ as in “**bait**”

/ɛ/ as in “**bet**”

/æ/ as in “**bat**”

Central

/ə/ as in “**but**”

/ɑ/ as in “**bother**”

Back (lips rounded)

/u/, /u:/, or /uw/ as in “**boot**”

/ʊ/ as in “**book**”

/o/ or /ow/ as in “**boat**”

/ɔ/ as in “**bought**”

GLIDES: /ai/ or /ay/ as in “**bite**”

/ɔi/ or /oy/ as in “**boy**”

/au/ or /aw/ as in “**about**”

British English has a somewhat different set of vowel sounds and symbols. You might want to consult a standard pronunciation text for that system.