American English Language Training (AELT)

Handbook for Christian Teachers

A guide for teaching English overseas

2007
Lois P. Webster, Ph.D.
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Lois P. Webster, Ph.D.
Director of English Studies
2007

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About the Author

Lois P. Webster has an earned Doctor of Philosophy in Reading Education with a minor in both Linguistics and Adult Education from Indiana University; a Master of Arts in Reading Education and Adult Education from San Francisco University; and a Master of Arts for Teachers in Teaching English as a Second Language from Indiana University.

Dr. Webster has had extensive experience in teaching, training, and administering English as a Second Language since 1970. Her experience also includes being a professor of education at the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, at Indiana Wesleyan University, Marion, Indiana, and at Taylor University at Ft. Wayne, Indiana. She has had administrative experience in higher education to include academic dean, dean of continuing education, division chair, and department chair of education.
Unit 1

Foundation of AELT

1

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

American English Language Training

The AELT Curriculum: The English Curriculum; The Bible Study Curriculum

2

Language Learning and Teaching

AELT Is An EFL Program

The Nature of Language: Understanding What Is Heard; The Way Language Sounds; Vocabulary; Structure; Social Usage

The AELT Learner: Aptitude; Motivation; Knowledge of English; Opportunities to Learn

Use of the Students’ Native Language in the AELT Classroom

The Nature of AELT Teaching: Teacher as Model; Principles of Good Modeling
Welcome to the exciting world of English language learning! Exciting, you say? YES. Teaching a person the basic skills of English is an enjoyable, satisfying ministry, to which God has called you as His child.

The adventure of Christian living is serving God. Jesus said, “My purpose is to give life in all its fullness” (John 10:10 New Living Translation [NLT]). For Christians seeking to serve our Lord, an English language ministry is a wonderful and rewarding outreach because it is a relational ministry – a people-to-people mission. You are involved with a missions ministry where English builds the needed bridge of communication and culture.

The Latin origin of the word “priest” in the New Testament, means “bridge builder.” As Christians, Peter states “... You are a chosen people. You are a kingdom of priests, God’s holy nation, his very own possession. This is so you can show others the goodness of God, ...” (I Peter 2:9 NLT). As God’s priest you are a bridge-builder bringing people into the knowledge of God’s love and grace through the medium of teaching English. The most important gift you can give your students is His love and grace through your presence in the classroom.

As you begin teaching your learners . . .

**Remember** – Teaching English does not mean you have to have years of special linguistics training. It is for students who want to know how to use the basic conversational English skills needed in everyday life.

**Remember** – Teaching English as an evangelistic outreach is accomplished by providing a Christian environment during your classes. It does not mean you have to possess the gift of evangelism. You fulfill Paul’s admonition to Timothy to “... Complete the ministry God has given you” (II Peter 4:5 NLT).

**Remember** – Teaching English allows you to see genuine, lasting progress with students over a short period of time.
Remember – Teaching English to grateful learners will expose you to other customs and cultures which will broaden your Christian life and worldview.

Increasingly, churches are seeing the need to send missionaries overseas and to train and equip volunteers in their congregations for this ministry. Those committed to the “fulfillment of the Great Commission” in Cambodia, Ukraine, Central and South America, Madagascar, and other parts of the world, are helping win these countries to Christ by doing a ministry. It is our prayer that believers, who have sat languid in pews week after week, will breathe deeply the fresh wind of world missions and capture a renewed vision of being a part of God’s great plan – “Go into all the world . . .”

American English Language Training (AELT)

Globalization has developed in an unprecedented manner. American English has emerged as the dominant language in globalization. The result is a great demand for learning American English conversational skills.

Military Christian leaders also need English language skills in this new world. The Military Christian Fellowship (MCF) of Ukraine recognized this need some years ago and felt that the provision of conversational English language skills could help Christian leaders grow and develop and help them reach out to others with the Gospel. The Association for Christian Conferences, Teaching and Service (ACCTS), with its mission of assisting in the development of Christian leaders in the Armed Forces of the world, and in the establishment and growth of Military Christian Fellowships (MCFs), responded in 2001 to this need by offering English conversational skills at a week-long English Camp in Ukraine.

The American English Language Training (AELT) program of ACCTS has grown out of this initial experience. This Program provides English language conversational skills instruction for persons who are beginners in the language or will build on any English skills individuals already have by helping them to speak American English better. AELT helps carry out the mission of ACCTS through this Program, the purpose of which is to assist in the establishment or growth of MCFs and reach out with the Gospel in that nation.

As the demand for English programs among MCFs has grown, it has become necessary to formalize training in order to establish and run English programs successfully. This AELT Teacher Handbook has been developed to meet that need. It provides a description of the AELT program and an understanding of how a foreign language is learned and the “how to’s” of teaching English to speakers of other languages so as to give teachers a foundation in providing instruction for their classes.

The general purpose of the AELT program is to assist in the
establishment and growth of Military Christian Fellowships (MCFs) and in reaching out with the Gospel to the nations of the world.

The AELT Curriculum

The AELT program, which is presented only to military organizations, is composed of two skill/study areas. It can be adapted to meet the needs of each MCF and all levels of English competency represented by students. The Curriculum can provide both English skills and Bible Studies. On the other hand, the curriculum can be English-only training, depending on the request of the host.

The English Curriculum

a. American English conversational skills – the ability to carry on a conversation in English with other speakers of English -- is the focus of AELT instruction. Instructors will model the English language in such a way that students hear and practice the language without the use of textbooks or other learning materials.

b. Most English language courses place great emphasis on book learning – vocabulary, grammar, and the ability to read English. However, experience has shown that this approach does not ensure English speaking skills.

c. English is taught without interpreters at three English competency levels – Beginner, Intermediate, Advanced -- depending on the needs of the local MCF. Student levels are determined by a placement program; classes will be established based on the results of the placement program. The result is that students will be placed in homogeneous classes according to their level of English skills and therefore will be able to proceed from the level that has already been achieved.

The Bible Study Curriculum.

a. Because MCFs are interdenominational, the sharing of the Gospel must be done in a way which will not violate laws of the host country and cause problems for both the MCF and the future of sharing of the Gospel in that country.

b. Lessons have been developed on the Life of Jesus. Lessons, which are presented without denominational doctrine, permit conversations on Jesus.

c. Interpreters are used in Bible Study classes so that each student can understand Bible Study teachings in the native language.

This American English Language Training (AELT) program is based on

Language Acquisition

-- the subconscious process by which a person learns a language by
using it to communicate rather than by consciously studying the rules, the process occurring when the learner is more concerned with content and meaning than with form and correctness -- with a

Communication Approach

-- language instruction that focuses on presenting, practicing, and using oral language for realistic communication tasks that meet the everyday, immediate needs of the learner.

This entire curriculum is based on five English competency levels: Beginner 1, Beginner 2, Low Intermediate, Low Advanced, and Advanced.

Our goal is to help non-English-speaking students gain conversational skills in English through listening and speaking.

Our objectives are that students will
1. Comprehend spoken English as evidenced by their response to spoken comments, questions, and commands.
2. Learn English vocabulary as evidenced by their ability to correctly use English words, identify objects, and respond to commands.
3. Learn intelligible English pronunciation.
5. Learn correct English grammar as evidenced by their ability to communicate.

Individuals who want to help someone learn conversational English (listening comprehension and speaking skills) need more than good will and enthusiasm, although these are important. An understanding of language learning and training in the “how to” skills of teaching conversational English skills can make the job easier and help eliminate much unnecessary frustration for themselves and for students. It will be the goal of these materials to provide an understanding of how a foreign language is learned and the “how to’s” of teaching English to speakers of other languages so as to give teachers a foundation in providing instruction for their classes.

To enhance the training and teaching process, this set of materials is intended to provide those helping in AELT programs with
1. An understanding of the process of learning language and how to relate that to teaching English speakers of other languages,
2. An understanding of the learner,
3. An understanding of how to use materials and/or the environment in teaching AELT,
4. Techniques and strategies for teaching English conversational skills,
5. Suggestions for dealing with different levels of students,
6. Suggestions for working with students in the classroom.
Chapter 2

Language Learning and Teaching

The focus of this handbook is to enable volunteer teachers to help someone learn conversational English in the classroom. The first thing that is important to teachers is to learn what it is that they are going to teach.

First, you will be teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This differs from ESL, which most of us are acquainted with.

AELT Is An EFL Program

ESL programs are found in the United States and other English-speaking countries where learners are surrounded with English and must learn English to survive in the English-speaking culture. Reading and writing English are included in ESL classes. The fact that students are surrounded by English in the American culture and must learn to speak English in order to communicate, helps them learn the language and to speak it. There are many models of the spoken language around them, which reinforces their learning.

However, in teaching English as a Foreign Language, students will be learning in a different way – not through a textbook and not through direct instruction but through their ears - and we will not be teaching in the usual way, but will be modeling the language in a progressive and sequential way so that students will learn. Only English will be used, and modeling will be done in such a way that students can hear English and can understand meaning based on what they see. Students’ native language is not to be used in class. Students will be learning tacitly – that is, they will be learning indirectly, grasping meaning from the teacher’s modeling and not from his/her “teaching.”

EFL refers to students who live in another culture where the native language is not English. They speak primarily their own language. The primary purpose for learning EFL is usually to read and write it, but not to speak it. Students learning English as a foreign language are usually desirous of coming to the United States, or going to another English-speaking country, to go to school and/or to pass a special test that is required for admission to most American colleges and universities. These students do not have the opportunity to speak English nor to hear English spoken. In addition, they do not need to speak
English.

Therefore, the AELT classroom, an EFL classroom, must supply as much as possible the ESL atmosphere other than that of reading and writing. Students will learn from the teacher’s speech what ESL students learn on the streets of America.

English will be a foreign language to your students. Therefore, teaching English to these students is all about helping them learn to speak a foreign language, and learning a foreign language is different from learning other subjects. Students will be learning in a different way – not through a textbook and not through direct instruction but through their ears and through extensive oral practice. They will be learning conversational skills which implies a back and forth between two or more people -- each person understanding what the other person is saying, and each person having the ability to respond meaningfully.

The Nature of Language

What does a student “learn” when trying to learn to speak a foreign language? -- the same thing that a baby learns in learning to speak his or her native language. Although the process and the sequence is somewhat the same, the adult will learn all of this at the same time and in much the same way.

Language learning is cumulative. This means that later work is dependent on what is learned in the days and weeks before.

Students learning to speak another language must first learn the distinctive sounds of that language, the rhythm of the language, its stress and intonation systems, the vocabulary, the way words are put together, the grammar system, and the social uses of the language – and do all this in as natural a way as possible. One might say that the curriculum is the following:

- Listening Comprehension – understanding what is heard,
- Pronunciation – the way the language sounds,
- Vocabulary – commonly thought of as “words,”
- Grammar – sentence structure.

Understanding What Is Heard

Listening and understanding will be the first skills that students will learn, just as they are the first skills that a baby learns; therefore, you will first spend extensive time in teaching listening comprehension skills to completely non-English speaking students. It will be through these skills that vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar are learned. More advanced students, also, will expand their listening comprehension skills as needed. All levels of students, from complete beginners to very advanced students, need to extend their listening comprehension skills.

The Way Language Sounds

Language is a system of meaningful
sounds used to communicate. These sounds are meaningful because they are produced in a patterned way that is mutually understood by speakers of the same language. To get a clearer idea of what it means that “language is a system of meaningful sounds having pattern,” think of these three kinds of sounds:

1. **Noises in traffic** are a jumble of sounds with no particular pattern or structure.

2. **People talking in a foreign language** use sounds that are understood by some people but perhaps not by you. The sounds follow a regular pattern and thus have structure. You just don’t know the structure or the meaning of the sounds.

3. **People conversing in English** use sounds that are organized in such a way that those who know English structure and vocabulary can comprehend the meaning. This is communication for those of us who understand English. One part of the sound system is the phonetic system: that is, the individual sounds of the language. English has approximately forty-four separate sounds – vowel sounds represented by the letters a, e, i, o, u and sometimes y and w; diphthongs (double vowel sounds like -oy, -ow, and -uy); and twenty-nine consonant sounds represented by the letters c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z, and sometimes u is the sound of y.

**Vocabulary** One way meaning is conveyed is by words. When we know a word, we also know the rules for its acceptable use, occurrence with other words, and grammatical class. Even if we can’t name the rule, as speakers of a language, we know whether or not a statement sounds right. This is evidenced by the fact that a six-year-old (and many younger children) can correctly use the full grammatical structure of his/her language but cannot formally distinguish nouns from verbs.

**Structure** Another way in which meaning is conveyed in language is by word order and grammar. This means that the relationship between words is regular, patterned, and conveys meaning to other speakers of the same language. For example, The dog chased the boy has meaning for speakers of English partially because of the order of the words. Because the noun dog comes before the verb chased, we know who is doing the “chasing.” Because the noun boy follows the verb chased we know who is being chased. And because of the pronunciation of the -ed on the end of chased we know that the action took place in the past. We could not know this until the vocabulary was set in a pattern or structure. How different the meaning of this sentence is from The boy chased the dog.

The way words are pronounced in a spoken sentence also follows rules of structure in order to convey meaning. This sub-system of rules connecting meaning with structure includes:

**Stress:** The main stem word – as come in becoming -- or an accented syllable -- as in “Joe drove the car home” (not Bill or Bob) or
“Joe drove the car home” (he didn’t push it or have it towed) -- receives stress in English in order to convey meaning.

**Juncture:** In English (and other languages, also) words tend to sound connected when they aren’t -- for example, “Weak cough” rather than “We cough.” A native speaker of English would be able to comprehend which of these phrases was intended based on the context. Juncture applies to the separation of words. Our comprehension of spoken English is largely dependent on the rhythm, intonation, and stress we hear. Providing correct models will help. Listening to TV, radio, and to Americans talking will help students get the “feel” or the “melody” of English. The meanings we wish to communicate require not only words, but correct order and stress patterns as well. Our comprehension of spoken English is largely dependent on the rhythm, intonation, and stress we hear. These areas are often difficult for new language learners to master. Providing correct models will help.

**Social Usage**  Learning a second language is like learning a second culture. Language does not exist apart from culture, that is from the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives.

Sometimes meaning is conveyed not by literal use but rather by customs and idioms, such as when talking about a lemon as a bad car, not as a piece of fruit. There are words which appear to be synonyms but the connotation is different for each. An example of this is the words sight and vision. We wouldn’t call a beautiful girl a sight. It is common for a German to say Mein Gott (which is translated My God), but his saying My God in America among Christians is not acceptable at all.

Merely learning words is not enough. We must learn when to use them -- i.e., under what circumstances they are appropriate -- if we want to truly understand what they mean. The relationship between language and culture forms an important part of the acquisition of a second language because it involves the way in which members of a culture view the world.

**The AELT Learner**

It is important to understand the nature of the learner. First, keep in mind that no two learners are alike; we all learn differently. In addition, there are five factors which affect how quickly people might learn to speak English:

- **Aptitude** -- One’s ability to learn language (verbal skills)
- **Motivation** -- How strong his/her interest is in learning to speak English. How important is it?
- **The amount of knowledge that a person begins with** -- Has the student studied English previously? OR Has he/she picked up English along the way?
• Opportunities to learn -- School programs; in the family; reinforcement from his/her environment -- Is English spoken in his/her environment?

These must be taken into consideration in planning a program since that program is planned for students.

**Aptitude**  One’s aptitude for learning language skills is significant. Some human beings learn foreign languages much more readily than do others. Some people can learn a language quickly; others simply don’t have a strong “knack” for picking up languages. We all have skills that lend a hand in learning certain things: mechanical skills, verbal skills, spatial skills, mathematical skills, and so on. Closely connected with aptitude is a student’s *degree of comfort* when trying to speak a new language. Some learners are not at all shy about “blurting out” something in English, and they are not overly concerned about perfect grammar or pronunciation. Some become embarrassed if they think they are making too many mistakes. Some think they shouldn’t say anything at all unless their English is perfect.

**Motivation**  Whether one really wants to learn another language makes a big difference in how readily one learns. Some students may come to English classes for the purpose of having a good time or to meet someone of the opposite gender. Those students’ attention must be captured in order to enable the learning process. There are those who come to class with strong motivation to learn English and to learn it correctly. The latter students will keep a teacher of English busy and motivated.

**Knowledge of English**  If a student comes to class with the experience of having already learned another language or having learned "some" English, that individual will learn more readily than the person who has had no experience in learning another language. The individual who is literate already (literate meaning the ability to read and write) has some of the requisite skills for learning a foreign language. Some learners will speak some English, but not be able to read or write it. Some will be able to read and write English, but not speak it. Some will not be able to read and write in their first language. Some will have a first language that does not use the Roman alphabet (e.g., Russian, Arabic, or Thai, etc.).

**Opportunities to Learn**  Learners who have a lot of contact with English speakers usually progress faster than those who do not. Reinforcement from the environment is the one drawback for an AELT program that takes place in a non-English speaking country. There is no requirement to speak English on the streets, in the supermarkets, in school – no way in which students can experience hearing and speaking English. There may be American movies that they can watch on television – if they will watch them. There are probably
books available in English for reading, but only the very best readers of English will read them voluntarily. Students must have opportunities to use the language they are learning. This presents a challenge to teachers to provide in class as many situations as possible during which learners can practice hearing and speaking English.

Use of the Students’ Native Language in the AELT Classroom

It is not necessary nor needed for AELT teachers to be able to speak the students’ language. In fact, it is undesirable, and speaking the student’s language can even be a handicap. Students are in the classroom to learn English. In teaching conversational English, the student’s native language should be used ONLY as a last resort. There is one advantage to the teacher having some knowledge of the students’ native language – that knowledge can provide insight into students’ problems in learning English.

If an interpreter is available, using him/her in class to “explain something through translation” can become a crutch that a teacher leans on instead of effectively teaching English. In trying to learn English words, it is often more beneficial to the student if the teacher can demonstrate the meaning; the student usually will remember the word longer. Two purposes will be served in illustrating meaning through actions, gestures, pantomime, objects or pictures: 1) Students will be helped to think in English, rather than to think in another language and then translate into English, and 2) the impression will be far more lasting. A discussion of these kinds of problems is presented in Chapters 12.

The Nature of AELT Teaching

After learning what we will teach, to whom we will teach it, then we must learn how to teach it.

First -- What does “teach” mean? There are three dictionary definitions of “teach:”

1. Give systematic information, instruction or training to or about something;
2. Cause to learn by experience;
3. Impress upon by example.

When the word “teach” is heard our first thought is someone standing before a class possibly lecturing, “telling how” something is done, explaining, etc. -- the first definition. AELT teachers will do none of this. The second and third definitions come close to defining “teach” in the AELT way. To further the definition, the next three words will illustrate the role and function of “teaching” an AELT class. The AELT teacher will be

A Facilitator – to facilitate -- Make easy; to make something easier to do,
An Enabler --

- to enable -- Make something possible or feasible,

A Model --

- to model -- Give a representation; demonstrate a way of
behaving to somebody in order for that behavior to be imitated.

All three will be employed in working with AELT students.

**Teacher As Model**  Because students want to learn English as it is spoken in the United States, your speech becomes the model to be followed by them. First and foremost, you will model English by speaking it. Students will learn from you and the way you use the language.

A teacher’s model of the English language should be real in that the language relates to students’ interests and to the real world of language. Work with the vocabulary and objects students know and are interested in.

**Principles of Good Modeling**  The teacher in the AELT classroom does the following in order to facilitate learning.

*Be aware of your own speech.* The way you speak is what students will learn; they will learn it exactly as they hear you say it.

First, when inside or outside the classroom, whether teaching or in casual conversation, be very sure that your English grammar is correct. To repeat – you are a model of the English language for your students.

Secondly, of equal importance is how you say something. For example, in demonstrating how something is said, be natural. Use language as you normally would. **Enunciate clearly** so that students can hear each sound, syllable, word, etc., that is important. **Do not over-articulate.** Words are often distorted (sto-er for store.)

Third, be aware of correct intonation. The meaning could be changed, for example, if the voice rises as in a question. (*The woman is walking down the street?* versus *The woman is walking down the street.*)

Fourth, be aware of your own incorrect stress. Avoid the use of an unnatural emphasis on certain words. (*The woman is walking down the street.*) Listen to students’ responses. Do they sound strange?

Finally, the speed with which you speak is important. Do not speak too slowly. (*The woo-man isss waal-king dow-en the stree-et.*) On the other hand, don’t speak too fast. Words tend to run together and are difficult for the untrained ear to hear and separate. If you normally speak quickly, slow down and speak carefully. Do not speak too loudly. Students have no hearing problem!
The Sub Systems of Language

3 Pronunciation

What Influences Pronunciation: Voicing; Mouth, Tongue, and Lip Position; Stress, Rhythm, and Intonation
Difficulties with Learning English Pronunciation: The Influence of the Student’s Native Language
Correcting Students’ Pronunciation
Teaching Pronunciation
Activities for Developing Good Speech Habits: Minimal Pairs; Tongue Twisters

4 Vocabulary

Meaning: Content Words and Structure Words; Concrete and Abstract Meaning; Connotative and Denotative Meaning
Teaching Vocabulary: Teach Vocabulary in Context
Idioms: Phrasal Verbs
Difficulties with Learning English Vocabulary

5 Grammar

What is Grammar?
Sentence Structure
Teaching Sentence Structure
Difficulties with Learning English Grammar: English Prepositions; English Articles; The Position of Adjectives; Grammatical Gender
Chapter 3

Pronunciation

The purpose of this chapter is to communicate the significant aspects of the pronunciation of English in order to assist teachers to understand the nature of English pronunciation, problems related to English pronunciation, and how to cope with students’ problems and help them improve their speaking of English.

“Pronunciation” is an oral “utterance or speaking, pronouncing of a word especially with reference to a standard . . . ” for the purpose of communicating meaningfully. There are two key words here -- “communicating” and “standard.” “Communicating” implies that “pronunciation” is not just making a babble of sounds. “Standard” implies correctness.

Language is a system of meaningful sounds used to communicate. These sounds are meaningful because they are produced in a patterned way that is mutually understood by speakers of the same language. To get a clearer idea of what it means that “language is a system of meaningful sounds,” think of these three kinds of sounds:

1. **Noises in traffic** have no meaning – just noise.
2. **People talking in a foreign language** sound meaningless to someone of another language.
3. **People conversing in English**, in a crowd of foreigners, causes us to perk up our ears because the sound of the language has meaning for us.

“Correct” English pronunciation has been a question among English professionals for decades, but again the key to this question is “communication.” Our ears have often been confronted with a kind of English which is barely intelligible, if that. Sometimes even native speakers of English, who speak an extreme dialect which we are not used to hearing, are barely intelligible. Knowing and being able to use the grammar and vocabulary of a language is not sufficient if pronunciation is so badly garbled that the speaker is not understood – in other words, the speaker isn’t communicating. And, of course, pronunciation, often called accent, is usually that part of speaking that identifies an individual as a speaker of another language. It is rare that students will speak without some kind of accent, even an accent that is ever so slight.

Lest we claim to speak correct English, we must remember that we all speak a **dialect** – one which sometimes is more obvious than in other cases (a dialect is language usage that is common to a region of
the country). And in some cases, some of us have an idiolect (a way of speaking that is unique to a given person or given family). We all think we are speaking correctly. Listen to your own speech and be aware of how you sound; compare what you say with the way another native speaker of English says the same thing.

What Influences Pronunciation?

There are five factors that influence correct pronunciation and that, in turn, relate to problems with pronunciation.

1. Voicing,
2. Mouth, tongue, and lip position,
3. Stress and rhythm,
4. Intonation,
5. The influence that the students’ native language has on learning English.

Voicing    One thing which distinguishes one sound from another sound, and will distinguish one word from another, is voicing. This applies only to consonant sounds. When a sound is voiced, the air used to make the sound causes the vocal cords to vibrate. You can tell if a sound is voiced by placing your hand tightly on your throat and saying the sound in isolation. If the sound is voiced, you will feel vibrations. Try saying /z-z-z-z-z/ with your hand tightly on your throat. Now try saying /s-s-s-s-s/. You should feel the vibrations with /z-z-z/ but not with /s-s-s/. There are several pairs of sounds in English which are made the same way, but one is voiced and the other is voiceless: /s/ and /z/, /I/ and /g/, /p/ and /b/, /t/ and /d/, /ch/ and /dj/, /f/ and /v/, /sh/ and /dj/, and so on.

Mouth, Tongue, and Lip Position    Another thing that makes a difference in sound is the position of the mouth, tongue, lips, etc. (these are called articulators). For vowel sounds, differences in sounds are produced with the mouth open in different positions and the tongue not touching any part of the mouth. For consonant sounds, differences in sound are produced by where the tongue touches the mouth, which part of the mouth the tongue touches, and whether the air is stopped completely or partially and then released. With some consonant sounds the differences are created with articulators besides the tongue (e.g., /b/ is produced by the upper and lower lips coming together as are /m/ and /p/) or by the shape of the tongue rather than the position (e.g., /r/ and /l/ are different because in the case of /l/, the tongue curls up towards and touches the roof of the mouth, whereas with /r/ the tongue only curls upwards but doesn’t touch the roof of the mouth).

Stress, Rhythm, Intonation    The way words are pronounced in a spoken sentence conveys meaning. Our comprehension of spoken English is largely dependent on the rhythm, intonation, and stress we hear. Listening to TV, radio, and to Americans talking will help stu-
Students get the “feel” or the “melody” of English. The meanings we wish to communicate are largely dependent on the rhythm, intonation, and stress we hear. These areas are often difficult for new language learners to master. But, the key is providing correct models.

**Stress.** English has a stress pattern which is different from most other languages in the world. We say many unstressed syllables (and words) very quickly, and many students miss those sounds. We often hear a speaker of another language say *contribute* rather than *con-tri-bute*. This difference is one that most students will benefit from learning through a lot of practice and examples. The main stem word – as *come* in *becoming* – or an accented syllable – as in *Joe drove the car home* (not Bill or Bob) or *Joe drove the car home* (he didn’t push it or have it towed) – receives stress in English in order to convey meaning. Check out the following:

**What** is your name? (I don’t know.)
**What is** your name? (I thought I knew.)
**What is your** name? (I know his name, but ot yours.)
**What is your name?** (I know your address, but not your name.)

**Rhythm.** English also has a rhythm pattern which is different from most other languages in the world. Every language uses a rhythmic pattern in its sentences. There are two general rhythmic patterns used in the world’s languages: *syllable timing* and *stress timing*. Languages like Spanish, Japanese, and Tagalog use syllable timing. This means that all syllables are of about equal length. Therefore, sentences with an equal number of syllables can be spoken in the same amount of time. English on the other hand, is a stress-timed language; this means that stress still occurs at regular rhythmic intervals, but only important syllables are stressed. Then the remaining syllables, no matter how many there are, must fit into the set rhythm. The more unstressed syllables there are between stressed syllables, the more rapidly and indistinctly the unstressed syllables are pronounced. For instance, it would take about the same amount of time to say the following sentences because they both have three stressed syllables.

Don’t drive fast.
My father used to take us for a drive.

**Juncture.** Juncture applies to the separation of words. In English (and other languages, also) words tend to sound connected when they are not -- for example, *Weak cough* rather than *We cough*. A native speaker of English would be able to comprehend which of these phrases was intended based on the context (for example, *She had a weak cough* versus *Every time we cough it hurts*).

**Intonation.** The meaning of a sentence can be altered by changing the intonation pattern. Simple statements sound different from questions because of intonation. Statements usually end with the voice rising then falling on the last word. If you slow down your speech and overemphasize stress and intonation the words can become quite dis-
torted. Much meaning comes from intonation patterns that we learn through listening and not by rules and specific instruction. Therefore, when the student is learning the spoken language, he/she must hear the words, model them independently by speaking them, then listen again to gain the feedback needed for self-correction.

**Difficulties with Learning English Pronunciation**

It is rare that students will speak without some kind of accent, even an accent that is ever so slight. Accent can affect two areas: the pronunciation of individual sounds and the wrong stress and intonation patterns. Accent is due to an individual trying to make an approximation of the sound but uses the mouth incorrectly, trying to make a sound match a similar sound in his/her own language, or by not hearing the sound correctly initially. Stress, rhythm, and intonation patterns must be practiced by repetitive drill until the pattern is established in the brain and the sound becomes second nature.

**The Influence of the Student’s Native Language** Students’ native language influences learning English in many ways. There are students who will learn English with no problem other than a bit of an accent. But, then, there are students who will experience pronunciation problems, use the wrong words and mix English grammar with their own language’s grammar. You will become aware of these problems as you observe your students working at learning English.

The sound is new to the learner. The /th/ sound in English is a problem for many speakers of languages that do not have the sound in their language. A French speaker or a Russian speaker learning English are apt to have difficulty with a word like thank because French and Russian have no /th/ sound. A French speaker often tends to say sank or tank instead; the Russian speaker might say the same and/or might say /dat/ or /zat/ for that.

The sound exists in the learner’s native language but comes in a place that is new to the learner. For example, an English speaker learning Vietnamese is apt to have difficulty with words like Nghan and Nguyen. Although English has the /ng/ sound, it does not have that sound at the beginning of words. A Cambodian learning English will tend to drop final /s/ sounds because the Khmer language does not have an /s/ sound at the end of words. The English words bus and peace might become buh and pea.

The sound doesn’t exist in the learner’s native language but is similar to one that does. For example, a Spanish speaker learning English is apt to have difficulty distinguishing the difference between the vowel sound in the word bit and the vowel sound in the word beat. The Spanish sound system has the /ee/ sound but not the /i/ sound, so Spanish speakers tend to say both these words with the /ee/ sound. This is a common problem with speakers of many other languages who are trying to learn English. There will be someone in class who has difficulty with the /th/, /ch/, and the /dj/, as well as vowels. The
sound of /th/ is often more troublesome for speakers of most other languages than are the other two sounds.

The rhythm in the student’s native language is different from English rhythm. When trying to learn a new language, students often superimpose the rhythm of their native language onto the sentences they are learning.

Correcting Students’ Pronunciation

New teachers of oral language skills are often overly concerned about correcting their students’ pronunciation of English words so that pronunciation is exact and precise. However, remember that this is next to impossible for students who speak another language, especially older students. The key to whether to correct pronunciation is intelligibility – that is, it is correct pronunciation if it is reasonably understandable. Correct speech is that which sounds reasonable to the ear of a native speaker. Resist the temptation to constantly correct learners when they make mistakes. Correct learners if you really do not understand what they are saying.

One of the greatest problems to deal with in pronunciation is the “breaking” of poor speech habits and replacing them with correct new habits. A person who has spoken English very badly for some time could have some deeply engrained speech problems. Sometimes new speakers of English have wonderful vocabulary and grammar skills – if they can be understood. It requires, on the part of the student, recognition that he or she has a problem and, then, strong motivation and hard work to correct it. Recognition that there is a problem for these students is difficult because they are conditioned to believe that they communicate – so, from their perspective, what’s the problem! It is difficult to change these habits; but it can be accomplished.

You can use your own pronunciation as a model and show students how to form the sound instead of just asking for an imitation. First, think about how you make the sound (physically) – what your tongue does in relation to your teeth, how the roof of your mouth is involved, how your lips are involved, what shape your mouth takes -- so you can demonstrate how to produce certain sounds in English. For example, in practicing the /th/ sound you will notice that your tongue moves between your teeth and air passes over your tongue. Therefore, if students cannot make the /th/ sound, suggest to them putting the tongue between the teeth, blowing air through the mouth, and adding voice. Demonstrate the method by making the sound yourself, or use a mirror so that students can “see” their mouth’s shape and their tongue’s position. If students are still not producing a sound correctly, try to imitate them to feel where their tongue is and how their mouth is shaped; then, move your tongue to the correct position to make the sound. As you deal with other of your students’ pronunciation problems, think of individual sounds or groups of sounds in words by isolating sounds and observing your own pronunciation. You ought to be able in this way to help students get their tongues and mouths into the correct
The best guide to pronunciation is always a competent speaker.

Many teachers find clapping out the rhythm, or somehow accenting the rhythm, of a sentence or word helps students focus on the way words are grouped in English.

Pronunciation problems basically can be ignored at first, unless the student cannot be understood. If a student pronounces a word incorrectly, give the correct pronunciation, asking for it to be repeated. Then use the word correctly in a sentence. If, after several tries, the student still has difficulty with certain sounds, don’t belabor the point, but try to determine which sounds are causing the trouble. If students are easily understood, consider it acceptable speech, unless you know the student wants to improve his/her English.

Remember, before students can make a correct sound, the sound must be heard and recognized when contrasted with similar sounds.

Teaching Pronunciation

Always include in lessons a lot of pronunciation practice. Each lesson should begin with pronunciation drill no matter which level students you are involved with. Even the best speaker of English can use pronunciation practice. The purpose of pronunciation practice is not necessarily to correct problems but to give practice in the “sound” of English.

To determine which speech patterns need practice, observe students and use common sense in deciding how much of a particular lesson needs to be spent on any one point and what the point is. Teach a pronunciation lesson in the following way.

1. **Modeling by the Teacher** -- The class listens as you say a sound, a word, or a sentence. You may wish to exaggerate slightly the first few times, or speak at a slower and more deliberate rate, in order to focus attention on a critical point. When you are teaching a pronunciation lesson, students should always be sure of the point of emphasis, for they cannot efficiently concentrate on too many points at once. If you do exaggerate or slow down, be sure you repeat the model several more times in a style typical of natural conversation. Don’t hesitate to model the item a number of times before asking students to repeat. Try to avoid the fault of over-articulation.

2. **Imitation by Students** -- Ask for repetition first by the entire class, next by groups, and finally by individuals called upon at random – in that order. As they repeat, keep modeling the language for them. Otherwise they may be repeating the mistakes of those around them rather than the accurate model you are providing. Finally, you can test students’ control of pronunciation by asking them to produce the sound, phrase, or sentence without any modeling on your part.

3. **Explanation/Demonstration** -- Occasionally you will find
that brief explanations and/or demonstrations will help students move more quickly toward accurate pronunciation. You may want to demonstrate the position of the upper teeth and lower lip in /f/ and /v/. It is reasonable to explain in English if your class has sufficient competency to comprehend the explanation. Otherwise, demonstrate.

Activities for Developing Good Speech Habits

Minimal Pairs  Many words have an entirely different meaning when only one sound is changed, often a vowel. When communication is distorted by mispronunciation the result of the distortion can often bring about a change of meaning. Minimal pairs (words that contrast in one sound only) are sometimes useful in presenting vowel and consonant contrasts. *Sin* is much different in meaning from *seen*, *tin* from *teen*, *fill* from *feel*, *ship* from *sheep*; these words contrast in their vowel sounds. *Chip* and *ship* contrast in their beginning consonant sounds; *knees* and *niece* contrast in their final consonant sounds. Contrasting sounds are always sounds that make a difference in meaning. There are a number of minimal pairs that can be used in this way. It is with these contrasting sounds that students learning English become familiar with the sound of a language.

The practicing of minimal pairs is for pronunciation only *with no meaning involved*. When a list of minimal pairs is created for your students, the meaning of the words is not important nor are familiar words needed; you can even use nonsense syllable that are representative of English words. Of course, minimal pairs can be formed from lesson vocabulary. Do not put minimal pairs on the board; this is a listening exercise only.

Use minimal pairs to show the importance of correct vowel or consonant sounds in English. Select a group of word pairs that provide examples of the same contrast, e.g., of the letters “p” and “b” and the sounds /p/ and /b/, in the beginning position of words.

- **pill** – **bill**
- **pail** – **bail**
- **pie** – **buy**
- **pair** – **bear**
- **pest** – **best**

At first tell students to listen only. To help students produce one of the sounds, have them repeat after you: *pill – pill*, *pie – pie*, etc.

Some teachers prefer that the two words be presented in minimal sentences.

- *I see the ship. I see the sheep.*
- *I see my niece. I see my knees.*

Using these kinds of exercises with more advanced students is needed only if there is an obvious problem.

Tongue Twisters  Rather than the humdrum of pronunciation drills, the English tongue twisters that we enjoyed as children are wonderful for pronunciation practice. They are fun and accomplish the same thing, using the more simple ones for the beginners and progressing to
more difficult ones for upper level students. Advanced students usually want to know the meaning. There is a list of tongue twisters in Appendix J.
Chapter 4

Vocabulary

We often think of “words” as being the stuff that language is made of. Obviously, words do convey meaning. Sometimes one word alone is sufficient to communicate something.

Meaning

Content Words and Structure Words

A basic distinction in teaching vocabulary is that between content words and structure (often called function) words. In a sentence like *The book is yellow*, the words *book* and *yellow* have “real meaning” and are called content words. You can point to a book, touch a book, and hold up a book with a yellow cover. However, you can’t show a picture of *the* and *is*. These words can be taught only in the sentences that contain them. This is especially difficult for students whose language does not have definite and indefinite articles. We call words like *the* and *is*, which are part of the grammar of the language, structure (or function) words. Content words can be further divided into concrete meanings and abstract meanings.

Concrete and Abstract Meaning

Words like *yellow* and *book* are also described as having concrete meaning – something that can be seen or touched because they exist in reality not just as an idea. Many words with concrete meaning (like *book*, *yellow*, and *run*) can be taught through pictures. For this reason, each lesson should begin with an illustration (picture, object, action, etc.) that demonstrates the meaning of the content/concrete words.

The opposite of concrete meaning is abstract meaning – a concept or term that indicates a quality, an emotion, and does not refer to a word with a concrete meaning. It is important to offer vocabulary with concrete meanings to be learned first since these concepts can be easily illustrated. It is often very difficult to convey the meaning of abstract words. The concepts of emotions can be fairly successfully taught, however.
Connotative and Denotative Meaning

Language can become even more complicated. Not only can a single word have numerous definitions and subtle meanings, but it may also take on added meanings through implication. Many words have not only denotative (have a specific meaning) but have also a connotative meaning (a secondary meaning which is cultural, sometimes negative and sometimes positive, and with sometimes almost a “hidden” meaning). The denotative meaning of a word is the direct explicit meaning. A good example of the difference in denotative and connotative meaning is the following usage of the words childlike and childish: both words have the denotation of “like or characteristic of a child.” However, the two words have their own connotations. Childlike suggests the favorable qualities considered typical of a child -- innocence and trustworthiness -- for example. Childlike is generally favorable on all age levels. Childish connotes the unfavorable characteristics of a child -- foolishness or immaturity -- for example. When applied to adults, childish is almost invariably a term of reproach. For example

The actress captured perfectly the character’s childlike qualities in her performance.

Your childish behavior is quite annoying in a grown person.

The best way to make sure that students know these things about vocabulary is to teach the vocabulary through use in realistic situations. If the situation is clear, the meaning and use of the vocabulary item also becomes clear. Take note of the following:

- Teach content words as vocabulary.
- Teach only words with concrete meaning using visuals.
- Teach words in the context of a sentence.

Teach only denotative meaning; include connotative meaning in lessons for advanced students only.

Teaching Vocabulary

To fully understand words, students must know

- What they mean,
- What other words they are used with (e.g., phrasal [two-word] verbs – cut back and cut up),
- Which situations they are used in (e.g., the difference between Good evening and Good night),
- What the social consequences of their use can be (e.g., saying Scram has different social consequences from saying, Please leave),
- That there are groups of words which have a specific meaning and must be learned that way.

Teach Vocabulary in Context

The practice in many classes is to teach students what a word
**means**, as though each word has one meaning. Teaching vocabulary through lists often results in students knowing how words are pronounced and what one meaning of a word is, but they really do not know how to use the words correctly. Very few words have meaning in isolation. For example, the word run has a completely different meaning in the following sentences (context): *That child’s nose always runs, My watch has run down, She has a run in her stocking, He will run for president next year, She has had a run of bad luck.* 

Watches, stockings, and noses don’t seem to have anything in common, yet they all run.

Language patterns used are repetitive. You are not assigning vocabulary to be studied and memorized – you are helping students enter new words into an English language program they are constructing in their minds.

In order to participate in and understand English conversation, students will need an ever-expanding vocabulary for real competency in English. Instead of having the student memorize vocabulary lists, provide for the introduction of new words within a known structure or compared to other known vocabulary. Substitute new words in sentences and patterns you are working on. Be sure students understand their meanings by using actions, objects, pictures – whatever you have, but not by giving a definition or having students look for a definition in a dictionary. Rather than defining the word, meaning will come by associating the new word with visuals of real items and putting the words in sentences.

Choose words of commonly known everyday items.
Choose commonly known action words.
Choose pictures to convey their meaning.

The following are suggestions for dealing with vocabulary:

- Talk about a picture and identify three or four words to be learned.
- Ask “yes” and “no” questions about a vocabulary item.
- Ask a question which gives the student a choice of single word answers, e.g., *Is this a spoon or a fork?*
- Ask the student to produce the vocabulary, e.g., *What is he doing?*
- Reinforce the vocabulary just learned by using pattern drills, role playing, or games.

When searching for new vocabulary for students to learn, it is sometimes helpful to teach words in groupings.

- Words associated with particular situations, such as going to the doctor (*doctor, clinic*), OR going shopping (*buy, supermarket items*) etc.
- Words illustrated by pictures, or objects at hand such as table, chair, purse, door
- Words which are related such as *act, acting, and actor*
“Vocabulary” can mean not only a single word, but also two or three words that go together to form meaning, a phrase, or a whole sentence that communicates something.

**Idioms**

This section discusses language that is not so easily understood nor taught, -- idiomatic language – languages that is formed of groups of words which have a specific and unitary meaning and must be learned that way.

An idiom is a phrase or expression in a given language that is unique to itself. All languages have idioms that come directly from the culture and have meaning only in that culture. These expressions are groups of words that, when put together, have a completely different meaning than they would have if translated word for word. The meaning of each individual word and the grammatical construction of the entire phrase can be understood, but the meaning of the idiom cannot be understood because its meaning is greater than the sum of its parts. For example, the expression *egg on her face* would make no sense if translated word for word – unless of course, she actually has a dirty face from having eaten breakfast.

The native English speaker picks up idioms naturally by hearing others use them. Not only is the meaning absorbed, one gradually gets a feel for the circumstances in which they are appropriate. We use them without even thinking about them. But for learners of English, idioms are the little things that will *drive them crazy* (yet another idiom). When one studies a second language, idioms can batter the ego because there are no clear-cut principles with which to learn them. Each new encounter takes the learner by surprise. Keep the following points in mind as you work with students.

The learner must
- Learn idiomatic expressions with their precise meaning.
- Memorize idiomatic expressions verbatim (that is, word for word).
- Practice over and over, saying the idiom and its synonym so that none of the words are missed.
- Know when, and when not, to use these expressions.

Teach idioms to only the low advanced and advanced groups since it requires using English to explain the meaning of idioms. Never teach idioms through translation. They cannot be translated!

Advanced students enjoy learning idioms. Much time should be spent in any one lesson in learning idioms, therefore limit a lesson to only four or five idioms. Teach idioms that are the most frequently used and most easily explained.

Be sure that students know the meaning of idioms and can use them in conversation. An idiom is often one of several ways of saying the same thing in English. Provide several sample sentences so that your students can understand the meaning of the expression and become
comfortable with it.
1. Teach idioms by first explaining the meaning of each idiom.
2. Then give an alternate meaning for the idiom, and show how the idiom is used in a sentence and a given situation.

A very successful way to teach idioms is through drilling by using another way of expressing the meaning of the idiom.

For example:
Idiom: *He’s got egg on his face!*
Synonymous meaning: *He’s embarrassed because he made a mistake.*

Then work with the class in a drill fashion. Have them do a repetition drill, first repeating the synonymous meaning, then the idiom, then again the synonymous meaning. As follows:
T – *He’s embarrassed because he made a mistake.*
S – *He’s embarrassed because he made a mistake.*
T – *He’s got egg on his face!*
S – *He’s got egg on his face!*
T – *He’s embarrassed because he made a mistake.*
S – *He’s embarrassed because he made a mistake.*

Learning idiomatic expressions takes practice – drill, drill, drill.

**Phrasal Verbs** There is another aspect of English vocabulary that causes serious troubles for students learning to speak English – that is phrasal verbs.

Phrasal verbs (often called **two-word**, or **three-word**, verbs) are so called because the verb itself consists of two or more words, a verb and a verb particle. Phrasal verbs are in reality idioms – two-word verbs pairing up to create a new meaning – to create an idiom. Phrasal verbs are widely used in English, as the following paragraph illustrates:

The kids turned out the light, switched off the radio, clicked on the TV, and picked out a video. “Well,” said Mom, “at least they’re not running up the phone bill.” Dad laughed. “You’re putting me on, right?” “I wouldn’t rule out that possibility,” smiled Mom.

There are only five sentences here, but the paragraph is power packed with idiomatic two-word verbs. Each of these matings of a verb and a verb particle conveys a particular meaning. Sometimes the meaning is close to the meaning of the verb itself (switched off); sometimes it’s quite different (putting me on). In examining the list of two-word verbs in Appendix K, we see these examples: come, with nineteen two-word combinations, cut with 9, get with 25, go with 23, hold with 11, look with 14, put with 14, run with 11, set with 10, and take with 11 – and these lists are incomplete. Foreign speakers of English often use the incorrect verb particle and come up with some very amusing sounding expressions.

Often, the meaning of a verb or modifier stays the same, but when used with a different **verb particle** (frequently incorrectly called a preposition), its meaning changes -- sometimes slightly, sometimes
significantly. For a learner of English, choosing the correct verb particle is tricky. It is extremely important for communication that the correct verb particle be understood and learned.

The two-part verbs in the following paragraph are a problem for students because they are often not listed in the dictionary in a separate form, their meaning is hard to find, and they are often idiomatic.

We like it when someone turns us on but not when they turn on us. However, we’re generally neutral when they turn on a light. We want to show up at our friends’ parties, but we don’t want to show them up nor do we want to be shown up by our friends.

Up and down are opposites, but slow up and slow down mean the same thing. A house burns down, but a piece of paper burns up.

When we wind up a watch we are starting it, but when we wind up a conversation we’re ending it. Yet, at the end of a long day, when we finally wind up at home, what’s the first thing we want to do? Wind down or unwind.

In and out are also opposites, but the Internal Revenue Service accepts our tax forms whether they have been filled in or filled out.

See and look are similar in meaning, but oversee and overlook are very different (although not quite opposites).

And we can be beside ourselves, under the weather, or on top of the world – all without moving an inch.

Besides not appearing as separate entries in the dictionary, these two-word verbs present one other problem. Some of them must have their two parts together in a sentence, while others may have their parts separated by other things in the sentence.

Examples:

- They wanted to look over the car.
- They wanted to look the car over.
- They wanted to look it over.
- But NOT: They wanted to look over the hill.

The meaning of look over in the first three sentences is to examine. Look over in the fourth sentence is not a two-word verb; it is the verb look plus the preposition over and means someone wants to look on the other side of it.

Listed in Appendix M are a number of useful idioms by category, as well as phrasal verbs. A small dictionary of idioms will be useful.
Difficulties with Learning English Vocabulary

The problems that learners of the English language have with vocabulary usually relate to vocabulary differences among languages. There are vocabulary differences when comparing English vocabulary to other languages. Even in the American English culture there are vocabulary differences: for example the use in English of frying pan, fry pan, skillet, and spider are regional variants that refer to the same cooking utensil. The English language contains separate lexical terms for finger and toe, and this reflects a perception on the part of English speakers that they are distinct parts of the anatomy. Spanish speakers, on the other hand, do not view them as distinct but classify them together, using only one word, dedo, for both parts of the body. Speakers of Hopi must choose between two words in their language for what English speakers call water. They refer to it as pahe if it is freely running, as in a river or fountain, and as keyi if it is confined, as in a bottle or glass.

Other problems arise because other languages do not have certain concepts in the language. For example, a student from an equatorial part of the earth wouldn’t understand what snow is or ice either for that matter. Words for common American food such as vegetables could cause students problems. Students would be able to memorize these items and connect them with pictures but not really know the full meaning of the words.

To make your task a little easier, look for words from American English that appear in other languages. They are similar in sound and meaning to English words. These words, called loan words, such as restaurant, coffee, coke, names of sports, the word sport itself, have been borrowed from American English. They might have a somewhat different pronunciation, but the meaning should be the same. They are some of the easiest words to learn, and you can use them initially to help students increase their English vocabulary rapidly.
Chapter 5

Grammar

The focus of this chapter is three-fold: first, to explain how the concept of “grammar” functions in a conversational approach to learning English; second, to point out how to teach grammar; and third, to point out areas of grammar that a student who is learning English could have problems with.

The major units of meaning in English are in phrases and sentences, not single words. It is true that one way meaning is conveyed is by words. When we know a word, we also learn its acceptable use and occurrence with other words. However, knowledge of the English language is more than just the understanding of words and their meanings. There is a greater context – sentence structure, grammar -- in which the meaning of that word is clarified and extended.

At first, AELT students will learn English vocabulary and its meaning even though they may not know the grammatical structures in which to use them properly. However, vocabulary must be set into a larger context; and that larger context is grammar.

What is Grammar?

Grammar is a technical vocabulary, which gives added meaning and functions to words. Traditional “grammar” involves word order, parts of speech, tense. Each word in the English language has been classified as a part of speech, depending on the role it plays in a sentence. A word is either a noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, or interjection. These labels are manmade, but this is not grammar!

Good grammar is like good table manners. It varies with circumstances, but something about it always remains constant. It is a product of the way people spoke in the past and of the way people are speaking now. Although it changes, and many rules of grammar are obscure, for the most part there is a consensus about correct and incorrect English. It consists of a set of rules or conventions that helps to guide the use of correctly spoken English. If the same set of grammatical rules are practiced by all individuals, then communication becomes much easier.

As speakers of a language, we know whether a statement sounds right. We learned the “grammar” -- those conventions -- of our
Children learn correct grammar by the age of five — without the help of a teacher! Then, why should we “teach” grammar when we were very, very young. This is evidenced by the fact that a five-year-old (and many younger children) can correctly use the full grammatical structure of his/her language — all without a teacher — but cannot formally distinguish nouns from verbs. And, he does not need to. We learned those “rules” of grammar when we went to school. We could not have communicated without that grammar.

## Sentence Structure

Sentence structure is one of the most fundamental features of a language; it is also one of the most important for early mastery. **Structure** implies something (like a building) carefully, meaningfully, and sequentially put together. This means that the relationship between words is regular, patterned, and conveys meaning to other speakers of the same language. For example, *The dog chased the boy* has meaning for speakers of English partially because of the order of the words. Because *dog* comes before *chased*, we know who is doing the “chasing.” Because *boy* follows *chased* we know who is being chased. And because of the pronunciation of the -d on the end of *chased* we know that the action took place in the past. We could not know this until the vocabulary was set in a pattern or structure. How different the meaning of this sentence is from *The boy chased the dog*.

A change in basic sentence word order can make an English sentence nonsensical or make it mean something completely different. For example, if part of the verb is moved so it comes before the subject, we have a question. For example, *John will be home at eight* becomes *Will John be home at eight?* If you switch the “time phrase” *at eight* with the “place word” *home* you get something that no native speaker would ever say – *John will be at eight home* — but yet it is understandable. The following two sentences have quite a different meaning: *Bill gave the coke to Tom, Tom gave the coke to Bill.*

Word order is also important in English phrases. In these two phrases below notice how natural the first phrase sounds and how unnatural the second phrase sounds:

1. . . . those first two big yellow climbing roses of yours which you planted . . .
2. . . . big those two first climbing yellow roses which you planted of yours . . .

Many fundamental meanings in English are indicated by the order of the words. In English, word order is more important than it is in many other languages. Students often produce sentences which sound strange to the native’s ear because the order of the words in the sentences is wrong. This is because in many other languages the inflections applied to words indicate the same grammatical meaning as does English word order and therefore word order isn’t as important in those languages.
Teaching Sentence Structure

The important thing about teaching sentence structure is that we do not “teach” grammar any more than someone having taught grammar to the four-year-old. Teachers should facilitate the learning of sentence structure by their students. Sentence structure falls into place as we carefully and sequentially choose what we help students to learn, just as it does in the lives of children, and no one has to teach them what a verb is or even what a sentence is. A child is born with the God-given aptitude and desire to communicate and needs only the constant exposure.

In teaching conversational English, focus on teaching learners how to use the language to create meaning and to communicate rather than on how the language works (the grammar or rules). We “teach” grammar by modeling correct structures and having students repeat and respond. It is important that English teachers speak correctly since they are models for their students and also so that mistakes are not learned by students.

As you teach conversational English, you are working for sentence structure and word order familiar to the ear, not grammatical rules stored in the brain. Merely learning the technical details used in grammar does not assure mastery of a language.

Remember that all structure must be taught first with Total Physical Response (TPR). (See Chapter 7.)

1. Teach single vocabulary items before putting them in the context of a sentence or phrase. Separate nouns into two groups – those which start with a consonant sound and those that start with a vowel sound in order to be prepared to teach the following.

2. One area that speakers of some other languages have difficulty with is the definite and indefinite articles – the and a/an.
   a. Teach all nouns, first, that begin with a consonant sound and that require a as the indefinite article. Drill these nouns until it appears that students are comfortable.
   b. Next, drill students using a response drill, asking questions, and showing pictures/objects that require a.
   c. Then teach only words that begin with a vowel sound and require an. Drill students on each word, over and over.
   d. Next, drill students using a response drill, asking questions, and showing pictures/objects that require an.
   e. Lastly, randomly combine both sets of nouns, drilling students with a response drill that requires a noun using both a and an, as a response.


4. The progression of teaching grammar (for beginners or for remediation) is the following: to have, to be, regular verbs in the present tense, the present progressive, simple past (of regular verbs learned), the future tense.

5. How to teach subject pronouns (I, you, he/she/it, we, they)
a. Start with I and you (both singular and plural). Demonstrate the meaning of I by pointing to yourself. Demonstrate you (singular) by pointing to each single person. Later, demonstrate you (plural) by drawing a circle around all the students. Retain this while teaching vocabulary with the use of have.
b. Teach the subject pronoun he by pointing to each boy in the class and saying he each time. Use he in sentences and drills.
c. Teach the subject pronoun she by pointing to each girl in the class and saying she each time. Use she in sentences and drills.
d. Then mix the drills, randomly using he and she.
e. Lastly, mix the I, you, he, she in drills.
f. Teach we and they in a similar way. We incorporates I and you (singular or plural); while they eliminates I. Use a circular, rounding gesture to the whole class, saying you, then point to yourself saying I; then use a rounding gesture including yourself, saying we. Do it again several times. Teach they by doing the rounding gesture with a portion of the class, saying they. Do this several times until the meaning comes across. Use drills to help students get used to saying it.

6. Regular verbs before irregular verbs. “Regular” verbs are those which add –ed to form the simple past tense; “irregular” verbs are those that change in the past tense, such as eat/ate, drink/drank, etc. Introduce regular verbs first, other than be and have. Irregular verbs should not be introduced to beginner groups unless time allows and then only much later in the cycle of their learning. Introduce irregular verbs only with Intermediate groups, and review with advanced groups as needed.

7. Prepositions should be taught in a listening comprehension format first in context (in a situation where the use is natural) so that students can fully understand their meaning. Also, it will help students if you do not teach too many prepositions at one time.

8. Teaching question structure:
   a. In the sentence He walks every morning, do/does is attached with not to form a negative statement – He does not walk every morning.
   b. To create a question, do/does is placed in front of the subject -- Does he walk every morning?
   c. The format using do is difficult for most students learning to speak English.

9. To teach the present and past progressive tense verbs (Verb + ing).
   a. With lower level students, during a TPR session, after action verbs such as put, pick up, stand up, sit down, etc. have been learned, catch a student in the process of fulfilling a command such as Pick up the book, then announce to the class He is picking up the book. Do this with every
verb that the class has learned, using pictures that illustrate the action verbs already learned, then proceed with oral practice using drills.

b. For more advanced students, bring objects for your student to use (pennies to count, buttons to count and/or put in a box, cookies to eat, small nails to put in a box, etc.). Ask students, What are you doing? If students respond with some difficulty, model the response correctly.

c. Do not teach the past progressive (was/were + verb+ing) until the past tense of be has been learned.

10. Teaching tense. “Tense” means the time of the action. Start with the present tense, today. Do not introduce past or future tense until students are comfortable with the present tense.

To introduce the simple past tense, use a calendar; review calendar concepts in the present tense, using today. Introduce the past tense concept by pointing to the current day of the week (today) and asking, What is today? Then point to the day before and ask What was yesterday? and emphasizing was and yesterday. If no correct response is given, say Yesterday was (day). Use repetition and substitution drills to instill the concept of the past tense expression and the use of was. This is important because the concept of the past tense of to be will be introduced following the present tense of to be. The concept of “future” can be taught in the same way, using Tomorrow will be (day).

11. Do not teach contractions (e.g., I’m) until the words which make up the contraction (e.g., I am) are learned. Students will need to know first that I’m is a contraction of I am, but the shorter version eventually will be more immediately useful in speaking.

Difficulties with Learning English Grammar

There are many aspects of English which are not problems at all for native speakers (even uneducated ones) but which might cause problems for students learning English as a second language. The native language plays a big part in students’ inability to learn English correctly. Just as in the case of pronunciation, problems with the structure of English are caused by interference of students’ own language. English is different in many ways from other languages. Students must learn new word order, new function words and their uses, and they must unlearn everything they ever knew about grammatical gender.

English prepositions Words which show place or direction (for example, to, from, up, down), are a problem because different languages use different prepositions to express the same ideas. Quite often in other languages the concept of whatever a given English preposition is expressing is attached to another word; therefore, the student would not be accustomed to expressing a separate word for a
prepositional concept.

**English articles** The and *a/an* will be difficult for students from many other languages. Western European languages -- French, German, Dutch, Spanish, Italian, Greek, English -- all have in the language the definite and indefinite articles. But for students of most other languages, *the* and *a/an* will be very difficult to teach. The concept behind these function words is not absent in the other languages, but the idea is expressed in the context or is expressed by an inflection. Students without these function words in their native language will tend to leave them out in English -- e.g., *I would like sandwich*. Part of the problem is that when English is spoken these words are unaccented almost to the point of being silent; non-native speakers simply do not hear them.

**The position of adjectives (words that describe)** In English word order, describing words usually *precede* the noun they describe - *the green car*. But in many languages the adjective will *follow* the noun, *the car green*.

**Grammatical gender** English does not have grammatical gender. But most other languages do. Grammatical gender is a classification corresponding to the two sexes and sexlessness (neuter), but has little or nothing to do with biological gender (sex).

Grammatical gender used to exist in English several centuries ago but has been lost for the most part. Currently, English nouns have no gender. However, there is some residual grammatical gender: for example, when a yachtsman says *Doesn’t she sail smoothly?* he is assigning feminine gender (*she*) to his yacht. We often apply feminine gender to a ship, an airplane, or a locomotive, etc.

In the case of students from other native languages applying gender from their own language, we might hear such as *I must go get the car, because I want her here early* (meaning the car), because the student’s native language applies grammatical gender (feminine in this case) to the word for *car* in that language. In another language, a student might say, in speaking of his mother, *I told him . . .* (rather than *I told her . . .*) because this student’s language has only one personal pronoun, translated *him* to apply to all humans. Direct translation from the native language to English can often explain the error.
Developing Conversational Skills

6

Teaching Tools for Conveying Meaning

Conveying Meaning

Visual Materials:  Real Objects;  Maps;  Newspaper Ads;  Menus;  Simple Drawings and Home Made Things;  Actions;  Pictures

7

Facilitating Listening Comprehension Skills

Total Physical Response (TPR):  TPR for the Beginning Learner;  The Characteristics of TPR;  Five Steps in Facilitating TPR;  Teaching TPR with Colored Paper;  Using Colored Paper for Teaching TPR with More Advanced Students

Checking Comprehension:  Requesting Action to Follow Directions;  Interactive Listening and Speaking;  Questions

8

Facilitating Speaking Through Guided Exercises

Drilling:  Backward Buildup Drill;  Repetition Drills;  Open-Ended Chain Drills;  Substitution Drills;  Response Drills;  Transformation Drills

9

Speaking Freely

Using Games in the Classroom:  Creating and/or Using Games Already Available;  Suggestions for Choosing or Creating Games;  Suggestions for Playing the Game

Role Playing:  Why Role Play?  Three Types of Role Playing;  How to Create Role Plays

Dialogues:  How to Facilitate the Learning of Dialogues;  Memorized Dialogues;  Cued Dialogues
Chapter 6

Teaching Tools for Conveying Meaning

The main question for teachers of English is how to create a classroom environment, select strategies, and develop techniques that promote conversational skills.

First, we must convey meaning to students.

Second, we must prepare classroom materials which facilitate learning.

Conveying Meaning

The process of learning language is discovery learning – not learning from a textbook or through a translator. Discovery learning lasts longer in a student’s memory than those things that teachers present and students memorize. Students make the discovery through the teacher’s conveying of meaning in some way, by using anything that illustrates meaning -- this includes using gestures, pointing out objects, showing pictures, by acting out and demonstrating actions, using the classroom itself, and using students themselves, etc. -- not by explaining and/or lecturing.

Always try to create a context that ensures the learner will understand what he or she is saying. For example, you might decide to teach the sentence *He is running*. Instead of simply saying it and asking the learner to repeat it, you can provide a context by running across the room or showing a picture of a child running. This is especially important with learners who are very good at mimicking the sounds of English and who may be able to almost perfectly repeat the words and sentences they hear without understanding anything the speaker is saying.

If students do not grab the meaning, try something else. It is the teacher’s responsibility to get meaning across. Use your imagination! Be a ham! Be creative! There will likely be an interpreter in the classroom, and, in our panic, it is tempting to ask for a translation, but don’t. The role and function of the translator in the classroom will be discussed at greater length in a later chapter.

Visual Materials

Using something that students can see and relate to is an excellent
way to promote communication, giving students the opportunity to associate words with actual objects, pictures, or actions. Pictures, and other visuals as well, can be used to stimulate a response in almost any drill. Visuals are invaluable as a basic tool for teaching conversational English. They can be adapted to any drill, using them to teach structure or vocabulary. They can be adapted to lessons for students of any ability. Materials that are used in the AELT classroom are limited to those used by the teacher. There are no textbooks or other kinds of materials for students.

Visual aids include, but are not limited to, the following.

- Real objects
- Human beings
- Maps
- Newspaper ads
- Menus
- Stick figures
- Photographs
- Simple drawings
- Home-made objects
- Computer generated visuals
- Actions
- Pictures of
  - Things (concrete concepts)
  - Family or other situations w/ details
  - Emotions and feelings (abstractions)
  - Pictures that tell a story

This chapter will discuss the specifics of choosing visuals, using visuals, and preparing them.

**Real Objects**

The most practical visual aids for building initial conversations are **real objects** such as may be found in the classroom--table, chairs, window, pencil, books, the students themselves--whatever is available. Use all objects with all techniques and with all strategies. Use real objects whenever possible, but if real objects are not available, use pictures.

Lessons are easier if you have real materials to show students as you use the relevant language. In teaching new words, even in a simple substitution drill, real objects can reveal a meaning immediately, making comprehension easy. For instance when teaching the use of the telephone, use a real phone. If a telephone is not available, bring a toy phone to the teaching session and orally give students numbers (after they have learned the numbers, of course) to practice. A cardboard phone is not as good, but it still affords practice. Giving learners items to hold in their hands helps them relate the new word to the object.

If the lesson is on how to start a bank account, bring deposit and withdrawal slips and, if possible, an actual savings account passbook. Anyone needing to keep house for himself and/or for others will find statements and questions involving food items of immediate use.
Although students may know some of the words, they may pronounce them incorrectly. Set up a demonstration with a few items and act out a grocery shopping situation.

Bring in objects from home. Items which are common to students’ lives can act as stimuli for conversation: a watch, articles of clothing, pots and pans, a small radio.
- A handbag (handles, leather, mirror),
- A sewing kit (needles, thread, scissors, pins),
- A box of cereal (box, cardboard),
- A dish (glass, round).

The more senses we employ (touching, hearing, seeing, smelling, movement, tasting), the more effective our teaching and students’ learning will be. An actual orange has weight, fragrance, and color, and its name will be fixed in students’ minds through their senses of touch, sight, and smell. Bring a few props which will build interest and give meaning to new vocabulary.

Use the **real world around you** – in this case **students themselves** and other objects in the classroom. To practice comparative and superlative, bring a measuring tape and measure the height of each student and record it so that students can see the measurements. Ask students, *How tall Leonardo?* Then measure other items in the classroom. Each time ask the appropriate question. *How high is the door? How long is this book? How tall is Paula? How long is the table? How high is the door?*

Then turn it into practice using *taller, tallest, longer, longest*, etc. *Who is taller -- Jim or Paul? How much taller than Paul is Jim?*

**Maps**

Maps are another way that conversation can be stimulated. Bring a map of the world, of the students’ country, of the USA or Canada, of your particular state or province, and then perhaps of your city or town with actual streets indicated. Computer generated maps would be ideal, also. They could be enlarged to disclose any amount of detail needed. You can share information as students look at each map, learning from your students as you find out about his or her country, and teaching more about the U.S. Simple but detailed maps showing city streets would be good for practicing concepts of prepositions, directions, etc. These could be taken from a larger map, copied, and greatly enlarged or they could be computer generated.

**Newspaper Ads**

Provide ads clipped from newspapers so that the product on sale can be discussed -- the sale price, the regular price, how much savings there is, and the idea of “discount.” Bring out the fact that the merchandise on sale often cannot be returned and that the sales slip must be kept in order to return merchandise either for exchange or for refund. Role playing could be an interesting way to review this in-
formation with each student alternately taking the role of the clerk and the customer.

Supermarket, K-Mart, and Wal-Mart circulars provide a wealth of information about American shopping. Accompany the circular with photos taken in the store to provide something of the American culture; it is in America that these very large supermarkets can be found. Bring to class enough circulars and newspaper ads that each student can have one to look through.

**Menus**

Students enjoy looking at menus from American restaurants. Bring menus to class, enough for each student, that provide insight into American restaurants. These can be used for vocabulary, for learning expressions for ordering from a menu, for discussing quantities, specials, prices, etc. Students can use the menus for role playing the use of a menu.

Some restaurants will give you a supply of menus, perhaps old menus, if you explain what they will be used for. On the other hand, if you can obtain only one menu, run it through a scanner and make enough color copies for the class.

**Simple Drawings and Home Made Things**

You can make your own **stick figures** to illustrate a word or action, drawn on newsprint or on a chalkboard. You need not be an artist to do this. Give it a try! If the action being described is in the past tense, your drawing must show the action completed. It’s fun, you and the class will laugh, but more importantly you will have communicated. If there are sufficient funds for extra material, there are commercially made stick figure cards that are excellent. Check with teacher supply businesses for a variety of visual aid materials. Discount stores such as Wal-Mart may have such items.

Sometimes **drawing a picture** will help in teaching a word or an action or a concept that can’t wait for a more artistic display. For example, if you are working on telling time and do not have a clock or picture, it is very easy to draw a clock and vary the hands.

Or, on the other hand, using heavy paper plates, a **simple clock** with moveable hands can be created from a paper plate. It can be used in helping students learn the appropriate English expressions with *What time is it?* and *It is . . . o’clock*. Create the **hands** in color on the computer by using graphics software and mounted with a brad on the clock so that they will move. Black one-inch self-adhesive numbers can be purchased at an office supply store.

**Calendars**, or **computer generated calendars**, are useful with vocabulary relating to days of the week, months, numbers, the concepts of later, earlier, before, after, yesterday, tomorrow, etc. For example, a calendar can be created on a computer, using the table format, one page per month, and showing holidays or other important days in America.

Computer generated **flash cards** showing numbers, time, words,
and the like are useful and easy to make. Number cards, from one to a hundred, can be created on the computer. Numbers should be large (36 point) and in bold.

Create with a computer a flash card showing a large question mark. Many of the world’s languages use the question mark in print to indicate a question. If students have difficulty distinguishing between a question and a statement, hold up this flash card.

Computer generated “Smiley” (smiling and sad) faces help to teach the concept of emotions. Look for the “Smiley” (smiling and sad) on the accompanying CD.

Using a Clip-Art software package, flash cards showing a single picture in color can be created. These are attractive and useful. Do not put the name of the visual on the front of the picture. Many students can read these words, and that isn’t what we want.

**Actions**

In learning a new language, it is very important that the conversation be related to actions. When asking students to open a window, have them actually open a window in response. When a student is learning to use the future tense, verbalizing what he is going to do, is a real challenge.

S -- I’'m going to sharpen my pencil.

It is important, then, that the pencil be sharpened.

Associating actions and time (future) are important. Past tense can be elicited by asking. What did you do? The response, I sharpened my pencil, demonstrated understanding of past tense. The progressive tense can be elicited by asking, What are you doing?

Don’t hesitate to demonstrate words and phrases like shaking hands, eating, standing, laughing. Remember, the more senses we use, the more information we receive and the better we are able to remember. When students respond and carry out the physical activity associated with the language, learning is more likely to be retained.

**Pictures**

It is often difficult to bring real life situations into the teaching session without the use of pictures. They are the best substitute for actual objects and actions.

In teaching new words, even in a simple substitution drill, pictures can reveal meaning immediately, making comprehension easy.

Pictures are invaluable as a basic tool for teaching conversational English. They can be adapted to any drills, using them to teach structure or vocabulary. They can be adapted to lessons for students of any ability.

Pictures generally fall into three categories:

- Those illustrating a single object or action.
- Those depicting an entire situation (tell a story)
- Pictures illustrating emotions

A picture is worth a thousand words!
Pictures can be used to stimulate a response in almost any drill. They are most valuable in teaching dialogues where students must supply substituted words.

T -- *We need vegetables to make a salad. What shall I get?*
S -- *Carrots, tomatoes, and lettuce.*
T -- *What shall I get to make soup?*
S -- *Potatoes, onions, celery, and carrots.*

Pictures illustrating *fruit* would be an ideal tool to help in substituting vocabulary, or *groceries*, or *children’s clothes*. The ideas are endless.

Go a bit further and use pictures showing various situations. Pictures can tell a story -- such as a family eating dinner, a man and a boy fishing. Norman Rockwell pictures are useful because they usually tell a story. These are invaluable aids to stimulating conversations. Depending on the ability of the student, ask questions such as the following:

*How many people are in the picture?*

Or, ask inference questions (reading between the lines):

*Why do you think the boy is laughing?*

Use pictures as students role-play various situations or practice dialogues. Pictures can help make any pretend dialogue nearly real. Pictures can open up not only areas of conversation but also areas of real need. With a catalog (such as Penney’s), have students role play purchasing, for example, a refrigerator. They could discuss the feature to look for, the prices, and terms of payment, etc.

**Where to Obtain Pictures**

Pictures may be obtained almost anywhere you look –

1. From catalogs, magazines, newspapers, calendars, advertisements, maps, photographs, post cards,
2. Picture flash cards, used with children, and which have the word printed on the back of the cards so that students do not see the word,
3. Children’s coloring books, the type that show not only simple line drawings of objects but also those that show actions taking place. They can be copied and mounted.

The time and effort spent in collecting a variety of pictures is most rewarding as lessons are planned. Once you start thinking about pictures as teaching tools for conversational English students, collecting will become a “disease,” and you will become a “clip-to-maniac,” clipping everything in sight. Don’t stop and ask yourself if it’s a picture worth clipping -- do it anyway; you might need it.

Depending on the culture(s) you are working with, be sure that visual aids are either culture-free or represent cultural concepts that students can recognize from their own culture(s).

1. Go through magazines and other such media and carefully pull out pictures.
2. Pull out everything which appears to be useful and even some that are questionable. You can always discard later
those pictures which are not needed, but it is difficult to retrieve hose that were overlooked.

3. Select pictures which illustrate a single object, place, individual, group of people, scene, or action. These will constitute the bulk of your file. Pictures should be as simple as possible.

4. Collect pictures which depict
   a. An entire situation and can be used as a topic for conversation -- for example, a family washing the car on a Saturday afternoon. These pictures can be used with students at any level.
   b. Different emotions such as love, hate, anger, fatigue, and so forth.
   c. Common everyday objects.

5. Avoid using pictures which have words on them or perhaps the verbiage can be cut out. To a person who is unfamiliar with American culture and who knows little English, a labeled can of deodorant resembles labeled cans of other products -- starch, hairspray, shaving cream, or furniture polish. To clarify what the container is, show and demonstrate the object being used.

6. Do not label the picture or write on the front of the picture. Write on the back if you need to make notes. You might identify the subject matter (clothes -- children’s; animals -- cats) for filing purposes, or write notes for suggested use of the picture. Pictures can be used for several different subjects and in several different ways.

7. Include pictures which illustrate contrasts, such as short-tall, big-small, happy-sad, wide-narrow, etc. Also, include pictures which illustrate concepts difficult to describe, e.g., above, under, between, up, down, either-or, numbers, and colors.

8. Look for pictures that are representative of traditional American holidays and other cultural things -- Halloween, Thanksgiving, Memorial Day -- holidays that are very different from holidays in other countries. Get information on the origin of American holidays, and use pictures of objects such as a small pumpkin or a funny mask for Halloween, the U.S. flag, or a picture of the men signing the Declaration of Independence for the Fourth of July.

Preparing Pictures And Other Colorful Visuals

Choose pictures that are clean, colorful, near photo quality, and are not wrinkled or torn.

Trim pictures carefully so that any text is gone. It is alright if, after trimming, pictures have an odd shape.

Mount them on lightweight card stock (110 lb. or heavier), available at office supply stores, using spray glue, available at stores such as Wal-Mart and craft stores. Spray the picture, not the card stock. Be sure that the table you work on is completely covered with
newspapers. As you lay each picture face down to be sprayed, be sure there is a clean piece of newspaper under the picture so that glue from the previous picture will not adhere to the face of the new picture.

Hang pictures up to dry. **After pictures are dry**, since spray glue is usually rubber cement, a good pencil erasure will easily remove any glue that remains on the card stock and outside the lines of the picture.

File pictures by topic for ready relevance.

**Other Ways to Prepare Pictures**  Scanning and printing pictures through your computer saves a lot of time (but costs money) since they don’t have to be mounted and can look very nice. The print on the back side of some pictures from magazines, especially from magazines where thinner and cheaper paper is used in the magazine, will show through to some extent.

Use a digital camera to take pictures, then print them for use in the classroom.

See Appendix F for suggestions for using pictures to generate conversational skills.
Facilitating Listening Comprehension Skills

Listening and understanding are going to be the first skills that you will teach low level students, not to mention the need for listening comprehension skills among more advanced students.

Our students will learn listening comprehension skills through teacher modeling, classroom activities, and application of what is already “learned.”

There are three ways to sharpen listening comprehension skills:
- Total Physical Response (TPR),
- Interactive listening-speaking skills (A combination of TPR and speaking), and
- Checking for understanding (asking questions that require understanding).

Total Physical Response (TPR)

Total Physical Response (TPR) is a technique that stresses the link between words and the concrete reality the words represent. This relationship is established when students respond to the teacher’s instructions through physical movement rather than by speaking.

Using commands which require a physical response, rather than an oral response, is a very good way to introduce new sentence structures and vocabulary to the beginning student. TPR is useful for all levels of students, from those who speak no English to those who are rather fluent.

This method is an excellent ice-breaker for lower level students who can speak no English at all. They will be actually “learning” the language (vocabulary, sentence structure, sound) through TPR. They are learning more than listening comprehension skills – they are learning speaking skills without speaking. Confidence can be built up quickly because of active response rather than passive listening.

TPR can be very beneficial with more advanced students if used appropriately. The use of TPR primarily will be for the purpose of strengthening listening comprehension skills using English they already can speak, but can also be useful in learning new material.

TPR for the Beginning Learner

TPR is admittedly of more benefit to lower level students, and is
more successful with complete beginners. From the very first lesson students will hear complete English sentences and can react to them in such a way as to demonstrate an understanding of what is heard. Teachers will be introducing simple sentences and adding new vocabulary as quickly or as slowly as is necessary for students. The following are the principles of TPR for the Beginning Learner:

1. **TPR approximates the successful, natural patterns of first language learning.**
2. **Basic concepts are learned better through motor activities.**
3. **A comfortably long receptive period is needed to obtain one-hundred per cent successful response.**
4. **Copying what others do is not cheating.**

**The Characteristics of TPR**

1. **Many hours are spent with the TPR strategy.** This is such a strong strategy for learning that for a long-term program with many hours available for instruction, for example an entire year, listening comprehension would be all that students would do for at least half the year. For a short-term program, such as AELT, about twenty minutes of TPR should be included in each two-hour lesson, not including the review time at the end of the class session.
2. **TPR is totally physical.** Students do not talk during TPR sessions. They demonstrate comprehension by carrying out the requests of the teacher, thus focusing all the students’ intellectual powers on understanding the new language. They do not have to worry about pronouncing the words correctly or using the correct grammatical pattern.
3. **TPR provides a lot of comprehension input.** TPR is used to teach the chosen vocabulary as well as to teach action words students will use during class sessions or in real life. Later TPR sessions will teach vocabulary and linguistic structures that will be used in later lessons.
4. **TPR provides meaning and practice in a low anxiety environment without the fear of speaking.** This approach to language teaching will give students the confidence they need to open their ears and try to understand what they are hearing. If students can understand even a portion of what is being said to them and around them, every experience can become a language-learning opportunity. Students need success and confidence, not defeat and frustration.
5. **TPR provides a lot of positive rewards.** Students make primarily correct responses; this in itself builds and reinforces confidence. The teacher also assures students with verbal praise and warm smiles.
6. **TPR deals with real life situations.** For example, a lesson might be designed to help students use the post office (or supermarket, etc.) more efficiently. Many vocabulary words necessary for this lesson can be taught using TPR.
A preliminary list of words needed at a post office includes:

- stamp
- postcard
- letter
- envelope
- package
- tape
- busy
- wrapping paper
- scale
- pen
- box
- postage chart
- weight
- line
- give
- stand
- open
- weigh
- write

The TPR lesson is developed by introducing words needed at a post office. Present about three new words at a time modeling the action or manipulating the objects until the students begin to comprehend.

First, the teacher puts a stamp, postcard, and letter on the table and demonstrates the action words *pick up, give to, put,* and the nouns *stamp, postcard, letter*; she then requests the following action from students.

- *Maria, pick up the stamp.* (Teacher points to the stamp.)
- *Maria, give the stamp to Ivan.*
- *Ivan, put the stamp on the postcard.*
- *Dima, pick up the stamp and the postcard.*
- *Dima, give the stamp to Maria and the postcard to Ivan.*
- *Maria, pick up the letter and give it to Ivan.*

The teacher continues until responses are easily and quickly completed by most students. Then she places on the table an envelope and a box – in addition to the stamp, postcard, and letter already on the table – and demonstrates the action words *open, stand up, walk,* the prepositional phrases *in back of, in front of,* and the nouns *envelope, box, door, line.* She then requests the following of students.

- *Ivan, pick up the envelope. Give the envelope to Tanya.*
- *Tanya, open the envelope. Put a stamp in the envelope.*
- *Paula, pick up the box. Give the box to Maria.*
- *Maria, open the box and put the envelope in the box.*
- *Ivan, stand up and walk to the door.*
- *Maria, stand up. Walk to Ivan. Now stand in back of Ivan.*
- *Paula, stand up and walk to Ivan. Stand in front of Ivan.*
- *Paula, stand in the back of the line.*
- *Maria, stand in the front of the line.*

In TPR the teacher first introduces vocabulary and sentence structure to students who listen. Then students “learn” what the teacher has introduced by responding to the teacher’s commands.

7. TPR gives instant feedback to the teacher. The teacher can observe on the spot whether students are learning.

**Five Steps in Facilitating TPR**

1. The teacher begins by **identifying and modeling vocabulary items** (using objects or pictures) and **demonstrating two or three action words** with the vocabulary, stating the command, and modeling the response while students listen and observe – for example *pencil, door, pick up, stand up, close:*

   - *I pick up the pencil.*
   - *I close the door.*
   - *I stand up.*

2. The teacher now **incorporates students into the process** by asking them to do something based on what they have heard.
Pick up the pencil.
Close the door.
Stand up.

Usually at least one student will understand the command after seeing it modeled once or twice. Never let a student flounder. If a command is not understood, model it again or ask a stronger student who seems to understand. Let the slower ones listen a few times before they are asked to respond. Then repeat the command to the first student. Continue until responses are easily and quickly completed by all students.

Continue to develop the lesson in the same way. Introduce new words with familiar words and patterns. Try to recombine words so they are used in different ways. Give commands involving new items to the stronger students. Let the slower ones listen a few times before they are asked to respond. If a student does not understand, model the action or direct the command to another student. Then immediately repeat the command for the first student. Do this in a matter-of-fact way. Show no impatience or evaluation. Try to communicate an attitude that says, Don’t worry, you will understand soon.

3. After the assurance that students have learned through TPR, the teacher will set up activities in which learners practice speaking by using only the language they have already heard and understood. (See the discussion of Drilling in the next chapter.)

4. At the end of each class session the teacher reviews the TPR lesson and adds to this review some of the TPR lesson for the next day.

5. After the initial lesson, all successive lessons begin and end with a rapid-paced review of all previously learned material and incorporating it into the new.

In the following routine the teacher has utilized classroom items. The teacher has taught (in step 1 above) the words everyone, point to, window, door, teacher. The commands will look something like this. (Notice that the teacher uses students’ names.)

Everyone, point to the window.  (Model the request if students are unsure.)

Maria, point to the window.
Paula, point to the window.
Everyone, point to the window.

Point to the door.  (Model the request if students are unsure.)

Continue in this way, introducing about three new words at a time. Recombine the words in any possible way. By the end of several sessions later, and before introducing and modeling other vocabulary, the commands will sound something like this (the teacher has taught the action words stand up/sit down, walk to, touch, the vocabulary ceiling, numbers, table, chair, chalkboard, the,
preposition to, and the conjunction and):  

Maria, stand up and walk to the window. Touch the window.
Paula, touch the table.

Everyone, stand up. Point to the window. Point to the teacher. Touch the table.
Maria, walk to the door. Touch the door.
Tom, walk to the chair and sit down.
Maria, walk to the table. Point to the book. Touch number 3
Sit down.

Everyone, stand up. Point to the window. Point to the chalkboard. Touch the chair. Sit down.
Paul, point to the ceiling. Touch number 9. Etc.

Language patterns used are repetitive. Vocabulary is not being assigned to be studied and memorized – the teacher is helping students enter new words into an English language program they are constructing in their minds. Much work and practice on listening skills will be needed. Use a variety of materials so that practice doesn’t become boring to students. Direction and new words are presented orally, not in written form, as students practice listening skills.

A problem often occurs with students who have studied a second language from a textbook written in their own language and have memorized vocabulary. They may resist learning new vocabulary through listening skills because they cannot “see” the printed word. They want to write down everything and memorize it. They know more at “eye level” than at “ear level.” To rely on seeing the printed word first enables them to translate it into their native language and allows them to completely skip the aural-oral aspect of language learning and the skills they are attempting to acquire. This may defeat the very purpose of their work in class because each time they are called on to recite they are slowed down by the need to look at their notes. One way to deal with this problem is to provide, at the end of class, a word list so that this student can rehearse the vocabulary between sessions. Another way is to write the words on the board as you present each word. Students can then copy the words into their notebooks at the end of class. For people who “see” words in their minds, this is their way of imprinting the English word in their memory.

Make sure that students have plenty of opportunity to listen to and understand the spoken language before moving into the speaking phase.

**Teaching TPR with Colored Paper**  
A very practical and easy way to practice TPR is by using pieces of colored paper of varying sizes. It is practical in that it is easier to carry with you a lightweight assortment of small pieces of colored paper than to carry a stack of heavy 8.5 x 11 mounted pictures. By using colored paper to teach TPR you can achieve the following:

As many color concepts as you would like (without getting into some of the “odd” colors) and have time to teach,  
Regular action words,
Prepositions,
Adjectives,
Numbers,
Concepts such as larger, smaller, taller/shorter, etc.,
Any grammar that is desirable: statement word order, question word order, present tense of to be, to have, present and simple past tense of regular action words, present progressive, past progressive.
And more.

Procedure for Teaching TPR Using Colored Paper  Use colored paper to teach TPR in the following way. This is one suggestion, from among many, to do this.

The materials required for nine lessons are pieces of colored paper (blue, red, yellow, etc.) sizes 4” x 6,” 3” x 5,” 2” x 3” for each of nine colors. Other sizes and other colors can be added to this if desired. The colored paper should be fairly heavy card stock or heavy construction paper because it is handled so many times.

The following are the vocabulary needed for nine lessons.

Lesson 1: the, paper, blue, red, I, pick, up, put on, table, a
Lesson 2: give, me, point to, black, yellow
Lesson 3: touch, it, him, her, one, two, three
Lesson 4: white, green, down
Lesson 5: on, under, between, (more colors)
Lesson 6: big, bigger, biggest, small, smaller, smallest
Lesson 7: next to, here, there
Lesson 8: right, left, hand, quickly, slowly
Lesson 9: other useful words

For the first lesson, use three blue and three red pieces of paper, any size. The new vocabulary will include only basic words that go along with your actions.

Students do not see these words in writing but hear them as you say them when you demonstrate with the pieces of paper. At first students may try to repeat what you say. Discourage this by gesturing that students should listen only.

Pick up any piece of paper and say, paper, at a normal speed. Repeat this with each piece of paper. Repetition gives confidence in understanding what you have said.

Then pick up a blue piece of paper (any size) and say, blue paper, repeating for each blue piece of paper. Repeat this action with pieces of red paper.

Pick up a blue piece of paper and say, I pick up a blue paper. Put it down and say, I put the blue paper on the table. Repeat this to be sure students understand. And repeat it with the red paper.

When you feel that students understand what you have said as you demonstrated, push the six pieces of paper to the middle of the table and tell students, Pick up a paper. If students don’t understand, you can help by motioning to them to take the paper, or even taking someone’s hand and helping. Be sensitive to the fact that in some cultures, touching is not acceptable.

Then reach out to receive the paper and say, Give me the paper. If
there is no understanding, take the paper and continue:

Pick up a blue paper.
Give me a blue paper.
Pick up a red paper.
Give me a red paper.

Continue manipulating these patterns until you are sure students understand all the words. Students may be concentrating so hard on following directions that the colors become confusing. Be patient. Go only as fast as is comfortable. Reassure students with verbal praise and warm smiles.

For more detail on the TPR process, see the sample TPR lesson plans at the end of this chapter.

**Using Colored Paper for Teaching TPR with More Advanced Students**

You can use colored paper exercises with any level student, even with advanced students. For the latter, simply make the exercises more difficult, vary the speed with which you speak, and create more complex sentences. The focus here is not learning new vocabulary but sharpening listening comprehension skills.

The following commands can be quite complicated:

*Pick up three green papers and put down two red papers.*

*Put two blue papers in the box, giving me four red papers, keeping one red paper.*

*Hold all the red papers in your left hand; pick up two yellow papers with your right hand; give them to me.*

After you are sure students understand the vocabulary and sentence structure you have been practicing you might like to vary the exercise by using red, blue, and yellow pencils or books with different colored bindings. You can teach the concept of size (larger or smaller), position (on, under, next to) or distance (two steps, across the room), as listening skills, using colored paper when appropriate.

**Checking Comprehension**

As you move beginning students from the listening comprehension phase to the interactive listening-speaking phase, consider the following.

It should be obvious that an important part of your job in teaching language skills to a conversational English student is to assure comprehension of what you say. If you ask, *Do you understand?* an affirmative nod or even a response of, *Yes,* does not guarantee comprehension. New students will often smile and say, *Yes.* They’re embarrassed that they don’t understand. Too, they think they are pleasing you by saying they understand. During a class session, or in casual conversation, you can often sense that students don’t understand a word you have said – sometimes by a quizzical look, a cocking of the head, by raised eyebrows, or sometimes by a strange response.

The important thing is that you devise a way of knowing whether
they understand, and if they do not, develop and use strategies to improve the listening comprehension. Pictures, actions, and basic question patterns can help ascertain whether your students really understand the meaning of spoken language.

There are three main strategies for evaluating and improving listening comprehension:

- Requesting action to follow directions (TPR),
- Interactive Listening and Speaking,
- Questions that require answers.

**Requesting Action To Follow Directions (TPR)**

1. One way is to have a spoken direction to the student followed by some kind of action. For example; *Pick up the pencil* (from among other objects). If the student picks up the pencil, there is understanding.

2. The following activity is useful in determining the student’s listening comprehension. This activity should not be used with the beginner level unless the vocabulary is carefully controlled. Students sit back to back. The teacher gives instructions, step by step, to draw something simple, such as a house:
   
   **Draw a straight line across the middle of the paper from side to side.**

   Next, **draw three vertical straight lines starting on the horizontal line – one at each end of the line, and one about one-third of the way from the left end of the line.**

   Next, **draw a straight line across the tops of the three vertical lines.**

   Now, **draw a triangle on the top of the line connecting the left and right points of two of the vertical lines.**

   Etc.

   When all the instructions have been given students compare their drawings with one already completed and from which the teacher has been giving directions.

3. **Family Portrait**: Students create a family portrait by using cut-out figures and placing them into a picture frame in response to commands to put each family member in a given place in the portrait. This activity is included on the Activities CD accompanying this handbook.

**Interactive Listening and Speaking**

This approach is somewhat like TPR except that the student’s response is verbal and is based on his understanding of what he has heard.

1. Give the student the following request;

   *Open the window and tell me what you did.*

   If the student not only opens the window but says *I opened the window*, you know there is both understanding and ability to respond in English. If the student opens the window (*not* the door) but says *I
open . . . , and then falters, you know that the student understood the
instruction but had difficulty expressing the action verbally. You must
then model the correct response -- I opened the window -- gesturing
for the student to repeat the entire sentence.

2. Prepare a listening exercise to help students listen for specific
information. Tell them in advance what the subject of the exercise is
(e.g., a weather report) and that they should listen in a general way for
certain information. Do not give them the specific questions ahead of
time. Vary the level of difficulty of the questions in accordance with
the ability of the individual student.

   For lower level students, there may be only one question or a
   few questions. The paragraph should be very simple, using
   vocabulary and sentence structures they have already
   learned, and one question or only a few questions.

   More advanced students can handle a longer list of questions
   and a longer and more involved paragraph.

   This would be a good strategy for Low Advanced students
   whose listening comprehension needs to be improved.
   a. Using a large photo of your own family or a maga-
      zine picture of a family, read a paragraph previ-
      ously created. Students listen. Then ask them
      questions about what was read. Do not give stu-
      dents the questions ahead of time
   b. Record on a cassette something from TV or the ra-
      dio – such as a weather report, a news report, or
      perhaps a conversation on a talk show. Students
      listen; then respond to questions.
   c. Prepare a conversation between two people. Have
      the interpreter be the second person in the conver-
      sation. Students listen; then respond to questions.

Questions that Require Answers

This approach is different from the Interactive Listening-Speaking
method in that questions are based on the student’s knowledge of vo-
cabulary and grammar as well as being based on common knowledge
of their environment or world knowledge.

1. How you state a question often determines what kind of re-
   sponse you get. There are questions where a Yes or No response
   is appropriate. Note that you are requiring simply correct an-
   swers which confirm comprehension, and a yes or a no doesn’t
   always confirm comprehension other than that the student has
   recognized the question intonation.

   Is the door closed?
   Is the book blue?

   Although the yes/no questions are language easy, the student must
   understand the intonation of the question in order to answer yes or no.
   If he answers yes, you know that he has at least understood that he has
   been asked a question. Then you must double check the answer since
   there is a fifty-fifty chance of getting the answer incorrect.

   Place some papers on the table, all of which are blue. Then ask:

Fluency is accomplished
by a lot of experience
with speaking a language,
not only speaking it but
the back and forth of
ideas in conversation.
Is there a red paper on the table?  (If the response is yes, then request)
Please pick up the red paper.
(If the response was no, then ask) What colors are the papers?

2. Other questions can be phrased to allow for alternate answers.
   Is the door open or closed?
   Is the book red or blue?

   With these questions, the potentially correct answer is contained in the question. In a way, your “either-or” questions are both teaching and checking comprehension at the same time. Again, however, it is necessary to confirm comprehension by asking another question or requiring another action.

   Pick up the blue book (from among several books).

3. Still other questions demand more language in the answer – the wh- questions (who, which, where, what, and when) -- and require that the student should state a fact.
   When do we have lunch?
   Where is Madrid?

4. Some questions require descriptive answers.
   How are tomatoes grown?

5. Phrasing a question another way invites a comparative statement:
   What is the difference between your book and Ivan’s book?
   His book is red and my book is green (or mine is green).

   Advanced students can be asked more complex questions which demand greater skill in comprehension, greater knowledge, and require more inference.

   If you were to go to the moon, what would you expect to find?
   Vary the level of difficulty of the questions in accordance with the ability of the individual student.

There are additional listening comprehension activities in Appendix A and on the accompanying CD.
**Listening Comprehension Practice**

1. Total Physical Response, using **colored cards** and action words
   
   a. Say, *Listen* (with translation of the command, but no translation following).
   b. Pick any slip of paper and say, *a paper*, at a normal speed. Repeat this with each piece of paper.
   c. Then pick up a blue piece of paper, any size, and say, *a blue paper*, repeating for each blue piece of paper. Repeat this action with pieces of red paper.
   d. Pick up a blue piece of paper and say, *I pick up a blue paper*.
   e. Put it down and say, *I put the blue paper on the table*. Repeat this to be sure your students understand. Then repeat it with the red paper.
   f. When you feel that students understand what you have said, push the pieces of paper to the middle of the table so that all students can reach them, and tell students, *Pick up a paper*. If students don’t seem to understand, help by motioning to them to take the paper, or even taking someone’s hand and helping.
   g. Then reach out to receive the paper and say, *Give me a paper*. If there is no understanding, take the paper and continue.
   h. Do the same with individual students by saying, *Dima, give me a paper*, and so on with other students.
   i. Follow up with *Sancho, give Maria a paper*.
   j. Repeat with other students and varying *Pick up . . . and Give me . . . and Francisco, give Edwin . . .
   k. Continue manipulating these patterns until you are sure students understand all the words.
   l. Using number flash cards, repeat the exercise using the numbers one, two, three, four, five, six as follows.
   m. Pick up two slips of paper, any color, show the numeral two, and say, *two papers*. Repeat this with three, four, five, and so on to six papers.
   n. Then pick up any two pieces of paper and say *I pick up two papers*. Repeat this with three, four, five, and so on to six papers.
   o. Then pick up two blue papers and say, *I pick up two blue papers*. Repeat this with three blue papers, two and three red papers.
   p. Put each paper down on the table, saying *I put two blue papers on the table*. Repeat this with three, four, five, and six papers.
   q. When you feel students understand what you have said, push the papers to the middle of the table so that all students can reach them, and tell students, *Pick up two papers*. If students don’t seem to understand, you can help by motioning to them to take two papers, or even taking someone’s hand and helping. You may need to repeat the object lesson and saying, again, *Pick up two papers*.
   r. Then reach out to receive the papers and say, *Give me two papers*.
   s. Take the papers and continue with, *Paulo, give me two papers*. Take the papers and continue with individual students, each time varying the number and taking the papers.
   t. Take the papers and continue with, *Dima, give Ann two papers*, and so on around the class.
   u. Continue with the exercise varying *Pick up . . . and Give me . . .*, working with individual students.
   v. Go back over these steps one more time.
SAMPLE TPR LESSON USING OBJECTS

1. Total Physical Response, using objects and action verbs -- utilizing the same format above when colored papers were used.
   a. Begin by pointing to an object and naming it, e.g., book.
   b. Repeat this with every object (e.g., table, pencils, pens, cards, notebooks, etc.).
   c. Then point to the object and say the book.
   d. Repeat this with every object including table.
   e. Then pick up the book and say I pick up the book.
   f. Repeat this with other objects except for “table.”
   g. When you feel students understand what you have said, push the book (and other objects) to the middle of the table within reach of students and say Pick up the book. If students don’t seem to understand, you can help by motioning to them to take the book, or even taking someone’s hand and helping.
   h. Then reach out to receive the book and say, Give me the book. Even if there is no understanding, take the book and continue.
   i. Continue with this exercise until students get the idea of Give me . . . and Pick up . . .
   j. Continue with Ann, pick up the pencil. Take the pencil and say, Ivan, pick up the pencil. Give the pencil to Ann. Ann, give me the pencil.
   k. Continue in the same way, going from Pick up . . . to Give (name) . . .
   l. Repeat with the remaining objects.
   m. Go back over these steps one more time.
Facilitating Speaking through Guided Exercises

Obviously, students cannot go through life listening and nodding meaningfully. At some point, they must communicate orally with others. Students need speaking skills that will give them confidence to use English -- at the supermarket, restaurant, school, bank, and so forth, and, of course, with friends. Students must be helped to speak English, not only by what they are learning in the classroom, but by speaking it.

The primary strategy for getting students to converse in English (remembering that conversation is a two-way street) is presented in this chapter.

Drills are used to practice dialogue elements (Chapter 9) and to extend language based on these elements. Before students have enough confidence to create their own sentences, they often need the safety of a drill to practice what they want to say.

The goal, therefore, of this chapter, is the development of speaking skills, which begin, of course, with listening skills. The development of conversational skills should be a goal of every class session. The teacher’s role is to provide ample listening comprehension and speaking experiences that will encourage students to use their new language skills from which learners will be able to acquire their oral skills.

Drilling

There are many activities that are useful in teaching English. Among the most common are drills. Drills are designed to help in teaching the speaking skills, which closely follow the listening skills. They are also designed to be used with all levels of students, including the most advanced. Students are encouraged to repeat sentences with the speed, stress, and intonation of the teacher. If a sentence or a structure has been modeled and if students have shown recognition of what was said and have repeated it, both initial listening and speaking skills will have been facilitated. There is a real need to know and practice simple but effective drills.

Drilling is a speech activity, with no reading and writing involved - a way of getting students to “talk” and use the language that you are trying to get them to learn. They must speak in order to learn. This activity allows students to “feel” the language on their tongues and hear themselves saying it. Before students have enough confidence to

Teachers should speak in a normal tone of voice, at normal speed, and should use expressions in normal use.
create their own sentences, they often need the safety of a drill to practice what they want to say.

Drills enable students to practice specific sentence patterns as well as free response that isn’t dependent on modeled patterns. Within these drills students see how a variety of words can be used to send different messages. Students will hear them in normal circumstances; drilling will be a preparation for the understanding of spoken English when they are in the “real” world outside of class.

Introduce any new type of drill very simply and repeat it until students understand the concept and see the pattern. Repetition may seem dull to you, but to students it builds confidence and gives much needed practice. It is a long road between saying something once and having it come naturally in a conversation. Repetition is the key. Repetition causes brain patterning to form, instilling language patterns into the memory bank. Most beginning teachers of English are self conscious of drilling and think a little goes a long way. Don’t be afraid to drill too much; drill and drill and drill, over and over, until they can speak something easily and until you are sure they all understand.

There are a number of drills that are useful for English conversational students, but only a few will be considered in this chapter. They are the ones most commonly used with lower level students. They are: Backward Buildup Drill, Repetition Drill, Chain Drill, Substitution Drills, and Transformation Drills. Additional drills are shown and explained in the Appendix L.

**Backward Buildup Drill**

Sometimes with long words or sentences there will have to be more breakdown into “pieces” in order for students to remember it all.

For example, a word such as *refrigerator* is just too long for a student to repeat correctly the first time. Usually, with a sentence (or a long word), there is no problem at the beginning of the sentence, but trouble starts in the middle, and the end is completely forgotten. Backward buildup provides practice in repeating long sentences or long words.

The backward buildup technique can be used with basic students who have trouble even with short sentences or a single word. The sentence, *Let’s walk to the children’s school*, can be handled as follows.

First, divide the sentence into phrases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#1</th>
<th>#2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Let’s walk</em></td>
<td><em>to the children’s school</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T -- <em>Let’s walk</em></td>
<td>. . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S -- <em>Let’s walk</em></td>
<td>. . .</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T -- . . . <em>to the children’s school</em></td>
<td>S -- . . . <em>to the children’s school</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T -- <em>Let’s walk to the children’s school</em></td>
<td>S -- <em>Let’s walk to the children’s school</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the following longer and more complex sentence used with more
advanced students, We’re going to the supermarket to buy some meat and vegetables for dinner, students often can repeat the first two phrases correctly, stumble over the third, and can’t remember the fourth.

We’re going / to the supermarket / to get meat and vegetables / for dinner.

Start on the last phrase, proceeding forward from the end.
T -- . . . for dinner.
S -- . . . for dinner.
T -- . . . to buy meat and vegetables for dinner.
S -- . . . to buy meat and vegetables for dinner.
T -- . . . to the supermarket to buy meat and vegetables for dinner.
S -- . . . to the supermarket to buy meat and vegetables for dinner.
T -- We’re going to the supermarket to buy meat and vegetables for dinner.
S -- We’re going to the supermarket to buy meat and vegetables for dinner.

In this way there is more repetition of the phrases that caused the problems.

This technique is especially helpful as students repeat longer and longer sentences. It is especially helpful when tongue twisters are being used for pronunciation practice.

Repetition Drills

The easiest way to begin oral instruction is by repetition. Repetition drills are just what they sound like -- repetition of what is heard. By varying the nature of the cue, different subtypes of repetition drills can be achieved. There is a need to have repetition of key words and phrases as well as of sentences.

There are two kinds of repetition drills --

- **Verbatim drills** -- students repeat what they hear word for word,
- **Open-ended Repetition Chain Drills** -- students again repeat what they hear, but it is initiated by other students.

One might well question the justification for including mindless mimicking in a language class. In the first place, the teacher must make very sure that it is not “mindless mimicking.” Students can do some of these drills without understanding them, and the teacher therefore has to make extra sure that they **do understand**. As for justification, these drills serve two purposes:

- At the beginning stages of language learning, repetition drills are very useful in building up “kinetic (muscular) memory.”
- Part of language learning is the ability to control increasing amounts of language in mechanical manipulation for the training of the muscles of the mouth, tongue, etc.
Repetition skills of steadily increasing lengths are very useful for developing “auditory memory” -- for increased competence in recognition and for recall of long utterances of language. Beginning students can remember and repeat only relatively short sentences.

Here is one way of presenting a repetition drill.

Example: *I have a book.* (Students have already learned *book* in TPR.)

1. Model the noun in the first sentence.
   - Touch the book. As you touch the book say *book*.
   - Repeat several times as students listen.
   - Then make a beckoning gesture and have them repeat *book* after you.

2. Model the phrase *a book*. Indicate that *a* means “one” by holding up one finger and making sure that there is only one book.
   - *book, a book* …

3. Model the complete sentence.
   - *I have a book.*
   - Have students repeat.

4. Proceed in the same way with other nouns that students have learned: e.g., *pencil, pen, cup, etc.*, keeping *I have* … constant.

Always have students listen first. Then indicate that you want repetition, always in this sequence, by the entire class, by smaller groups, and by individuals.

Many if not all of the early lessons for beginners should begin with repetition drills. Remember that students should hear the new item a number of times before they say it and that groups should respond before individuals. The repetition drills set the tempo of the lesson. Try to make them swift and lively. Prolonged and slow repetition is deadly. It will kill any interest students may have in the rest of the lesson.

**Open-Ended Chain Drills**

These drills are done individually and each student repeats all the responses prior to his own, then adds his own piece of information. Since students tend to regard them as games, chain drills work well for extra practice on complicated patterns when verbatim repetition might be rejected.

Using a supermarket circular which students have had an opportunity to examine and talk about, do the following chain drill. Each student in turn indicates what he/she will purchase and adds to it everything that has been purchased already. It is best to have responses in alphabetical order as a memory device.

T – *I’m going shopping to buy a book.*
S1 – *I’m going shopping to buy a book.*
S2 – *I’m going shopping to buy a bottle of milk and a book.*
S3 – *I’m going shopping to buy a magazine, a book, and a*
bottle of milk.
$S_4$ – I’m going shopping to buy a pencil, a book, bottle of milk, and a magazine.

And so on for each student.

Open-ended chain drills require students to listen to each other, and attention is diverted from the fact that they are drilling.

After there has been sufficient repetition of the words, phrases, and sentences to be practiced, proceed with a substitution drill.

**Substitution Drills**

In its simplest form, this kind of drill consists of the replacement of one element in a sentence with an element that is in the same grammatical class so that the students have practice in forming new sentences of the same type as the one given in the model.

Be sure students understand what is said and what they are to do. Start with sentences about objects in the room, pictures, or use action words that can be demonstrated. Pointing to an object, say (gesturing for the student to repeat after you),

... chair...
... pencil...
... book...

These vocabulary items should have been used during the Total Physical Response experiences with students so that they already can identify them.

Put the words in sentences, asking students to repeat.

It’s a chair.
It’s a pencil.
It’s a book.

This drill is used so that students can get intensive practice with a single grammatical structure. Don’t be misled into thinking students can say these sentences independently just because they are repeated easily. Repeat this same sentence several times. Repetition builds confidence and assures later success.

Students’ pronunciation can be reinforced by the teacher repeating after the student:

T – It’s a book.
S – It’s a book.
T – It’s a book.
T – It’s a pencil.
S – It’s a pencil.
T – It’s a pencil.

It is important to mention a word of caution when using the substitution drill! As a new word is substituted in a sentence, there is a tendency to overemphasize that word, and students will do the same thing. You might be using pictures to demonstrate:

*The man’s running.*
*The woman’s running.*

In a normal conversation you probably wouldn’t stress *man* or *woman* unless you were comparing the man and the woman. *The man’s running* (as opposed to the *woman’s* running). You might even
stress the word *running* if you had been talking about a disability. *The man’s running!* Therefore, generally, as you substitute words in a structure, be careful to talk with natural stress and intonation.

**Simple Substitution Drill**  This drill is called “simple” because the same slot is substituted. Students learn a simple speech pattern. Then show them how it can be used again and again by simply **substituting just one word**.

```
T: The man’s *running*.
S: The man’s *running*.
T: The man’s *sitting*.
S: The man’s *sitting*.
T: The man’s *walking*.
S: The man’s *walking*.
```

Continue with more verbs (*jumping, fishing, etc.*)

A simple substitution drill can be made more challenging by **changing two words** instead of one, keeping the structure the same:

```
T: It’s a pencil.
S: It’s a pencil.
T: It’s a green pencil.
S: It’s a green pencil.
T: It’s a green book.
S: It’s a green book.
```

After students get the idea of substituting something, then give only the **word to be substituted**: e.g., *supermarket, library, school.* Notice that there are no changes in any wording except the substituted prepositional phrase. The drill will go like this:

```
T – The family is going to the post office.
S – The family is going to the post office.
T – . . . supermarket . . . (show the appropriate picture)
S – The family is going to the supermarket.
T – . . . mall . . . (show the appropriate picture)
S – The family is going to the mall.
T – . . . school . . . (show the appropriate picture)
S – The family is going to the school.
```

**Substitution Drill – Complex, Moving Slot**  This substitution drill is much more difficult and called a **complex drill** when the word or words supplied have to go to different slots in the sentence. Students have to think about the meaning of the word and know whether the word fits a subject slot or a verb slot. This drill is very useful for extended practice on verb tenses, or virtually any pattern on which students need extra practice, since the drills are usually regarded as games.

Add to the complexity by varying the word given for substitution. Students must be very alert because they will never know where the next substitution will be.

- **Going to** + verb future
  
  T – The family is going to go to the post office.
  S – The family is going to go to the post office.
Substitution Drill – Multiple-slot The substitution drill can be even more challenging by requiring students to fill more than one slot. These drills are excellent for practicing comparisons and can be used as problem-solving activities even for quite advanced students, especially if the order of the cues is different from that expected in the response.

T – My novel is the same length as her short story.
S – My novel is the same length as her short story.

Substitution Drill – Multiple-slot The substitution drill can be even more challenging by requiring students to fill more than one slot. These drills are excellent for practicing comparisons and can be used as problem-solving activities even for quite advanced students, especially if the order of the cues is different from that expected in the response.

T – My novel is the same length as her short story.
S – My novel is the same length as her short story.

Correlative Substitution Drills In these drills the substitution triggers a challenge in the pattern that correlates with the substitution. This and the next drill are excellent for testing students’ ability with grammatical relationships such as subject-verb agreement, indefinite article choice, count-mass nouns, pronoun forms -- in short, any structure which contrasts minimally in its various patterns.

The simple correlative drills are single slot substitutions which require students to make an adjustment in another part of the pattern in order to respond correctly.

Indefinite article
T – The teacher is **an** artist.
S – The teacher is **an** artist.

Complex Correlative Substitution Drill In this drill students must replace two or more constituents, and the correlative changes will add greatly to the complexity of producing the expected responses. Sometimes a lexical change is required as well.

Relative Clauses
T – The girls who are coming are my sisters.
S – The girls who are coming are my sisters.

Response Drills

An early step toward getting students to be independent is to work on response drills. Through substitution drills, students have already been taught the answers needed to certain questions. Through repeti-
tion, students will begin to sense a pattern of the answers. Now other drills require students to use what has been practiced in the repetition drills.

For beginning students, actions and pictures must supplement this drill. And, of course, ask the question for which students have the information and language practice needed for the answer. You are not quizzing for facts! You are giving repeated practice in understanding and responding to common questions. Thus, procedures should always be to model and teach the answer first, having students repeat, and then ask the question.

T – I’m walking around the table.
S – I’m walking around the table.
T – What are you doing?
S – I’m walking around the table.

Eventually reverse the positions. Have some students ask the question and other students answer.

S1 – What are you doing?
S2 – I’m walking around the table.

Be careful not to ask questions beyond students’ comprehension. Keep to questions whose answers were practiced in the lesson’s substitution drill. Build on words already known and help students learn to say words or sentences used in ordinary conversation.

For example, when students can say I’m studying English with fairly good pronunciation and normal intonation, and you are sure it is understood, ask the question, What are you studying? Then practice the reverse as students ask the question and others give the answer.

When a basic structure such as the following has been taught, stimulate various responses by showing different pictures: library, post office, supermarket.

I’m going to the library.

It can easily be varied. The question would be:

Where are you going?

A response drill could include a pretend visit to the grocery store to shop for food and teach students the various ways it is sold – by the pound, by the loaf, by the dozen, etc. (“By the dozen,” by the way, is an American concept; many countries sell eggs in ten’s.) Use pictures to illustrate (or the supermarket circular).

T – I’ll have a dozen rolls.
S – I’ll have a dozen rolls.
T – I’ll have a loaf of bread.
S – I’ll have a loaf of bread.
T – I’ll have a pound of cheese.
S – I’ll have a pound of cheese.

Change these responses to questions so that students respond. Choose the desired response by pointing to a picture.

T: What would you like? (pointing to a picture of a loaf of bread)
S: I’ll have a loaf of bread.

Notice that what is taking place is actually the combining of a Response Drill with a Substitution Drill.

Early in the teaching sequence help students become familiar with
the names of various types of appliances or pieces of furniture around the home. You can use stick pictures or actual pictures as you use the response drill.

Questions about pictures often give students a chance to provide a wide range of answers. As the question is asked, What’s the girl doing? you might expect the answer, The girl’s sitting, but the student might say, The girl’s smiling or The girl’s playing. The student is able to use the acquired vocabulary independently. That’s growth.

Creating their own questions is a goal for students. They’ll need to learn to ask questions which they will need the answers to. They will need to understand a practical response, too.

S – Where do I get the bus for Main Street?
T – Go to the next corner. It comes every ten minutes.

Using Response Drills will help students begin to use the English they need for real-life communication.

**Transformation Drills**

In the transformation drill, students

- Change **positive statements into negative statements**, and conversely, **negative statements into positive statements**.
- Change **statements to questions** and **questions to statements**.
- Change **present tense sentences to past tense sentences** (or other).

As with other drills, students work on only one change at a time.

Prepare students for changing a **positive statement into a negative** by having both the positive and the negative sentences repeated after you. Pictures or quickly drawn stick figures insure comprehension. You can also use drawings of “Smiley” faces -- both sad and happy.

T – The man is happy.
S – The man is happy.
Shake your head in the negative as you say,
T – The man is not happy.
S – The man is not happy.

After students have had sufficient practice with both the positive and negative sentences and perceive the pattern, continue with a more complex transformation drill, supplying the cue word **not**.

T -- . . . not . . .
S -- The man is not happy.
T -- The girl is dancing.
S -- The girl is dancing.
T -- . . . not . . .
S -- The girl is not dancing.

As students understand the positive/negative transformation, you might continue asking students for more information.

Show a picture of a boy holding a dog. (This requires the use of do to form the negative.)
T – Jimmy has a dog.
S – Jimmy has a dog.
T -- . . . not . . .
S – Jimmy does not have a dog.

**Question Patterns**  These changes may be more difficult.  When **changing statements to questions**, cue students by holding up a card showing a question mark.  Teach the ? symbol if it is not known, but most students will know a question mark.

Model the sentence, having students repeat it.  Then restate it in a question form holding up a card showing a question mark.

T – Harry is going to work.
S – Harry is going to work.
T – (holding ? card) *Is* Harry going to work?
S – *Is* Harry going to work?

Model at least four sentences in this way.  At first, give the statement as a model:

T – Marie is reading a book.
S – Marie is reading a book.
T – (holding up the ? card) *Is* . . .
S – *Is* Marie reading a book?

Eventually model the statement and simply hold up the question mark.

T – George is climbing a tree.  (show ?)
S – *Is* George climbing a tree?

**When Tenses Are Changed**  In transformation drills in which **tenses are changed**, continue in the same pattern, substituting only one word, holding the rest of the sentence or phrase constant.  You can do this with the different tenses in English without teaching students the names of the tenses.  Include the adverbs today, yesterday, tomorrow in the sentences to cue the correct response.

T – Today I’m playing tennis.
S – Today I’m playing tennis.
T -- . . . yesterday . . .
S – Yesterday I played tennis.
T -- . . . tomorrow . . .
S – Tomorrow I will play tennis.  (OR . . . I am going to play).
Chapter 9

Speaking Freely

The following exercises -- games, role playing, dialogues -- are student-centered activities – exercises in which students interact with each other in English. Students learn best when they interact with each other using their English language skills in more practical and real situations. Students are free, in many of these exercises, to respond as they wish, allowing them to be communicative; although some of these activities are designed to practice a specific pattern, there is no guarantee that students will actually use the target pattern in their responses. As often as not they do, because they are uncertain in their knowledge of the language or because students are hooked into the teacher’s expectations.

Caution -- While students are playing games, participating in role plays, and doing dialogues, resist the urge to correct their English errors. Observe mistakes and take notes for corrective lessons later on. Students need to feel free to be creative in these exercises. Correcting them will stifle this creativity.

Using Games in the Classroom

Games are good for two reasons: they are fun and they provide an important function in helping students to practice their English. Games provide opportunities for students to non-consciously use the English they have learned.

Learning can be more fun with games; BUT, games should have a purpose – they should be carefully chosen and used only to reinforce what you are teaching and what students are learning. It’s great to do “fun stuff,” but games should not have just the purpose for students to have fun, nor should games be used for time filler. Everything must point right back to your objectives and fulfill one or more of the objectives. Even Bingo has a purpose – e.g., during the game students recognize the letter sounds B-I-N-G-O and they recognize the sounds of the numbers, which provides listening comprehension skills; these skills are reinforced when students must read back their cards.

There is justification for using games if used wisely!
5. Games are fun.

Games provide an interactive way to review material that you have just spent time on in class. Games should never be used to teach a new idea, but to reinforce concepts already presented. Games should never be used as “filler;” they should be used only in connection with a lesson, either the current lesson or as review and reinforcement for a lesson in the recent past.

Games provide settings for a natural use of conversation. Students get so carried away with the game that they will communicate with each other in English (What did you say? No, you’re wrong!) without even thinking about it. This simply helps them to become more comfortable with using English in normal conversational situations. But—a word of caution here—this is not the time to correct anyone’s English. Make a note of the problems and incorporate them in a later lesson.

Games break the boredom of a normal routine and get the students excited about what they are learning.

Focus is taken off the teacher; students focus on each other and dealing with the challenges the game presents. Games help students interact with each other rather than remain in their cliques. This helps students feel more comfortable with each other which is crucial if students are to be expected to speak up in class. Students will also correct themselves or each other when they make a mistake. The teacher can monitor and jump in here and there to answer questions or make corrections relative to the game.

Some Elements to Remember When Creating and/or Using Games Already Available

First of all, remember that in dealing with conversational English students, hard and fast rules rarely apply. There are as many second language student types as there are clouds in the sky. Because no two students will fit into the same mold, it will be necessary to remain flexible and adapt games to particular students.

Second, you need not scurry around to “find” games. Many activities can be turned into games with a little imagination and modification by adding the concept of competition. For example, vary the drills to be practiced, such as the chain drill, by using them as games. If it incorporates competition and is fun, students will not know the difference and the desired result will be the same. On the other hand, you may create new games if you have a mind to do so. Books are full of games. But be sure the activities are fun, simple enough so that students are relaxed, the games fit the lesson plan rather than just being “fun filler,” and involve competition in order to raise interest.

Suggestions for Choosing or Creating Games

Be sure that the game includes the following.
1. It combines both luck and knowledge.
2. It provides an optimum number of opportunities to practice and hear others practice.
3. It provides opportunities for partial success, especially for beginners.
4. It provides opportunities for players to judge the correctness of their own answers as well as the correctness of other player’s answers.
5. It provides some element of competition, either between groups or between individual students. This may be the lifeblood of games, at least for students!
6. The game would be enjoyed by you so that students won’t feel like they are being treated like children. Remember that low English doesn’t mean low intelligence.
7. The game will “work.” Experiment with it first, perhaps with colleagues.

When the game is a success, be sure and share it with colleagues.

Suggestions for Playing the Game  This may be one time, especially with a beginner class or when there seems to be otherwise some confusion, that it is permissible for the interpreter to translate instructions so that students fully understand the rules and procedures of the game.

1. Give the name and purpose of the game. You may want to avoid calling it a “game,” but rather a “learning activity.” Older conversational English students with traditional educational backgrounds may think games are only for children and resist using them. Be sensitive to students’ reactions.
2. Divide the class into whatever groups are required.
3. Explain and demonstrate how the game is played. Use students to help demonstrate.
4. Allow students to ask questions concerning the game.
5. Play the game, keeping the following in mind:
   a. Watch for confusion. When the game is going badly, confusion results. If you cannot correct without stopping the game, it is better to take a break and clear up any misunderstandings. Be patient.
   b. Don’t let the game drag. Watch for signs of fatigue and boredom. Stop the game before students become tired of it. On the other hand, keep track of time so that the game doesn’t take up more class time than is justified. When students are having fun, games can go on and on -- for example, when students are playing Bingo.
   c. Observe the shy students and, on the other hand, the more aggressive ones. Praise the efforts of shy students and make them feel understood without making them feel conspicuous.
Dialogues are an effective way to present and practice the patterns and structures of English in that they present English in a meaningful way through short, controlled conversations which students learn.

**Role Playing**

Role playing is defined as “the acting out of characters or situations as an aid in language teaching/learning.” In role playing students express meaning. However, role plays should come directly from lesson plans. Role plays are determined by the teacher; for example, if you are building a lesson plan around the theme of eating in a restaurant and having to order from a menu, the role play could be a situation in which students are required to recognize and use phrases and vocabulary such as *What would you like? I would like . . . , How would you like your eggs? I would like my eggs fried. I would like lettuce and tomato on my hamburger*, and so on. Usually role plays are for two students, and that is best at first; later more than two students can participate in a role play.

**Why Role Play?**

Role plays are a very effective way of bringing “real life” communication into the classroom. Rather than constantly practicing the English language, this gives students a chance to jump right in and use it to communicate about everyday activities.

Role plays also give students a chance to step outside of themselves and be a character. Shy or introverted students might come alive if given a role to play and a situation to act out.

Role plays also get the students involved and get the teacher away from the front of the class. Students are typically very interested in watching their peers act out in front of the class. This way they can learn from each other. This is student-centered learning and is one of the main goals of AELT instruction.

Role plays also build students’ listening and speaking (or responding) skills.

**Three Types of Role Plays**

There are three types of role plays: situational, cocktail, conflict.

1. **Situational** role plays – An example of a “situational” role play is the following: “You are a teacher. When you walk into the classroom you see that one student is crying at her desk. You ask her what is wrong.”

2. **Cocktail** Party role plays are casual, “spur of the moment” conversations we might have at a social gathering, such as “Talking about the weather,” “How many children do you have?” “What kind of work do you do?” “Where are you from?” or “Tell me about your family.”

3. **Conflict** role plays – In these role plays, students are given a conflict to resolve through negotiation. Each student receives instruction for his/her role in the conflict. Neither partner in the conflict is to tell the other what the instructions are. Examples of “conflict” role plays are the following.

   a. A conflict between a customer and a store manager
regarding a talking pet parrot you had bought; the parrot would not “talk.” You want your money back.

b. A conflict between a parent and a school director over a child’s behavior and what would appear to be abuse by the school director.

In Appendix I there is a long list of “situational” and “conflict” role plays. Teachers need to invent these kinds of conversations, but always keeping in mind that there should be a purpose right out of a lesson plan.

**How to Create Role Plays**

To begin planning, put yourself in your students’ place. When and what do your students need to say in English? Where are students likely to go to use English? Think of the following situations, and then add your own as the occasion arises that demands the use of practical English. For example

- Answering the telephone,
- Asking directions,
- Shopping in various kinds of stores,
- Telling a doctor about pain or illness,
- Ordering in a restaurant,
- Visiting a friend,
- Cashing a check at the bank.

Most people will find statements and questions involving food items of immediate use. Although some of the words may be known, they may be pronounced incorrectly. Set up a demonstration with a few items and act out a grocery shopping situation. A circular from a supermarket is a good item to have for this purpose.

The biggest problem the teacher will encounter is getting students to use English more than during the time spent in lessons. Ingenuity in developing occasions to increase the amount and variety of English practice will spend the process of learning.

Again, as you listen to the English used in role playing, take note of problem areas for instruction that can be used in subsequent lesson plans. Unlike with games, since role plays are used to reinforce what has been covered in a lesson plan, it would be good to take time at the end of the role plays and deal with problem areas for the whole class.

**Dialogues**

Dialogues are an effective way to present and practice the patterns and structures of English in that they present English in a meaningful way through short, controlled conversations which students learn. You can incorporate all the techniques presented.

A dialogue is a conversational exchange between two people in a given situation. A dialogue can be taken from a conversational English text or one which you have prepared yourself. Keep the dialogue
simple at first and keep it to four lines. Help students to memorize a
dialogue through repetition and response drills. Even at a basic level
dialogues can somewhat resemble brief real-life conversations.

Student A - Wait Person -- Will you have a cup of coffee?
Student B - Customer -- Yes, thank you.
Student A - Wait Person -- Sugar and cream?
Student B - Customer -- No, I take mine black.

Often in a dialogue, as in the dialogue above, the two parts are spoken
by people with different roles in the situation. In this case, it is
likely that students would be customers in a restaurant. In such dia-
logues, be sure the students master the part that is more “real.” Do this
by taking the part of the waiter yourself. Use pictures to “cue” the
student to give more than one likely response. Again, use substitution
drills to help students give answers in good English.

Employ dialogues to teach English that students will actually use.
What will students need to say in the following situations?

• An unexpected event prevents a lesson.
• There’s an emergency and a doctor must be called.
• He/She is in a restaurant and doesn’t know how to order.
• Directions aren’t understood.

Write simple dialogues for these situations and other situations.

Kinds of Dialogues There are two kinds of dialogue exercises to
use in teaching conversational English -- memorized dialogues and
cued dialogues.

Memorized dialogues are used with beginning students or to intro-
duce new material.

One of the most common form of dialogues are those in which stu-
dents learn common American English expressions -- primarily
greetings and partings. The following are examples.

Greeting --
Student A: Hi, how are you?
Student B: Fine, thanks. And you?
Student A: Fine, Thanks.

Parting –
Student A: I have to go now. Nice talking to you.
Student B: Nice talking to you. Good bye.
Student A: Goodbye

Additional common American expressions can be found in Appen-
dix G.

The following is a dialogue for students who can master the simpler
dialogues without much trouble. In working on this dialogue, you will
probably use every technique available. Because the sentences are
longer, the backward buildup technique (explained in Chapter 8) will
be useful. Pictures of a refrigerator, cheese, meat and bread would be
helpful. The teacher, gesturing for the student to listen, says and acts
out the dialogue, using the A and B cards technique. (NOTE: The
letters A and B below refer to “first speaker” and “second speaker.”)

Student A – What’s in the refrigerator? I’m hungry.
Student B – *There’s cheese, meat, and bread. Why don’t you have a sandwich?*

Student A – *Yes, that sounds good.*

Student B – *Why don’t you make one for me, too?*

Student A – *All right, I will.*

With every dialogue, go through all the steps that have been recommended. In the above dialogue, perhaps the teacher would find the student could not repeat the first line. This presents a perfect spot for backward buildup (see Chapter 8).

By using pictures, the situation can be changed. Instead of *refrigerator*, other words, such as *cooler* or *picnic basket*, could be used. Other foods can also be substituted within the dialogue. Eventually, conversational English students can feel confident to use the expressions learned in dialogues with their own selection of vocabulary. Keep a record of the dialogues used in lessons for later use. Re-teach them. Go through them often.

Probably the most difficult thing for teachers to realize is that there must be constant review and repetition. “Once over a few times” will not suffice! Remember, everything is new and much repetition is needed to build confidence as well as vocabulary.

**Cued Dialogues** (planned conversations) are used with more experienced students, centered around a topic students are familiar with and using vocabulary they know.

It is important that students speak and understand in planned conversations, but the goal ultimately is to have students converse spontaneously and in real-life situations. Memorized dialogues can be an entrance into free dialogue or discussion of cued dialogues. An entertaining way to use a dialogue is to take a sequence of cartoons and cut out or “white out” the words in the balloons. Using the situation in the cartoon as the basis for dialogue, you and your students decide what words the characters in the cartoon should say.

Role-playing, or situational learning, is an important tool in introducing and practicing cued dialogues, especially for more advanced students. Set the stage for role-playing in a given situation. Perhaps students will be visiting a school. Pretend that you are the office receptionist, asking the appropriate questions. Tape the entire dialogue, then play it back for review, and you have the dialogue. A list of common survival role playing situations might be: cashier-customer; bank teller and customer; nurse/doctor’s assistant and patient; bus driver and passenger; pharmacist and customer; supervisor and employee; teacher and student, etc.

It is important that students speak and understand in planned conversations, but the ultimately goal is to have students converse spontaneously and in real-life situations. A cued dialogue can be an entrance into free dialogue or discussion.

**How to Facilitate the Learning of Dialogues**

Dialogues can liven up a lesson and provide ways to make the
classroom a communicative, profitable language experience. The following ideas are suggestions from teachers who have used dialogues.

Create the dialogue. Keep the sentences simple and limited to four lines at first.

1. Prepare for this exercise by determining whatever objects, pictures, or actions will give meaning and thus enhance the learning of the dialogue.
   a. Set up real life situations related to the dialogue. Bring props in order to make it easier to “act.” Ideas for props are hats, clothes, construction paper, phone receivers, chairs in airplane configuration, boxes and cans from supermarkets, etc.
   b. Determine whether there are gestures that will help.
   c. As the learning of the dialogue progresses try to get students involved physically. Sitting in one position can be boring and, especially in hot weather, cause lethargy! We tend to be animated when we speak, and showing body language along with dialogue is a good teaching tool.

2. Follow this sequence to present the dialogue. When modeling the dialogue, be sure to speak normally with normal speed and rhythm. Speak clearly but not too loudly.
   a. First, introduce the entire dialogue by having the interpreter, your teammate, or an advanced student play the role of one person.
   b. Use cards labeled “A” and “B,” one for you and one for the other person, and repeat the dialogue.
   c. Facing each other, repeat the whole dialogue two or three times in a conversational tone of voice before asking students to repeat. Show the A and B cards to the students as the two of you repeat the dialogue.
   d. Then turn and face students; repeat the entire dialogue again, showing the A and B cards.
   e. Using a drill technique, go through the dialogue, line by line, having students say each line. Repeat this until students have the dialogue memorized. Check to see if students understand the context and meaning of the dialogue.
   f. Divide the class in half; one half will be one person, and other half the second person. Continually use the A and B cards as cues.
   g. Finally, using the cards, ask individuals to say the lines from memory. Somewhere along the line, when students no longer need the cues, the card should be dropped.
   h. Next, use the dialogue as conversation! Give the first line, asking students to respond with the second line, again using the A and B cards. Do this line by line until students can do it easily.
i. Then reverse the roles and have the students give the first line while you give the second line and so on through the dialogue.

j. When the pattern is learned, you can substitute words such as tea for coffee or adapt the dialogue in some other way, keeping the same general pattern.

Dialogues are worth all the effort of drill and practice. The fun comes when students can use the device for real conversation. And it is reassuring indeed to students to be able to understand and speak in a meaningful way.
Working with Students

10 Placement Procedures
The Needed Information: Listening Comprehension Ability; Production Skills; Gathering the Information
Problems with the Placement Process: The interviewer; Students; The Interview
Problems Following Initial Placement: Modifications to Initial Placement; Dealing with Latecomers
The Interview
Logistics: A Careful Plan; Needed Materials; Informed Students; While Interviews Are Taking Place; Final Evaluation; Interpreters in the Placement Process

11 Working with Different Levels of Students
Beginner\(^1\) Students: Description; Goals; Teaching Strategies
Beginner\(^2\) Students: Description; Goals; Teaching Strategies
Intermediate Students: Description; Goals; Teaching Strategies
Low Advanced Students: Description; Goals; Teaching Strategies
Advanced Students: Description; Goals; Teaching Strategies

12 Planning
Lesson Planning: Activities; Procedures
The Interpreter in a Conversational English Class
The First Day of Class

13 Correcting Students
Correcting Student Behavior
Placement Procedure

The most important step in a successful program is student assessment and the resulting placement into appropriate classes. The goals of the placement process are:

- To place students in the correct level class relative to their ability in English,
- To do it effectively, affectively, and efficiently,
- To make students feel more comfortable about the placement process, and
- To make students feel more comfortable in a class.

Placing students in the correct level classes is a combination of two processes, and in this sequence – first, the assessment of students’ English competencies, and second, using the results of the assessment for placement. Correct placement of students in classes is totally dependent on valid assessment of their English competencies. In addition to these two areas, there must be an understanding of:

- The information needed from an assessment,
- How the information is gathered,
- How the information is used,
- Problem areas, and
- Planning for the placement process.

This chapter will discuss the information gathering and placement process.

The Needed Information

Assessment of students’ English competencies is an information-gathering process. There are two primary pieces of information required for placement into an AELT class – the student’s listening comprehension ability (discussed more in depth in Chapter 7) and his or her overall English competencies in speaking. The fully capable student will be equally competent in both listening comprehension and oral English “production” skills. Pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar skills will not likely be perfect, but this student would be considered “advanced.”

Listening comprehension ability means basically the following – based on students’ responses, do they understand quickly what is being
said to them or asked of them? Does the interviewer have to repeat questions (indicating that the student is having difficulty understanding)? Is there evidence that the student doesn’t understand the questions? Does he understand anything?

**Production skills** involves the ability to respond in English and how well he/she responds in English. It does not include pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary other than as each plays a part in the ability to use words that are part of the student’s over-all English competencies. In listening to students’ responses we want to know how well they can communicate in English. The very capable student will respond conversationally (i.e., he will actually carry on a conversation with the interviewer and will offer more information than is asked for).

The less capable student will respond with brief answers, incomplete sentences, in phrases, or even in single words. Of course, there is the student who will be unable to respond at all. For placement purposes we want to know if the student can respond quickly and meaningfully, whether he/she responds with difficulty although correctly, whether he responds smoothly or haltingly, whether he responds but does so incorrectly.

In addition to these two primary areas of information, it is desirable to take note of pronunciation problems, vocabulary usage, and the student’s use of grammar. These are not areas of information that function heavily in determining students’ placement but are used to reinforce the placement decision as well as to aid teachers who will be working with these students. Normally these three areas are commensurate with students’ listening comprehension and oral competencies, but not necessarily.

Usually the criterion regarding pronunciation is whether the student’s speech is easily understandable. The interviewer must be able to understand what the student is saying to determine whether he is giving correct and appropriate responses. If pronunciation is easily understandable, there may be other pronunciation problems that can be identified for further instruction.

The use of vocabulary will generally be commensurate with the placement level. Knowledge of English vocabulary is essential in the use of the English language. The lower level student will exhibit difficulty in getting meaning across. He will often grope for the right word or even use words incorrectly, inappropriately, and sometimes haltingly; he will often respond with single words. The more advanced students will exhibit a wide range of vocabulary.

The student’s grammar usage is again commensurate with the placement level. The less capable student will speak in single words and therefore doesn’t attempt to use grammar. When grammar is used, he may or may not be correct in its usage. His English may be full of errors or may be correct as far as he can go in his English usage. The more advanced students will exhibit mostly correct grammar.
Gathering the Needed Information

From among the several different ways of acquiring this information, AELT makes use of two – Self Report and the Questionnaire with Interview, but primarily the latter.

In the Self-Report method of deciding placement, students are asked to evaluate their own English skills and place themselves in a given level class. This question is usually asked ahead of time in the native language. Self-Report is not the best means of placing students, but sometimes it is necessary because of a number of factors, the main factor being that placement and class organization has already been done when volunteers arrive on the scene.

Why isn’t it the best? Too often students rate themselves lower than their actual skill level. On the other hand, there are those who elevate their self-evaluation beyond what is reasonable. However, sometimes students are rather accurate in their self-evaluation.

These mis-evaluations prove to be a problem when students are placed in a given classroom; the teacher must carefully observe students’ skills and be ready to make a recommendation for moving the students to another level class and do it within the first class or two. Students themselves will recognize that they are in the wrong class.

The Questionnaire with interview, which the AELT Program uses, elicits responses to questions in a sequential way but allows for the interviewer to add questions as appropriate for clarification or for added information.

Questions are used in the sequence in which they are written, from very easy, in order to put students at ease, to complex. The beginning student can possibly respond to the first question or two, if any, and the advanced student can respond very well to all questions. This means that students in between will falter somewhere along the way.

The interview is to be approached on a conversational basis so that the process does not become too mechanical. If so, the use of the questionnaire can become boring and the needed information will not be elicited.

Questions are changed from time to time to better fit a different cultural situation, a particular age group, or a certain professional situation.

There is a built-in set of criteria for evaluation of the student for placement.

A detailed picture is used, also, in the case of a beginning student to distinguish a Beginner\(^1\) student from a Beginner\(^2\) student. The picture is used to elicit vocabulary – only in the case of a complete beginner student.

The Interview

A team of two teachers is needed for each interview – one person who will do the interviewing and one person (a “recorder”) who listens
to the interview and makes notes.

The Interviewer

Interviews only. His or her focus is entirely on the
interview and creating a comfortable relationship
with the student.
Reads from a single copy of the questionnaire.
Uses this same questionnaire for each student.
Does not write on this questionnaire.
Does not make notes.

The Recorder

Doesn’t speak during the interview
Makes notes on the student’s interview form –
What is said
Observations
Other information that seems desirable.

The interviewer is not to skip around in asking questions nor does
the interviewer use all questions if the student is unable to respond.

In the situation of a Beginner student, in order to distinguish a Beginner from a Beginner, a picture is used. If it appears to the inter-
viewer that the student is a beginner with no English skills, show the
student the picture and ask “What do you see?” Point to certain parts
of the picture in case the student may not understand the question. If
the student doesn’t respond, then the interviewer should point to
something and name it, causing the student to understand what is de-
sired. Remember that the criterion separating the two beginner levels
is some use of vocabulary, even a small amount. We want the Begin-
ner class to be a completely non-English speaking group of students,
no matter how small the class is, so that the class is as nearly homoge-
neous as possible.

The two team members can switch places as desired, but whoever
is the Recorder always writes and doesn’t speak.

It is important that copious notes and observations be made in order
to aid (1) in the team’s follow-up evaluation and (2) in the Evaluator’s
placement of the student. Recorders often make minimal notes or no
notes. It is crucial that the Recorder makes notes! Don’t underesti-
mate the importance of anything you can say, even to the point of
writing down verbatim how the student responds, especially if there is
an important mistake in the response. In Appendix H is a list of com-
mon remarks, with evaluative comments, that record-
ers make.

Each team will be provided two forms per student for the inter-
view: the Questionnaire and an Evaluation Form. The Evaluation
Form is the summing up of the student’s interview and should reflect
the interview. Following the interview and after dismissing the stu-
dent, the team, using notes written on the questionnaire, will discuss
the interview as thoroughly as possible, but also as quickly as possible,
and complete the Evaluation Form; it is important to keep in mind that
responses on the Evaluation Form must reflect the notes on the ques-
tionnaire. In assessment and evaluation of students, it is desirable to
make decisions on the side of caution so that if students are placed
incorrectly they are placed too low and, therefore, need to be moved
to a higher level class rather than being moved to a lower level class. On occasion an interviewer will over-evaluate a student and that student is placed in a class beyond his or her English competency.

The Interview Team does not suggest a level for the student.

The two forms are in Appendix H.

**Problems Areas to Be Considered**

If problems can be anticipated ahead of time, many hurdles in a placement process can be overcome. Problems can exist just by the very nature of dealing with other cultures and by missing some of the necessities of the logistics of the process of assessment, evaluation, and placement. The following are the major areas that may be the cause of problems that arise after placement is completed. These areas must be considered seriously and steps taken to avoid them if possible.

- Problems during the placement process itself,
- Problems after the placement process is completed.

**Problems with the Placement Process**

Evaluation of programs in the past have shown the following potential problems during the data gathering process that can have an effect on placement results.

- The Interviewer
- The Students
- The Interview

The most obvious problems are directly related to the interviewer who

1. Is not relaxed and knowledgeable of the process of doing the interview.
2. Is mechanical and not conversational.
3. Is unable to, or doesn’t, draw out students in order to obtain further information or reword the questions to fit the student and still obtain information that is desired.
4. Might assume that the questions are fixed and does not make changes as needed.
5. Is not sufficiently astute in order to catch the “man-of-a-few-words” student and to draw him or her out for more samples of speech.
6. Is not sufficiently clever to obtain valid information. Otherwise, invalid information or inadequate information could be the result, and, of course, the student placed in the incorrect class.
7. Doesn’t provide written information on the questionnaire for the evaluator to use in making placement decisions.

Avoid problems ahead of time by anticipating them.
The students themselves: A student’s English competency can be very difficult to evaluate because

1. He or she may excel in one area of competency and be very weak in another; for example, he may be very weak in listening comprehension but responds very well once he understands.

2. The “man-of-a-few-words” student may give responses that are correct, but doesn’t provide enough “language” for an adequate sample of speech.

3. The student may have greater English competency than is exhibited because he or she is shy and inhibited.

4. The student is nervous and makes mistakes which he or she otherwise would not make if relaxed.

5. The student may be so nonchalant about the whole process that he fails to exhibit the English skills that he has.

Several factors must be present in the interview in order for it to successfully gauge the proficiency of students. The following are problems which could be present.

1. **Time:** The interview process cannot be rushed. There must be adequate time planned to interview each student without taking too much time, adequate time to evaluate the data, and adequate time for placement decision making.

2. **Interview sites:** The places chosen for interviews must be noise free. If there are distractions from noise made by people talking in the interview area, from placing interview teams too close together, or from people walking through the site, assessment results could be invalid. Holding interviews in rooms where there is an echo effect can skew assessment results; both interviewer and interviewee must be able to hear each other well. If interviews are taking place out of doors and it rains, the lack of a contingency plan can result in the loss of valuable time.

3. The presence of an interpreter during an interview: If someone is present to whom the student turns for help, that situation will invalidate assessment results and will make it impossible to do a valid interview. There must be no interpreter near where the interview is taking place. (This will be discussed later.)

4. **Using results** of interviews for decision making: Results can be unclear and not useful due to assessment results and evaluation being inflated, due to the incompleteness of assessment, due to the student who is between levels, and due to trying to maintain equal class size.

**Problems Following Initial Placement**

The placement decision isn’t the end of the story related to difficulties. Experience has taught that there will be problems after classes have started. The following two situations – modification to
initial placement and what to do with latecomers -- have proven to be the case in most programs.

**Modifications to Initial Placement** There are two reasons for modifying placement decisions – the dissatisfied student and incorrect placement. The question arises – is the result of placement fixed or does there need to be an adjustment? In most cases, the latter should be the case.

In spite of the best assessment, evaluation criteria, and carefully followed procedures, a few students will be incorrectly placed. Students must be in the appropriate class in order that learning may be enhanced. The teacher should recognize very quickly if there are students in his or her class who need to be moved.

Students will recognize quickly if they are not placed correctly and may become dissatisfied. Each student must be re-evaluated for correct placement. In addition, sometimes students will complain about the class in which they are placed simply because they want to be in a class with a friend, because they realize their English skills justify a higher placement, or perhaps because they “think” they do not like the teacher. All of this must be ascertained and confirmed before a decision is made. All decisions regarding student movement are made by the Evaluator.

Problems regarding initial placement can be expected, and many more, if the Self Report means of placement is used, both in an upward direction and a lower direction.

**Dealing with Latecomers** Students, who come in after placement is completed and classes are begun, should be put through the entire placement process by the English Evaluator. Guessing at placement without going through the entire assessment and evaluation process could result in students being placed incorrectly. Sometimes students are placed in a particular class because someone “knows” the student from the previous year; this practice, also, could result in incorrect placement because it does not allow for student growth during the previous year not to mention the possibility that a student was incorrectly placed during the preceding year.

Teachers should be alert for students who need to move out of their class and into a higher (or lower) level.

**Planning for the Placement Process**

Many problems with the placement process result from a lack of careful plans and implementing these plans. These problems result in incorrect placement, frustrated and confused interview teams, and interruptions that come from having often having to place students into another class.

“Planning” requires giving attention to the following.

First of all, a **careful plan** must be in place. The entire placement
Evaluate students on the side of caution so that they are placed too low rather than too high. It is always better to move a student to a higher level!

The placement process must be carefully designed in stages, carefully sequenced, carefully explained to volunteers and interpreters, and carefully carried out according to plan, thus helping to insure the success of the placement process. All staff participating should be well informed of their responsibilities and how their responsibilities should be carried out.

**Needed Materials** should be identified and should be sufficient in number, readily available, in the correct places, and information regarding the use of the materials very clearly stated.

All **interview team participants** should be **trained** and experienced in the details of the interview.

All **students must be informed** that the interview is NOT a test but is an attempt to evaluate their English skills in order to place them in an appropriate class. It is important that students be aware at all times of what is taking place and why.

**Locations** for the different aspects of the placement process must be identified, making sure that locations for interviews are appropriate. All participants must be informed clearly where they will be and what their duties will be. Locations should be labeled so that students can identify where they should be at a given time.

**Plan what students will be doing as they wait for their interview.** It is necessary for students to be kept away from the interview sites while interviews are taking place; therefore, there must be a plan for keeping students occupied until there is an interview team ready for them. Students with good English competencies will often try to help interviewees who are struggling. Also, students standing around talking will be a distraction to the interview process and also will prevent interviewees and interviewers from hearing well. Give a few interpreters the assignment to speak with unoccupied students in their own language and to explain what is taking place.

**Final evaluation** of the assessment results and placement decisions should be accomplished by the Evaluator in a timely manner so that students can be informed of their class placement and instruction can be started without any waiting on the part of students.

**Interpreters** should be given assigned tasks during the placement process so that they are not near where the interviews are taking place. Interpreters are wonderful helpers, want to be of help, try very hard to be of help, and are of great help in the placement program. If interpreters are not given specific responsibilities away from the interview sites, they will naturally gravitate to the interviews to be of help. Interpreters need training before any of the placement process takes place so as to be available and helpful in the right ways.

It is important, in the registration phase and prior to the interviews, that interpreters be on hand at specific places to explain to students what is going on, especially for those students who have low English competencies.

When students are being interviewed there should **not** be an interpreter within sight or within earshot; students with little or no English speaking skills will naturally turn to an interpreter for help. By assigning tasks to interpreters this problem can be avoided. Students
must focus on listening to English and responding in English the best way they can.

Regardless of the placement technique used for students desiring to learn English, the first impression is an important one. More than a few students come to a language-learning program with fears -- adult students especially. Their fears can be alleviated by a friendly smile and pleasant small talk. Therefore, it is important that all who are involved in the placement process should establish a friendly, enthusiastic rapport free of any academic pretense.
Chapter 11

Working with Different Levels of Students

It is the intent of the AELT program to have homogeneous classes – homogeneous in that each class has the same level students as much as is possible. However, it is difficult in a small program to have completely homogeneous classes. Therefore, there will be few students in all classes who more than likely do not, to some extent, fit in the class to which they are assigned, but whose skills will not allow them to go to another class. Therefore, it is important that teachers know their students’ skills and allow for differences.

It is critical that instruction be geared to the student’s level according to his/her English competencies, otherwise the student will quickly lose interest. If the material presented is too easy, students will become bored and even insulted. If the instruction is too difficult, students will become frustrated. Students, in either situation, could become disruptive. Some students have been known to take it upon themselves to look for another class until they are satisfied, in which event they could become distracting to the whole program – not to mention distracting to teachers! Still other students leave the program. And, of course, the important aspect of working with different levels of students is that teachers plan and present so that students’ needs are met and that they learn.

The teacher must know, first, what the characteristics of each level are -- what kinds of skills, for example, the intermediate student has, the Beginner, the Low Advanced, etc. This knowledge will become a starting point for planning. Planning for teaching must match the student’s level as much as possible.

The following discussion will present five different levels of students, describe their competencies, and present suggestions for working with students at each level.

Beginner Students

Description: (the “zero” beginner) Students

- Speak no English.
- Understand no English.

Goals for Beginner include

1. Intelligible pronunciation skills,
2. Strong listening comprehension skills,

Be patient and understand that a beginning learner moves from zero proficiency to near-native fluency in stages clearly marked by a gradual progression from imprecise to accurate levels of English. Allow learners to move through each of these stages.
3. The common greetings in American English,
4. English vocabulary consisting of concrete concepts, color concept words, abstractions (such as feelings, emotions) number concept words, 1 to 1,000,
5. English words and phrases in simple statement and question format in the present tense, both positive and negative,
6. Present progressive tense to be + Verb-ing,
7. Negative structure, is + not and using do/does,
8. Short-answer responses to questions,
9. The expansion of statements by adding adjectives in a simple way,
10. Sentence combining, both verb phrases and noun phrases,
11. Definite and indefinite articles: the, a/an,
12. Comparative and superlative expressions,
13. Correct use of to be and to have, in the present tense,
14. Correct use of the present tenses of regular verbs,
15. Correct use of personal, objective, and possessive pronouns,
16. Recognition and use of question formats -- with W-words, yes-no, with do/does,
17. Prepositions,
18. Time and calendar concepts.

For Beginners¹, start simple, one word at a time; then plan and present from simple to complex. The normal progression in teaching vocabulary and grammar is to start with a single vocabulary item, a concrete, rather than abstract, concept that can be illustrated with a visual. Then gradually add to it adjectives, simple grammar, other parts of speech such as prepositions and prepositional phrases, and finally with a transformation from a statement to a question. As soon as a large number of regular verbs (action words that create the simple past by adding –ed) in the present tense have been learned, then proceed with the simple past tense.

The important thing to be conscious of here is that you must never introduce words and grammatical structures that students have not been taught previously. These students have not had the experience of studying English in the classroom, therefore the experience for them may be slow, and they might not progress as quickly as we would like. However, class sessions should move at a rapid pace in order to keep students involved and to cover the material within the objectives, but not so fast paced that students are not given sufficient time to comprehend and absorb meaning. Move on to something new ONLY when you are relatively sure that students are comfortable with what you are teaching. Always incorporate the old with the new. If you should run out of material, you may dip into the Beginner² objectives, activities, and procedures. If you do so, be careful not to jump ahead before students have had the needed building-block skills. For beginners, learning the new always builds upon having learned the former.
Use hand gestures and simple speech patterns. Stay away completely from slang and idioms. Base the lesson on simple conversations rather than complex text.

Model everything carefully and clearly. Speak slowly, but naturally. Repeat and rephrase.

Do not permit the interpreter to translate; get meaning across by using visuals, demonstration, objects, etc. Students must become accustomed to hearing and understanding English; it is from this that they will learn to speak English.

From the first class session, try to determine what these students know about English. They will fool you. They likely know some vocabulary, in spite of a good placement process. To discover this, use some detailed pictures at the first class, asking What do you see? You may have to prompt them to give them the idea of what you are asking.

Use a lot of TPR. Introduce all new vocabulary/verbs with TPR. Drill TPR daily, at the beginning and ending of class, to make sure students have understood and have learned these words. Introduce concrete nouns first, using TPR and common everyday objects (e.g., book, pencil, table, chair, etc.). Put vocabulary in the context of a short sentence using action verbs such as put on, pick up, give, etc.

Refer to Chapter 5, “Teaching Sentence Structure,” for the sequence and procedure in teaching beginning students.

**Beginner<sup>2</sup> Students**

**Description:** Beginner<sup>2</sup> students
- Speak very little English.
- Have a very limited vocabulary – only a few words.
- Have very limited listening comprehension (perhaps My name is . . . )
• Rarely use complete sentences.
• Often use garbled and incorrect grammar, or the use of grammar may be nonexistent.
• Will leave out articles (the/a/an).
• May or may not have pronunciation problems.

Goals for Beginner² include
1. Intelligible pronunciation skills,
2. Strong listening comprehension skills,
3. Common greetings in American English,
4. English vocabulary consisting of concrete concepts, color concept words, abstractions (such as feelings, emotions), number concept words, 1 to 1,000,
5. English words and phrases in simple statement and question format in the present, simple past, and future tenses, both positive and negative,
6. Present and past progressive tenses to be + Verb-ing,
7. Negative structures, is + not and using do/does,
8. Short-answer responses to questions,
9. Expansion of statements by adding adjectives in a simple way,
10. Sentence combining, both verb phrases and noun phrases,
11. Definite and indefinite articles: the, a/an,
12. Comparative and superlative expressions,
13. Correct use of to be and to have, in the present and simple past tenses,
14. Correct use of the present, simple past, and future tenses of regular verbs,
15. Use of personal, objective, and possessive pronouns,
16. Recognition and use of question formats -- with W-words, yes-no, with do/does,
17. Prepositions,
18. Time and calendar concepts,
19. The statement I am _____ years old, in response to the question How old are you? How old is he?

The differences between the two beginner levels is minimal, the primary difference being that Beginner² students have picked up a “little” English, which consists of mostly single words and maybe a few common phrases.

This group should be able to progress at a faster pace than Beginner¹ students since their familiarity with English is a little greater. and they will be able to learn more quickly and will strengthen already existing skills. Notice that the goals for the Beginner² students are a little more extensive than for the Beginner¹. You will be able to build upon these existing skills and experiences. Proceed as for Beginner¹, but observe to see if students can take larger chunks of language to learn. Plan accordingly.
Intermediate Students

Description: Intermediate students
- Have a somewhat limited vocabulary in spoken English.
- Have problems with listening comprehension.
- Are able to speak limitedly in complete sentences but use poor grammar.
- Can use the simple past tense to some extent but are unacquainted with the future tense.
- Can converse in survival English, but have difficulty with prepositions, articles, two-part verbs, idioms, and slang.
- Often appear to be more capable than they are because they will be able to use a lot of “canned” responses.
- Would be bored and insulted if mixed in a class with beginning students.

Goals: It is a major goal for the teacher of Intermediate students
1. To build upon the existing skills and experiences of these students with a focus on correcting and strengthening incorrect English skills, and
2. To use them as a springboard to adding new skills.

These students will probably be the most difficult group to work with since they have developed many bad habits; and bad habits are difficult to overcome. There will be mixed in with these kinds of students others who have learned very well but not enough to have much competence. There will be in this class, also, students who will translate what you say in order to help other students. Don’t let this happen!

Intermediate students will differ from the Beginner¹ and Beginner² students in that they have had a much more extensive experience in studying English in the classroom, yet their English competencies are not strong. These students have a fairly sophisticated use of English although their speech will be full of errors and they may have to work at communicating successfully. They lack fluency and need a lot of conversational practice and skills. They will be able to learn much more quickly, progress more rapidly, and will strengthen already existing skills. There may be problems changing earlier acquired incorrect usage.

There may also be students in this class who have learned English in other ways -- from among English-speaking friends, from TV, etc. - - and have developed some very poor speech habits. These students speak English well (“well” means they communicate readily and with fair listening comprehension) but with extremely poor pronunciation and with garbled and incorrect grammar. Your first thought when you meet these students is Why are they in this class? These students are a “mixed bag” and may be difficult to work with because of deeply engrained bad habits and, because of the fact that they can communicate well, they see themselves as having good English. These students are such a “mixed bag” of needs and strengths that they almost need private tutoring.
It will be important to model everything carefully and naturally. Repeat and rephrase. You can use more complex speech patterns. **Idioms should not be used** in an intermediate classroom.

In formulating objectives for teaching Intermediate students, the assumption is that the competencies that these students have, while they may be moderately extensive, are not strong and will need strengthening, plus the fact that there is much that they need yet to learn. Therefore, lesson plans are built around the primary objective of building on and strengthening the competencies that students bring to the learning situations. Any lesson plans are dependent on assessing students’ needs from day to day, especially starting with the first day, and evaluating at the end of the lesson how well students progressed. So – with this group it is almost a day-by-day process of planning.

With that in mind, there are several things to keep in mind in the planning process.

1. All activities should be fast paced. Avoid presenting what would seem to this group as “elementary” exercises. If classroom experiences are slow, students will become bored. If the work is, in their opinion, “elementary,” they will be turned off and insulted. This group, in general, could be teenagers who could become discipline problems. On the other hand, there could be a number of adults in the group who fit the “mixed bag” description.

2. Since it is a major goal to help these students strengthen English competencies that they already have (such as their knowledge and use of the present, past, and future tenses, etc.), use exercises other than drills to accomplish this goal. Exercises will bring out these competencies. They need application of their skills. Use drills when working on areas that need corrected or are very weak and need strengthening. Don’t hesitate to use them extensively since these students need to “speak.” Drills are especially beneficial in that all students are forced to “speak;” in conversational exercises there perhaps will be students that will not speak as much as others. But drills should be used as a follow-up from other exercises, not the reverse. And keep drills fast paced.

3. There will be no need to present new material for learning for these students. Intermediate students have enough to do to just strengthen their skills. Almost anything you can do for and with them will be helpful — keep them talking, and talking a lot, individually and as a group. Spontaneous conversation is essential as well as controlled conversation.

4. These students need to “speak.” Plan exercises that encourage conversation. Plan in such a way that each student has the opportunity to speak so that you can monitor his/her progress and understanding.

   Chain drills (that seem like games) are helpful. Open-
ended completion drills (that, again, seem like games) are helpful. Pass out suitable pictures to the class, let students choose their pictures, have them create a story around the picture, and tell a story using the picture. Do not correct speech errors, but make notes of them for later teaching. As you do conversational and discussion exercises, be sure that all students understand what is going on.

5. If there are some especially troublesome situations, you may want to suggest that the interpreter work with an individual student (so long as the student’s native language is not used) or perhaps have two students work together (again so long as the student’s native language is not used). There may be one student (or a few students) who needs help and the rest of the class doesn’t need that help. In that way, the remainder of the class can move on while the student(s) who needs help can receive it.

6. These students need listening comprehension as much as the two Beginning groups do. Therefore, each lesson should begin and end with a Total Physical Response exercise. It should be fast paced in order to keep these students on their toes and listening hard. Don’t overlook TPR as a strategy to improve these students’ listening comprehension. Whatever you plan for intermediate students, start off easy and gradually become more complex.

   Traditional B-I-N-G-O is a very good interactive listening-speaking exercise for intermediates. Make sure they know all the numbers from one to seventy-five, both in listening and speaking, before you start. B-I-N-G-O provides the listening skills for the numbers as well as the five letters; it also provides the speaking skills necessary for the numbers.

7. Intermediate students need help with grammar skills -- learning new ones and especially “straightening out” those they already have. Take note of what you hear in class and develop lessons around those areas.

8. Don’t overlook pronunciation exercises. There may or may not be a need for help with pronunciation, but there probably will be. Tongue twisters are fun and a good way of working with these students. Each lesson should have a pronunciation exercise of some kind. Look in the appendices for a list of tongue twisters.

It would appear from the previous suggestions that you don’t need to plan. That isn’t the implication at all. It is crucial that you plan. There must be direction in what you are doing. Keep in mind the objectives for Intermediate students and observe for these skills as you hear your students’ speech. Without carefully written plans, this class, especially, could lag; these students must be kept busy.

Regarding activities in Appendices A, B, C, D, E, and F and on the accompanying CD: The teacher will have to use his/her own judgment as to the suitability of these activities for specific intermediate students.
Low Advanced Students

Description: Low Advanced Students
- Have a weakness in listening comprehension skills and are often unaware of their weakness.
- Converse well in English, but have problems with more complex grammatical structures.
- May need help with idioms, pronunciation, and vocabulary expansion.
- Usually feel strongly about their special needs and will inform the teacher about them.
- Would be “lost” if mixed in a class of truly advanced students because of their weak listening comprehension skills.

Goals: It is the goal of the teacher of Low Advanced Students
1. To bring them to a level of fluency that will approach the Advanced Level students, including
   a. The use of idiomatic English
   b. Fluency,
   c. Conversational skills,
   d. Some areas of advanced grammar skills;
2. To improve their level of listening comprehension skills.

Low Advanced students are already quite capable in English – they have a wide range of vocabulary, their grammar is advanced, and usually their pronunciation is good. They, for the most part, know their own weaknesses. Let THEM tell YOU what they want to work on.

Low Advanced students bear many of the characteristics of the Advanced level but are not as advanced as the higher level group in the application of these competencies. They are far ahead of the Intermediate group in their educational experiences in English, but like the Intermediate level students they need a lot of experience in the use of these good competencies. The one area in which these students differ most strongly from Advanced students is that of listening comprehension.

Low Advanced students have quicker listening comprehension skills than intermediate students but still have difficulties; they often do not “catch” what is being said the first time and often have to have things repeated. Because their focus is on speaking and their standard for “speaking good English” is oral production, they are often not aware of this weakness.

More emphasis on conversational skills and application of existing competencies is needed in comparison to the Intermediate level. Give them a lot of practice in conversational skills. Be sure that this practice is fast paced. The fluent speaker has to be quick on his/her feet, so to speak. However, don’t move so fast that students don’t understand what is going on. Vary the pace. Observe each student. Conversational experience should be with individual students as well as the group.

The Interpreter should not be used at all for translation in the Low Advanced class. All instruction and all classroom “talk” should be in
English – the students’ native language should not be reverted to, ever.

However, the interpreter should not be chased from the classroom; she may be needed for some tutoring work with individual students or perhaps will want to sit in the class as a student. If the interpreter needs to explain something, it should be done in English.

The contrast between the Low Advanced group and the Advanced group will show up in four areas: although the Low Advanced group shows what appears to be advanced skills, their

- Listening comprehension is not as quick and sharp as the Advanced level,
- Command of English grammar is not as complete as students at the Advanced level,
- Fluency in English is less than that of the Advanced level, and
- Conversational skills are weak in comparison.

Therefore, these are the four areas in which the Low Advanced students need to work.

The following are suggestions as possibilities for study. Refer to the suggestions for both the Intermediate and the Advanced levels, keeping in mind that Low Advanced students are much more advanced than Intermediate students but somewhat less advanced than Advanced students.

At the first class session, learn students’ names/nicknames so that you can call them by name -- be personal. Discuss with students what their own special goals and objectives are for study and improvement. Subsequent class sessions should be built around students’ desires as well as what the teacher assesses they need.

1. Heavy emphasis needs to be placed on listening comprehension since that is a primary objective for Low Advanced students.

Utilize Total Physical Response and Interactive Listening-Speaking activities for helping these students comprehend spoken English more quickly. They already have the vocabulary and grammar skills to comprehend English but lack the “English” ears with which to hear the language. Refer to Chapter 7 on Listening Comprehension for suggestions on using the colored paper exercises with advanced students. Start off easy at first so that they get the idea and then gradually, even within the first lesson, add in the more complex directions. Keep the pace of these exercises very fast so that they are forced to listen carefully and quickly. They will not have to be worried about responding orally in English, so their focus can be entirely on listening and comprehending. Another good way to deal with listening comprehension at this level is to have tape recordings of conversations or a single person talking but with a lot of background noise. Even the most advanced English speakers (native speakers included) have difficulty with an exercise like that. See additional listening comprehension activities in Appendix A and on the accompanying CD.

2. Another primary objective for the Low Advanced level
is **fluency**. Fluency is accomplished by a lot of experience with speaking a language, not only speaking it but the back and forth of ideas in conversation. Give them a lot of opportunity to practice in conversational skills. Be sure that this practice is fast paced. The fluent speaker is quick on his/her feet, so to speak. Vary the pace. Observe each student. Conversational experiences should be between individual students as well as the group.

As you listen to students speak, take note of errors in their speech and use these areas for correction in later lessons. When errors are corrected on the spot, take the opportunity not only to work with the individual who made the mistake, but work with the entire group as well. Others may need the practice also.

3. Work with students on idioms and phrasal verbs. Plan for no more than five idioms each lesson. Be sure that students know the meaning of idioms and can use them in conversation. Exercises that would force the use of the idioms would be useful. Refer to Chapter 4 on Vocabulary for how to teach idioms. There is a list of idioms in Appendix H.

4. Always include in lessons a good bit of **pronunciation practice**, as needed. There will be someone at this level who has difficulty with the /th/, /ch/, and the /dʒ/ as well as vowel sounds/. Rather than the humdrum of pronunciation drills, tongue twisters are fun and accomplish the same thing. There is a list of tongue twisters in Appendix J.

5. As you plan for this class, keep in mind the objectives listed above. Don’t just let class happen thinking that anything you do will help your students. Plan strategies; have a carefully thought out direction in which your class will go. Before you plan for certain grammatical structures, use them in your own speech to see if students comprehend what you’re saying. If there is a problem, then plan instruction in those areas. You will probably discover that the class is somewhat mixed with regard to their grammar skills -- some students will be more capable than others. This would be a good opportunity to ask the interpreter to work with these students. Areas of weakness can be dealt with by means of drills.

6. These students may have difficulty with the definite and indefinite articles – *the* and *a/an*. When you notice the problem, stop and correct it. Then come back in the next lesson with some more extensive drills and exercises with which to work on it.

The following is a sample of activities which are available on the accompanying CD.

**Listening Comprehension Activities**

1. “Command Strips”
2. “Family Portrait”
3. “Friendship Store”
4. “Charts and Directions”
5. “Room Map”
6. “Simon Says”  
7. “Street Map” (also Interactive)  

**Problem-Solving Activities**  
1. “Desert Island”  
2. “Lost on the Moon”  
3. “Predicament In the Desert”  
4. “Five Houses in Mill Lane”  
5. “Whom to Invite?”  

**Discussion Activities**  
1. “Johari Window.”  

**Interactive Listening-Speaking Activities**  
1. “Crossword Puzzles”  
2. “The AELT Supermarket”  

**Activities List** available in Appendix A, B, C, D, E, and F  

**Problem-Solving Activities**  
1. “The Punishment Fits”  

**Vocabulary Activities**  
1. “Password”  
2. “Ten Little Letters Standing in a Row”  

**Interactive Listening-Speaking Activities**  
1. “I Packed My Bag for Grandma’s”  
2. “Going Shopping”  
3. “Story Telling”  

**Advanced Students**

**Description:** Advanced students  
- Are almost as “advanced” as you and I!  
- Speak English fluently and conversationally and have excellent listening comprehension skills.  
- Have all the attributes of being “students.”  
- Have very definite ideas about which of their English skills need improving.  
- Often want and need help with the more complex English grammar.  
- Are interested in learning idiomatic English.  
- Would be bored if they were mixed in a class with Low Advanced students.

**Goals:** The teacher of Advanced students should work on  
1. The strengthening of their already excellent English competencies, and  
2. The satisfying of their goals for learning.

These students are already very capable in English -- they have a wide range of vocabulary, their grammar is very advanced even to the use of complex grammar, usually their pronunciation is superior, they are very fluent in the use of English, and are conversational in their approach. In fact, they may be more “correct” in certain areas that we stumble over. Their listening comprehension is very sharp and quick. Therefore, it could be difficult to provide for them. However,
let them tell you what they want to work on. But keep your ears open to problem areas that are exhibited in their speech and develop lessons around those areas. These students are usually interested in developing more complex communication skills and idiomatic English so that they can discuss ideas, analyze information, and compare cultures.

The interpreter should not translate in the Advanced class. All instruction, any explanations, and all classroom “talk” should be in English only. Students in the Advanced level will be as capable in English as is the interpreter and perhaps even more so. However, don’t chase the interpreter from the classroom. He/She can give you feedback during the evaluation process.

You can do just about anything with advanced students. But – be warned; they may ask something of you that you are “rusty” on (e.g., the subjunctive and conditional). The one thing they need most is the opportunity to practice their already very good English, to work on what interests them most, and to refine anything among their skills that may show a little weakness.

There are a number of activities that have proven very useful with advanced students, as well as low advanced students. These activities are available in Appendices A through F or on the CD which accompanies this Handbook and may be reprinted, as needed, to use with students.

The following are a sample of activities available on the CD.

**Problem-Solving Activities**
1. “Desert Island”
2. “Lost on the Moon”
3. “Predicament In the Desert”
4. “Five Houses in Mill Lane”
5. “Whom to Invite?”

**Listening Comprehension**
1. “Simon Says”

**Discussion Activities**
1. “Johari Window”

**Interactive Listening-Speaking Activities**
1. “Crossword Puzzles”

**Activities List**, available in Appendices A through F

**Interactive Listening-Speaking Activities**
1. “I Packed My Bag for Grandma’s”
2. “Going Shopping”
3. “Story Telling”

**Problem Solving Activities**
1. “The Punishment Fits”

**Vocabulary Activities**
1. “Password”
Chapter 12

Planning

Time is the element most precious to any teacher but more so to the language teacher -- much time, more than is available to use, is needed to learn another language. AELT teachers do not have the advantage that ESL teachers in the States have; in addition to class time, ESL students have all kinds of events in their lives that can reinforce their learning -- radio, TV, interpersonal communication outside the classroom in English, not to mention their own need and motivation to learn. AELT students are not required to speak English in order to make purchases, ride the subway, etc. They will revert readily to the native language as soon as class is over. They will even use their own language in class when they are supposed to be learning English. Therefore, we must use what little time we have available to us and use it wisely. Careful planning is the answer.

The goal of planning is to enable learning by the way in which we plan and present. We are creating a “learning environment,” a substitute (as much as possible) for the English-speaking environment in the U.S., a situation that allows learners to listen and speak and, therefore, to learn. Through careful planning you will know where you are going and your students will know that you know where you are going and that you are in control. Another result of good planning is that you will go into class prepared and relaxed. Planning means preparation ahead of time with purpose and pace.

What is planning? You may think that this question seems to be easy enough to answer, but the answer isn’t that easy. There is “planning” and there is “planning.” What is the difference? On the one hand, one person has good intentions when he writes down some things to be done in class, but he has no sequence, no purpose (other than being reminded of what he is going to do), and no indication of how he will do it; his “plan” is like a “to do” list. On the other hand, the second teacher has purpose – the purpose being that students have a particular need, the activities within the lesson plan are there to satisfy that need, and there is a plan for continuity with the next lesson. We often take for granted that we have “planned” just because we have jotted down some ideas for class. Some of use even seem to think that we can “ad lib” our way through a lesson; it is deemed sufficient so long as students are having fun and are occupied.

Planning is an organizational concept, giving direction and cohesiveness, the purpose of which is to make sure that there is the best utilization of time and that students will be getting the necessary

Classroom language is controlled by the teacher. The structures are simple, the pace is slow, and the use of vocabulary is controlled.

If your students speak no English and can understand nothing you say at first, be patient. If you start simply and build slowly, little successes will bring a flash of comprehension when understanding does come.
The teacher’s primary concern in preparing the lesson and in carrying out class activities is to maximize the amount of learning that takes place in order to involve all students; the “amount” of learning implies quality and not quantity. Careful planning is essential to successful teaching. The teacher must determine the educational aims of each lesson and then select activities that will contribute to the realization of those aims. These activities will vary from class to class according to the needs and abilities of the students concerned. With some groups it becomes almost a day-by-day process of planning. With other groups planning can be done ahead. Developing lesson plans means that you know what student need to learn to do, what you are teaching, you know how to teach it, and you know what activities your students need.

You are a good teacher if you follow each lesson plan efficiently but are ready to adapt to special circumstances, to tailor all or part of a lesson whenever an unexpected need or opportunity arises. Your lesson plans chart the course for teaching your students to speak a new language. Make your plans carefully and use them efficiently.

Lesson plans should be done in detail, even to the point of writing down exactly what you will say and how you will say it.

There are six guidelines that go into planning a lesson.

1. Know your students and determine their needs.
2. Decide what you’re going to teach. Know your materials.
3. Determine and write your objectives (learner goals) daily.
4. Decide how you are going to teach.
5. Plan ahead.
6. Assess – are students getting it?

1. Any lesson plans are dependent on determining students’ needs from day to day and evaluating at the end of the lesson how well students have progressed. One very important aspect of planning is knowing your students. What level are they? What are their needs? It isn’t safe to assume that your students are beginners just because that is the name of the class! There’s nothing like a surprise! Your beautiful lesson plan is all completed, but you discover, as you work through your lesson plan, that your students have already learned what you are trying to teach. What then?

What then, indeed! You should have found out during the first class what they already know and then plan to teach, using their
strengths and what they yet need to know, want to know, and what interests them. You might find that your students are not beginners or that some of them need to be moved to a higher level. A good way to discover their level, needs, and strengths is to take with you to class a few pictures; ask questions about the pictures, such as What do you see? especially questions that will elicit vocabulary and students’ use of grammar. Even ask students to talk about a picture. You can’t plan unless you know what you are planning for.

2. Decide what you’re going to teach, based on, in your estimation, students’ needs. Make a tentative list of their needs and of their strengths. What can students already do? Their strengths will provide a starting point for focusing on their problem areas. Focus on weaknesses and utilize strengths. Utilizing their strengths means that you will start with the “known” in order to approach the “unknown.” This will give confidence to learners in the beginning and will ultimately provide successes for them.

3. Determine and write your objectives (learner goals) daily. Each lesson plan needs objectives. In fact, create a rough list of objectives for your class for the entire period that you will teach the class.

In formulating objectives, ask yourself what it is that you want students to be able to successfully do by the time the lesson is ended. Many teachers write objectives by indicating what they are going to teach – for example, “I will teach the verb to have,” or “I will teach yes-no questions,” or some teachers will write objectives that say “Students will learn how to . . . ”

What do you want the students to be able to do? They may “learn” it but can they “do” it? If they can’t “do” it they haven’t learned it. Objectives become the guide for teaching. For example, a given lesson plan might include the following objectives:

**First** of all, your objectives state your intention as to lesson content.

**Secondly**, lesson objectives should be stated in terms of student behavior, that is, in terms of what the student will be able to do as a result of instruction. “Behavior” is something that you can “see” or “hear” students doing. The “behavior” is the end result. The behavior written into the objectives below is underlined in each objective. You can hear all these behaviors.

**Thirdly**, objectives direct the activities. They provide a “road map,” a “destination” for the lesson.

Students will
- become acquainted with each other and **call each other by first names**.
- correctly **form statements orally in the present tense using to have** (pronoun + have + direct object) – (I have a book. He has a book).
• correctly form statements orally in the negative in the present tense using *to have* (pronoun + do + negative + have + direct object). *I do not have a book.* *He does not have a book.*

• form “yes-no” questions orally in the present tense using *to be* (be + pronoun/noun + noun). *(Does he have a book? Do I have a book?)*

4. Decide how you are going to teach your objectives. This includes the activities -- drills, games, dialogues, etc. -- you want to use and how you will proceed, in detail, with each activity. This detail is necessary for deciding on the materials, absolutely everything -- e.g., visuals, objects, chalk, books, etc. -- that you will need to facilitate your teaching and students’ learning. This list becomes a check list of what you will need to take to class with you. You don’t want to disrupt class by having to go get something which you have forgotten. Get them ready ahead of time. Write them into your lesson plan. For example, if you are going to teach the concept of *cup*, take a cup or a picture of a cup to class. Don’t leave anything out!

5. Plan ahead

Based on student needs and desires, determine short term lessons (perhaps one day), but also plan, tentatively, ahead, long term, perhaps for several days or a week.

In the AELT program it is important to plan a sufficient number of activities to last two hours, four hours, or even all day. It is common for the beginning teacher to discover that she has run out of material and class is only half over. A good rule of thumb is to practice over-planning -- plan for several days ahead (long term). If you have too much for the time allotted, that’s OK. Remember that we in AELT are not under the constraint of a curriculum that has to be completed within a certain time period, whether or not students have learned it well! It is better to over-plan than to not have enough. Do not think that you have to do it all just because it is in your lesson plan. Do well and thoroughly what you do get done. If you don’t use it all it could provide a start on tomorrow’s lesson, or for the next two to three days, or even a week. You could discover that some of what you had planned isn’t appropriate. It will give you a chance to make some changes.

6. Part of planning is checking students’ progress -- by assessment, to answer the question, *How do I know I have done it correctly? How will I know that I have succeeded?*

Assessment simply means finding out whether students are “getting it.” Assessment is an on-going every minute, every hour, every day activity, asking the questions *Are they getting it? Am I doing the right things? Are students paying attention?* and so on. We want to know that students are learning and are they retaining what they are learning.

There are two ways to answer these questions:
• Students respond orally -- showing by the way they speak that they understand;
• A second way is through a physical response -- what can they do in response to your commands.
Plan the kinds of things that you will do for the purpose of assessing students’ progress. What is it you want to observe for? Then consciously use that plan, following the lesson, in order to plan for the next class, and make notes directly following class or even at breaks. In the traditional classroom, teachers will usually give a written test or a quiz. But AELT assessment is based on planned observations.

Each day’s lesson forms the springboard to the next day’s lesson plan. As you evaluate one lesson, you will see what succeeded, what didn’t go well, where students need more work, what you can change to make lessons better. Develop future lessons based on this evaluation. Also develop lessons on a spiraling basis; this means to dip back into previous lessons, especially where you have observed weaknesses, and review or use previously learned material to learn new material. Build lessons on former lessons. Each day go back over the day(s) before and lead into the new lesson with previous skills taught.

**Activities**

Activities (what you are going to do) will enable you to “get to your destination” – your “destination” being your objectives. Each objective should have activities that carry out the objective. Develop activities directly from the objectives.

For example, if the objective is “Students will distinguish through hearing and demonstrate correctly through action and speaking concepts of time – *o’clock, hour, and minutes* -- and the statement expressing time *It is + (time) + o’clock*, in response to the question _What time is it?_” then the activities could be the following: (The following assumes that students have already learned, and learned well, the numbers 1-60.)

1. Take to class a clock face with moveable hands made from a heavy paper plate. Also, take a set of flash cards with a variety of digital times printed on them as though students were looking at a clock with an LCD readout (e.g., 2:40, 3:15, etc.).
2. Use Repetition Drills, Response/Question and Answer Drills, and Transformation Drills (as follows) for dealing with the concepts of time. Use the visual of the clock face to illustrate time.
3. After drilling, use a transformation drill dealing with time. Showing the clock face, the teacher gives as a cue the question regarding stating time and the student responds with the correct statement.
   - T -- *What time is it?*
   - S -- *It is ten o’clock.*
4. In addition to using Repetition Drills, Response/Question and Answer Drills, and Transformation Drills for dealing with the concepts of time, use a game. Use the flash cards with various times on them. Divide the class into two teams. One team has the cards and asks the other team “*What time is it?*” showing one card at the same time. The second team has the “clock” and must respond with the
correct statement and show the correct time on the clock face. The first team must decide whether the responses are correct. Give points for correct answers.

There are many activities that are useful in teaching English, such as TPR, dialogues, games, drills, dictation, taking walks, role playing, and many more. Some are speech activities, some are listening comprehension activities, and others are combination of listening comprehension and speaking. The following are examples of only a few. Refer to Chapters 7, 8, 9, and 10 for further descriptions and discussion.

**Listening Comprehension Activities**  
**Dictation** is an example of a listening comprehension activity for advanced students. In dictation the teacher reads something which students write down word for word. Dictation skills often reinforce speaking. There is a disadvantage, however -- it must be remembered that you, the teacher, must look over this student work and correct it. That takes time!

**Total Physical Response (TPR)** is an activity that all levels of students can be involved in. This activity can be used for actually teaching vocabulary, phrases, and sentence structure or it can be used to reinforce listening comprehension. There are many forms that this activity can take.

**Speech Activities**  
Among the most common are **drills**. Using drills is a *speech* activity, with no reading and writing involved -- a way of getting students to “talk” and use the language that you are trying to get them to learn. They must speak in order to learn. It allows students to “feel” the language on their tongues and hear themselves saying it. Don’t be afraid to drill too much; drill and drill and drill, over and over, until they can speak something easily and until you are sure they ALL understand. Repetition is the key. Students are not memorizing. Repetition causes brain patterning to form, instilling language patterns into the memory bank. Most beginning teachers of English are self conscious of drilling and think a little goes a long way. Drilling is discussed more extensively in Chapter 8.

**Games** are good, BUT, they should have a purpose (aside from being fun) -- **they should be used only to reinforce what you are teaching and what students are learning or have learned**. It’s great to do “fun stuff,” but games should not have just the purpose for students to have fun, nor should games be used for time filler. Everything you do in the classroom must point right back to your objectives and fulfill one or more of the objectives. The use of games is discussed in Chapter 9.

**Taking walks** is acceptable, but, again, only if a walk is related to objectives and the walk is planned so that nothing is left to chance. We want to give each student an equal opportunity to learn and practice English. What will the student be learning to do while taking a walk? For example, taking a walk could relate to an objective which indicates that the student will learn directional expressions, asking directions, etc., so that the purpose for taking a walk is to make
practical application of what is being learned. For example, walking through a village where streets cross, turn right and left and go straight ahead, etc. could be an activity that would fulfill the objective that calls for students to correctly use directional statements and questions or to practice, through listening comprehension, directional expressions – *Turn right. Turn left. Go straight ahead. Go to the restaurant and turn right*, and so forth.

**Procedures**

Procedures are the details of how you will carry out activities. Procedures are often sub-activities. Write down detailed drills and steps in carrying out the activities. It is through procedures that students receive reinforcement for learning. Refer to the sample lesson plan in Appendix N for examples of how procedures flow from objectives to activities to procedures, etc.

**Your lesson plans are really good if they**

- Are simple enough so that your student gains confidence with each lesson.
- Give more repetition than you may think is necessary, thus making your student comfortable; it is better to over teach than to assume mastery too soon.
- Reflect a feeling for your students’ capabilities, needs, and interests.
- Involve the teaching sequence of diagnosis, teaching, reinforcement, and evaluation.
- Provide good materials for meeting your teaching goals.
- Have continuity with the previous lesson(s).
- Have ample variety to hold your students’ interest.

**The Function of the Interpreter in a Conversational English Class.**

Take it upon yourself to get all meaning across so that the translator is not needed. Ask the translator to sit well behind students and as far away as possible. Plan for getting meaning across without an interpreter. If you do not get meaning across the first time, try something different; you may have to try again and again. But – get the meaning across. Unfortunately, sometimes, if the interpreter translates, the translation may not be correct.

However, the one time that the interpreter is needed is the very first class. Before the first class, explain to the interpreter that he/she will be asked to translate some instructions to the class at the beginning of class and during the first few lessons translate the commands that will be given to students (e.g., *listen, altogether, repeat after me*, etc.). After that he or she shouldn’t translate anything else unless asked to do so. Don’t chase your interpreter out of the classroom, however; she can be of great help in the following ways, among others, and do it
without using the native language:

- By taking an individual student off to the side for some special help.
- By explaining something to the class when a desperate moment occurs when you just can’t seem to get meaning across,
- By assisting you in demonstrating something, for example, a dialogue.
- By giving you feedback in the evaluation process.

Aside from the interpreter, there may be students in class who are translating in order to “help” fellow students understand what you have said. Try to discover this and prevent it, reminding them that English Only is the rule.

Remember -- in teaching an English class the rule is to use translation only in desperation and to a minimum!

Creating a Plan for the First Day of Class

During the first day of class, the interpreter may translate, but only in specific ways, as follows.

At the first class session, no matter the level of your class, learn students’ names/nicknames so that you can call them by name. Ask students to give you a name that they want you to use – perhaps a nickname, or a shorter name. In some cultures students’ names will be extremely difficult to remember and pronounce (for example, in Madagascar one student’s name was Ravalimandranto – he said to call him Ndranto, which we welcomed);. Read their names from their registration card. Follow this up by practicing the dialogue, Hello, my name is Peter. What is your name? In order to help your memory, the following are suggestions: name tags, printed in large black letters, worn by students each day; class cards with students’ pictures and names on them; or, if students are sitting at tables, have students PRINT their names in large letters on 5 x 8 cards, folded long ways in the center, and set them on the table in front of them.

At the beginning of the first lesson on the first day, explain class procedures with translation. This is when you establish an understanding with students and, thus, put them at ease. The following ideas are suggested, although you may have other thoughts.

- We will speak English only in this class. No (Russian, French, etc.) will be allowed in class. (Unfortunately, you will have to remind students often!)
- We will work hard, but we will have fun.
- Do not be afraid to make a mistake. That is the only way I can help you learn the correct way.
- Learn to laugh at yourself, and at me. I will make mistakes also.
- We are here to help you be comfortable in speaking correct English.
- This is the last time that you can use your own language in
During the first two or three days allow students, through translation, to learn the signals that go with classroom gestures. Gestures are a very real part of any language, but they are used here to get special meaning across; translation will finally be dropped to some extent as students are able to understand the English words. This takes place very quickly.

Always give the directions verbally in combination with gestures to make sure that the class understands them. At the first class session, ask the interpreter to translate what you say, along with your using the gestures, so that students will understand. However, after a few days you will want them to understand the English commands, without gestures and without translation, and use English only. The following are suggestions:

1. Gesture to show that you want the class to **listen** and **not speak**. Say *Listen* while cupping your hand to your ear and putting your finger across your lips. If students start to speak, shake your head in the negative and put your finger on your lips to show that you do not want them to speak, saying *Sh-h-h*.

2. Gesture to show you want the class to **repeat after you**. Say *Repeat after me*, while using your hand in a circular fashion to indicate the entire class. Use your hand in a motion from your mouth outward to indicate that you want students to speak.

3. Gesture to show that you want **one person to respond** or **a small group to respond**. If you want an individual student to speak, use the above gesture along with the person’s name.

You will, no doubt, develop your own way of getting meaning across through gestures and you will learn, with time, when gestures are needed. The important thing is that eventually students will understand your verbal directions without either translation or gestures. So this becomes a strategy in listening comprehension.

**In Summary**

There are several things to keep in mind in the planning process. You will be facilitating learning by the way in which you plan and present. Plan in such a way that

1. Each lesson **begins and ends with** a Total Physical Response exercise and pronunciation practice, no matter what level is being planned for.

2. A minimum of new words are included at one session and reviewed at the end of the lesson before adding new ones.

3. Vocabulary and grammar start off easy and gradually become more complex.

4. Each session begins with something students can do well and classroom activities are selected so that learners can feel some
degree of success.
5. Classroom activities take into account the needs, feelings, and concerns of students.
6. Students are helped to strengthen English competencies that they already have.
7. Students are kept talking in spontaneous conversational ways -- and talking a lot -- individually and as a group.
8. Each individual student has the opportunity to speak and his/her progress and understanding are monitored.
9. Student behavior and learning are evaluated and lessons are developed around the results of evaluation.
10. Meaning comes across without the need of an interpreter to translate.
There are two areas for corrective action in a classroom: student behavior in the classroom and student errors in learning. Each is of equal importance to learning.

Managing a classroom is crucial to learning. The teacher’s role is to be in control of the classroom and herself. There are three principles for achieving this.

1. Being in control of your environment means being present and confident in the classroom, having the ability to plan and execute a structured lesson plan, having classroom management skills, being knowledgeable of materials, and having the ability to give directions and be organized.

2. You will be an effective teacher by being enthusiastic, having a contagious positive attitude, motivating students to learn, understanding students’ needs, caring about students.

3. You will be a good role model by exemplifying integrity in relationships with students, fairness, professionalism, punctuality, and follow through.

Correcting Student Behavior

Within these principles is the requirement for maintaining discipline in the classroom. Yes, occasionally there are AELT students (even among the military) who need to be corrected.

A teacher goes into a classroom with automatic authority and credibility, but that authority and credibility must be earned, or they are “out the window.” The teacher must take charge and be in charge!

Students who are bored become unruly -- and that includes adults. Teenagers (and adults) have been known to disrupt a class by making jokes, giggling, as well as exhibiting other behaviors. Occasionally unruly behavior is because of a teacher who isn’t organized and doesn’t know what s/he is doing. Students who do not feel respected or cared for often will become behavior problems. Sometimes students who sense a lack of fair play will become discipline problems. There are many reasons for misbehavior.

So, how does one maintain control of the classroom? How does one establish authority? Check out the following.
1. First, be prepared to teach. Be well organized. Be a role model.
2. Act like you are in charge. Use students’ names. Use eye contact.
3. Stand while you are teaching. This conveys that you are the authority. Never sit while teaching.
4. If you have established rules for the classroom, be sure that you keep those rules and show that you expect students to keep the rules. The “English only” rule is one of those rules about which you will constantly have to remind students.
5. Use the “broken record” strategy – keep repeating your request. Use eye contact and the student’s name when making your request. Speak firmly. If a particular student is causing the problem, give him/her a “high status” job to do. Move problem students – separate them or even put one of them in a different class. Become silent when the class gets noisy; nothing gets students’ attention like silence!
6. Never appear to be frustrated with student misbehavior. That’s the tell-tale sign that the students have won and that you are not in control.
7. If all else fails, report uncontrollable misbehavior to whoever is in charge of the Program. Sometimes students need to be moved to another class.

**Correcting English Mistakes**

There are two areas of “correctness” which seem to concern most teachers of English language skills -- grammar and pronunciation. Many teachers are “inoculated” with this desire for “correctness.”

But, what is “correct” English? Most people believe that there is a very definite set of English rules which, when followed, will produce correct English. In reality, this is not true. A better question to ask is, “What is appropriate English?” The answer to that question depends on many things.

1. **The Relationship of The Speakers**  
   Good friends speak to each other differently than an employer speaks to employees (or vice versa). Young people speak differently to their teachers than they do to their friends and/or their parents (or the reverse).

2. **The Situation in Which the Communication Takes Place**  
   People have to provide different kinds of information when talking over the telephone than when talking face-to-face, because facial gestures, hand movements, and body language (called *paralingual communication*) add meaning to their words.
3. The Topic of the Communication

We may speak differently in telling a joke than when discussing a math principle.

The average native speaker of English goes back and forth all the time without realizing it, teachers also. And yet we as teachers hold up this “correctness” to our students. They, too, should be allowed the knowledge of what is “appropriate.” There are other areas of correctness which are important and will be discussed later.

Many Americans believe that the dictionary is the source of “correct” English. Many decades ago that was the case. However, dictionaries that have been published within the last fifty years or so simply reflect usage – what Americans are actually “saying.” This is also true of word meaning and pronunciation. Dictionary publishers go around the U.S. asking people how they say something or how they use a word. This then is incorporated into a dictionary and reflects usage but is not prescriptive, implying what is “acceptable usage.”

Students’ native language influences learning English in many ways. There are students who will learn English with no problem other than a bit of an accent. But, then, there are students who will experience pronunciation problems, use the wrong words and mix English grammar with the grammar of their own language. You will become aware of these problems as you observe your students working at learning English. These kinds of problems are especially noticeable among students who have learned English from other speakers of English, many of whom are non-native speakers themselves, make many errors, have heavy accents, and speak English with many mistakes but nevertheless are able to communicate. Sometimes these problems are due to their teachers who speak English with a heavy accent, make grammatical mistakes, use vocabulary inappropriately; teachers pass on these areas of incorrectness to their students.

It is important to understand the kinds of problems students could have and the fact that they are related to their own native language and to their experiences with English. They are not insurmountable problems, but these problems need to be addressed.

Is It a Mistake -- British versus American English?

As we teach speakers of other languages to speak English, we may note what seems to be errors in their pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary usage. This may be because of the kind of English they are learning in school. Most of the teachers of English in other countries are teaching British English which has different vowel sounds, different stress on syllables, and sometimes different vocabulary. If you detect this, avoid pointing out to students that they are making a mistake. Simply explain that there is a difference in some areas of British English and American English and that you will be teaching American English. Do not belabor the situation, especially the mispronunciation; simply move on.
How About Dialect?

Lest we claim to speak correct English, and if we are basing our criterion of “correction” on our own speech, we must remember that we all speak a dialect – one which sometimes is more obvious than in other cases (a dialect is language usage that is common to a region of the country). And in some cases, some of us have an idiolect (a way of speaking that is unique to a given person or family). We all think we are speaking correctly. Listen to your own speech and be aware of how you sound; compare what you say with the way another native speaker of English says the same thing. Correcting pronunciation problems is discussed in Chapter 3.

Correct Gently and Needfully

English language teachers need to celebrate the beginning learners’ successes and not hammer away at their errors. Students will make errors! Expect errors as a part of the learning process! A student who makes an error is exploring language and will learn faster than the silent participant in the corner who is trying to memorize something. The best correction available to students will be the teacher’s good model of English!

Be patient and understand that a beginning learner moves from zero proficiency to near-native fluency in stages clearly marked by a gradual progression from imprecise and error laden to accurate levels of English. Allow learners to move through each of these stages.

Encourage learners to try to communicate in English at every stage, no matter how imprecisely. The very act of communicating is an essential part of the learning process and prepares learners to advance to the next stage.

When correcting students’ errors, do so gently. Learners are more successful at acquiring language when their anxiety level is low. People seem to be able to learn best when they are relaxed, they know it’s OK to make mistakes, and they are reassured that, overall, they are doing well.

When correcting student behavior speak in a joking manner and maintain eye contact with the student. Teach students to laugh at themselves. Let students laugh at you by making mistakes on purpose.

Do not single out students who make mistakes. In correcting one student’s problem, incorporate the entire class into the teaching; there may be others whom you don’t know about who need the experience, and also you don’t want to single out individual students too much.

Recognize that comprehension always precedes production. Beginning language learners should be able to understand much more of the new language than they are able to speak. They build from there. This is as true for adults learning a second language as it is for children learning their first language. Don’t think that simply because learners make a lot of errors when speaking that they won’t be able to understand you.
Resist the temptation to constantly correct learners when they make mistakes. Keep in mind the following points about error correction.

1. Correcting errors helps learners discover the functions and limitations of the grammar and vocabulary of the language they are learning.
2. Tolerating errors helps build students’ confidence and fluency.

**When Should Errors Be Corrected?**

Errors should be corrected when you are focusing on form, when you are trying to teach a specific way of saying something. Errors related to the point you are teaching should always be corrected. For example, if you are teaching learners to make a request by using the new phrase *I would like . . .*, you will want to make sure they are able to say the phrase and use it correctly.

If you are doing a grammar lesson on the past tense, you want to make sure you correct students if they are using the present tense rather than the past tense; or, if you are practicing the /th/ sound, make sure you correct students’ pronunciation of that sound.

Errors of intonation and stress should be corrected because they express meaning, and especially if the error communicates something quite different.

**When Should Errors Not Be Corrected?**

Do not correct errors when you are focusing on communicative practice (such as role playing, games, dialogues). These activities are designed to encourage the learner to concentrate on communicating for meaning. Let learners use whatever English they have at their disposal to get their ideas across. However, make a note for teaching these problem areas at a later date.

**Which Errors To Correct**

A. Errors that impede intelligibility
   - Word order
   - Word choice
   - Misuse of pronouns/prepositions
     
     *John is very nice. She always helps me.*

B. Errors that stigmatize or mark the speaker as uneducated
   - *I feel myself happy today.*

C. High frequency errors
   - Especially errors relevant to the teaching point or previous teaching points.

D. Errors involving rules rather than exceptions.

**Error Correction Techniques**

A. Teacher indicates error and corrects it.
1. Teacher gives correct response, student repeats (or class repeats)
   S:  We going to the play tonight.
   T:  We’re going to the play tonight.
   S:  We’re going to the play tonight.

B. Teacher indicates error, student corrects it.

2. Teacher repeats cue, often with emphasis on a key word or words.
   S.  Yes, I ride the bus to school yesterday.
   T.  Did you ride the bus to school yesterday?
   S.  Yes, I rode the bus to school yesterday.

3. Teacher repeats part of cue designed to trigger correct response.
   T:  When did you eat at Wendy’s?
   S:  I ate at Wendy’s.
   T:  When did you . . . ?
   S:  I ate at Wendy’s on Saturday.

4. Teacher repeats student response up to the point where the error was made.
   S:  Sue is more taller than the teacher.
   T:  Sue is . . .
   S:  Sue is taller than the teacher.

5. Teacher repeats student’s response with silence or filler sound where error was made.
   S:  I could have gone to the lecture.
   T:  I mmmmmmm have gone to the lecture.
   S:  I should have gone to the lecture.

6. Teacher repeats only the error.
   S:  I walk post office.
   T:  . . . to . . .
   S:  I walk to the post office.

7. Teacher indicates verbally the nature of the error and gives instructions on how to correct.
   S:  Study English is difficult.
   T:  You need –ing.
   S:  Studying English is difficult.

C. Teacher indicates that there was an error, student locates and corrects it.

8. Teacher repeats incorrect response with question intonation.
   S:  I can to walk to the post office
   T:  . . . to walk . . . ?
   S:  I can walk to the post office.

9. Teacher indicates non-verbally the nature of the error using gestures to indicate particular meanings.
   a. Pointing thumb over shoulder – past tense form
   b. Pointing forefinger forward – future form
   c. Holding up one finger – singular
d. Holding up two fingers – plural

10. Teacher uses conventional verbal signal to indicate error, such as,
   
   Huh? huh-uh, what?

11. Teacher uses facial gestures to indicate error, such as
   
   Questioning look
   Wrinkled nose
   Shake head in the negative, etc.

12. Teacher asks for repetition of answer.
   
   S: I went to downtown.
   T: Again?
   S: I went downtown.

D. Peer correction

13. Teacher elicits correct response from another student; first student repeats.
   
   S: We going to the play tonight.
   T: Hamed?
   Hamed: We’re going to the play tonight.
ADDITIONAL RESOURCES


Feare, Ronald E. *Practice with Idioms.* Oxford University Press. 1980. (This is an excellent resource for information on and activities for learning idioms.)

Fogiel, Dr. M. (Director of the Staff of Research and Education Association). *REA’s Handbook of English Grammar, Style, and Writing.* Research and Education Association. 2003.

Hassan, Hania. *Ya Gotta Know It!* Optima Books. 2000. (This book is an excellent approach to working on idioms and has some excellent crossword puzzles in it that focus on idioms.)


Spears, Richard A. *Essential American Idioms.* National Textbook Company. 1990. (This is an excellent dictionary of idioms.)


Teophil, Vera. *Idiomatic English.* Revised Edition. Center Educatif et Culturel inc. 1983. (This book contains excellent cartoons that can be copied for illustrations of specific idioms.)

Terban, Marvin. *Dictionary of Idioms, Phrases, Sayings, and Expressions.* Scholastic Reference. 1996. (This is a dictionary of idioms that explains the origins of idioms as well as a simple meaning for each.)
ACTIVITIES FOR DEVELOPING LISTENING COMPREHENSION SKILLS

1. Using colored papers (or other items), do the following. These commands can be quite complicated.

Say to students,

a. *Pick up three green papers and put down two red papers.*
b. *Put two blue papers in the box, giving me four red papers, keeping one red paper yourself.*
c. *Hold all the red papers in your left hand, but pick up two yellow papers with your right hand, giving them to me.*
d. *Put the largest black paper between the smallest red and green papers.*
e. *Put the smallest green paper in the blue book across the room, between pages 311 and 312.*
f. *Take the smaller of the two red papers on your left, and put it on top of the larger green paper on your right.*

With a little imagination, you can create more commands that require careful listening.

2. “Beanbag Toss.” This activity is good for listening comprehension as well as understanding prepositions, directions, and the question word *where.* In addition, the following vocabulary can be used in this activity: *in front (of), behind, between, beside, next to, under, on top (of), over.* Pick the beanbag up and say *beanbag.* Then say *I pick up the beanbag.* Then put it down and say *I put the beanbag on the table.* Toss the beanbag in the air; stack several beanbags and indicate which one is on the top and which one is on the bottom. Stack the beanbags and indicate one that is above and one that is below. Give a direction for placing the beanbag, e.g., *Put the beanbag between your feet.* Then give two directions, e.g., *Put the beanbag between your feet and on top of your head.* Keep adding directions until a fun chaos ensues.

Variation: When students understand all the vocabulary through listening, oral practice can be incorporated into the activity. If your lesson is built around prepositions as well as the question word “where,” then do the following. Tell the student *Place the beanbag in front of your feet.* Then ask, *Where is the beanbag?* Or, tell the student, *Place the beanbag in front of Bill’s feet.* Then tell the same student to ask Bill, *Where is the beanbag?*

3. TPR using a foam ball. Throw the ball to someone, saying *Tom, catch the ball.* Then *Tom, throw the ball to me.* Do again. Then *Maria, catch the ball.* Then say, *Who has the ball?* Then say, *Maria has the ball.* Repeat several times. Then throw the ball to someone, *Sancho, catch the ball.* Then *Sancho, throw the ball to Tom.*
Variation: This can be turned into an oral exercise by encouraging learners to say to someone, *Tom, catch the ball.* Then ask, *Who has the ball?* Students must respond with ____ has the ball. (A good way to teach *have/has.*) Repeat the listening exercise over and over. NOTE: Giving learners items to hold in their hands helps them relate the new word to the object. If pictures are being used, hand the picture to the student.

4. Record weather forecasts, news reports, etc. Have students listen to them and answer questions about what they hear.

5. Have students draw a simple picture by following directions. For example:

   a. *Draw a lake.*
   b. *Draw two trees next to the lake.*
   c. *Draw a rock between the trees.*
   d. *Draw a fish in the lake*
   e. *Draw the sun over the lake.*
   f. *Draw two birds near the trees.*
   g. *Draw grass around the lake.*
   h. *Draw a frog on the rock.*

   Key words: next to, in, between, over, around, near, on, draw.

6. Have students make an object (e.g., a paper hat) out of paper by listening to directions. Do not tell students what they will be making since some of them perhaps will already know how to make a hat out of paper.

   a. *Fold the paper in half with the folded edge up.*
   b. *Fold the paper from left to right.*
   c. *Unfold the paper, leaving a line down the center.*
   d. *Bring the top right corner to the center line.*
   e. *Bring the top corner to the center line.*
   f. *Fold the bottom rectangular piece up.*
   g. *Turn the object over.*
   h. *Fold the other bottom piece up.*

   Key words: in half, folded, unfolded, center fold, bottom, bring, rectangular, etc.

7. Number Puzzle

   a. Think of a number.
   b. Add 3 to this number.
   c. Multiply your answer by 2.
   d. Subtract 4 from your answer.
   e. Divide your answer by 2.
   f. Subtract the number with which you started.

   The answer will always be “1.”

   Key words: think of, add, multiply, subtract, divide
8. A trick with numbers

   a. First, write down your house or apartment number.
   b. Next, double it. In other words, multiply the house number by two.
   c. Then, add five to the doubled number.
   d. Fourth, multiply this number by 50.
   e. The fifth step is to add your age to this total.
   f. Sixth, you have to add the number of days in a year (365).
   g. The seventh and final step is to subtract 615 from the number that you have.

Result: The first part of the number is the address and the last part of the number is the age of
the person.

Key words: first, next, then, fourth, fifth, step, sixth, seventh, final step, double, multiply, add,
multiply by, total, have to, number

9. Another trick with Numbers

   a. First write down the magic number – 12345679. Notice that the magic number is a
list of numbers one through nine with number eight missing.
   b. Next, pick a number from one to nine. The student can choose any number between
one and nine.
   c. Next, multiply the number by nine.
   d. Finally, multiply by the magic number (12345679). For example, if the number 7
was chosen, the result of multiplying the number 7 by the magic number will be a
number that consists of a series of sevens.

10. The standard bingo game is a stimulating way for students to improve their comprehension
of numbers from 1 to 75 and the letters B-I-N-G-O as well as practice in saying the numbers.

11. Use pictures of two objects. Say the word for one picture (or object) and have students point
to the correct picture. Increase to several pictures with one word or combine objects (e.g., book and
pencil).

12. Finding Their Way Home Through a Maze. Provide students with an 8 1/2” x 11” copy of a
maze. They are to find their way home by following oral directions. For example, the first direction
might be Turn right at the first stop light, and so on. The activity can be made more fun and more
complex by giving false instructions but eventually leading students to the end of the puzzle. This tactic
makes necessary such vocabulary as turn around, go straight ahead, etc. Simple mazes may be found in
children’s puzzle books found in discount stores.

13. “Simon Says:” The leader gives a command prefacing it with the words, Simon Says . . .
E.g., Simon Says touch your nose. If the leader does not say, Simon Says . . ., the direction is not to be
followed. The focus of the game is to give students listening practice without having to speak.

   Variation: Alter the game by focusing on “left” and “right” or other directions. Alternate
directions using left and right or other directional words. Many prepositions can be included: Simon Says
put the paper under the book.

14. Taking Directions: Ask students to draw what is described to them. This is particularly help-
ful when practicing the use of prepositions.
Draw a tree on the left side of your paper.
Draw another tree on the right side.
Draw a straight line from the branches of one tree to the branches of the other tree.
Draw a man on the line.
Draw an umbrella in the man’s hand.
Under the trees, draw some flowers. Over one tree, draw the sun.
Activities for Developing Vocabulary Skills

1. For practicing vocabulary of any kind, use a pair of dice, having each student roll the dice. Then give him/her a picture of something practiced in class to identify. If the response is correct that person gets the number of points on the dice. This can be a team activity as well.

2. Ask students to give the female or male counterpart for the following words,

- boy-girl
- man-woman
- groom-bride
- grandmother-grandfather
- niece-nephew
- aunt-uncle
- father-mother
- brother-sister
- son-daughter

Or ask for the plural,

- boy-boys
- woman-women
- girl-girls
- man-men

Or use the same idea with opposites,

- tall-short
- old-young
- slow-fast
- big-small
- top-bottom
- fat-thin

Don’t be surprised if the lesson doesn’t go as planned. Second hand could be contributed as the opposite of new!

Do not include too many new words at one session, and review those learned at the last lesson before adding new ones.

3. An activity that reinforces listening comprehension as well as enlarging vocabulary can be built around a specific area for vocabulary building -- for example, items in a kitchen, plants in a garden, or parts of a car. The possibilities are endless.

For example, make stick drawings (or cut out pictures) of a table, a refrigerator, and a stove on small cards (or use any objects that fit together). Block off a large sheet of paper into blocks the same size as the pictures.

Ask students to put the refrigerator in the upper left-hand square of the paper, the stove in the lower right-hand square, the table in front of the stove, etc. Make sure students know the meaning of directional words such as upper, left-hand, and words such as square.
As a variant on the refrigerator/location game, one person (teacher or student) has the pictures in place, but the other has only the pictures and they are not in place. Directions and questions must be used to locate equal pictures arrangement.

4. A most useful activity for conversational English students is identifying the kinds of things one can buy at certain types of stores:

   What do you buy at a shoe store?
   . . . bakery?
   . . . post office?
   . . . jewelry store?

5. Students usually learn to identify colors very quickly. After students are familiar with the English words for colors, use them in real situations and with visual aids:

   The traffic lights have _____, _____, and _____ lights.
   (using colored pictures of different phases of a traffic light)

   A blinking _____ light means proceed with caution or go slowly.
   (using colored pictures of different phases of a traffic light)

   Nurses wear _____ uniforms.
   (using a colored picture of a nurse in uniform)

   The colors of the flag of the United States are _____, _____, and _____.
   (using a colored picture or the American flag)

   The statements above can be turned into questions that elicit the color words (using visuals as described above).

   What colors do traffic lights have?
   What color are nurses’ uniforms?
   What are the colors of the United States flag?
   What are the colors of the flag of your country?
   What color is a blinking light that means proceed with caution?

6. **Password.** Form students into two teams. Give one person a password (a noun). That person must give adjectives describing the noun. The first team to guess the “password” gets a point. The team with the most points at the end of the game wins.

7. **Ten Little Letters Standing in a Row.** This is an activity in vocabulary; students are to make up a five-line poem. Students choose five letters, for example: a k s c r. Then choose five more, for example: t b m o l.

   Using the first five letters (a k s c r) as the initial letters of words in lines 1, 3, and 5 and using the second series of five letters (t b m o l) as the initial letters of words in lines 2 and 5, they will create a five-line poem. Words must follow the order in which the letters were originally chosen, but other words may be added to each line. (Note: x, z, and q are difficult words to work with.)

   The following is an example of a poem using the above letters.

   1. After killing a snake my brother cried and ran.
   2. He took with him the bottle of milk and old limburger
3. He almost kicked the snake when we sadly remembered the cuts as he ran.
4. His tall brother made other links.
5. After killing the snake they were called rogues!

8. I’m a banana. What are you? This activity combines speaking, listening, and reading and can be used for the following purposes:

- As a fun way to reinforce the correct English to use in approaching people, asking them questions, and exchanging information,
- As a review of recently taught vocabulary,
- As a “stand up and reenergize” activity,
- As a technique to divide a large group of learners into smaller groups.

First -- Decide how many categories of objects you want and what the categories will be. Examples: fruits, cooking utensils, vegetables, clothing. Any categories will do. If you are using the activity as a fun way to divide students into a specific number of small groups, use that number of categories.

Second -- Make a list of items for each category. The total number of items needs to equal the number of learners in the group. Each category should have approximately the same number of items.

Fruits: banana, apple, pear, orange
Cooking utensils: frying pan, spatula, egg beater, measuring cup
Vegetables: carrot, cabbage, onion, potato
Clothing: shoe, jacket, shirt, hat

Third -- Give each student an index card on which you have written the name of one of these items. DO NOT write the category names on these cards.

Fourth -- Ask the students to get up and walk around the room asking other students I’m a (item). What are you? Their objective is to find all the other students who belong in the same category as they do.

Fifth -- When students have found the others in their category, ask them to sit together and write a list of all the items they can think of in that category. Give them three or four minutes for this part of the activity.

Sixth -- When the time is up, ask a member of each group to tell what category the group members belong to and to read aloud the items they wrote on their list.

9. Idioms: Advanced students enjoy learning idioms. Much time can be spent in any one lesson on idioms, therefore limit a lesson to only four or five. Teach idioms by first explaining the meaning of each idiom and then give a synonymous meaning.

For example:

Idiom: He’s got egg on his face!
Synonymous meaning: He’s embarrassed because he did something wrong.

Then work with the class in a drill fashion. Have them do a repetition drill, first repeating the synonymous meaning, then the idiom, then again the synonymous meaning. As follows:
Then drill students on giving either the idiom or the meaning after a cue of one or the other. Idioms can be put on cards and students must give the meaning or synonymous meaning. Idioms can be used in stories that students create.

There are many, many idioms in American English. A dictionary of idioms with explanations is a good resource to have. Refer to the Chapter 4 on “Vocabulary” for further explanation and details regarding idioms. There is a long list of idioms, by subject category, in Appendix H.

10. **More Idioms**: Put idioms on slips of paper and distribute them among students. Begin an interesting story and let students continue adding to the story line-by-line or paragraph-by-paragraph. Each idiom should be used at least once.

11. **An exercise with phrasal verbs**: Phrasal verbs are considered idioms, also. Many English two-word verbs are confusing to students trying to learn English, including very advanced students. Practice with them as with idioms. Warning: There are many phrasal verbs that do not have synonymous meanings. Refer to Chapter 4 for information regarding phrasal verbs.

This exercise illustrates how many American English two-part verbs are combined with the verb particle *up*. All but a few of the expressions with *up* are two-part verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>brighten up</th>
<th>look up</th>
<th>stir up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bring up</td>
<td>mixed up</td>
<td>straight-up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fed up</td>
<td>play catch-up with</td>
<td>time is up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give up</td>
<td>shut up</td>
<td>used up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hold up</td>
<td>speak up</td>
<td>wake up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hurry up</td>
<td>stand up</td>
<td>wind up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lock up</td>
<td>start up</td>
<td>work up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Read the following paragraph to students and ask them to note the strange expressions they hear. Then take each sentence and have students explain the meaning of each expression containing a two-part verb. Ask students who is talking in this paragraph.

Frankly, I’m fed up with up. From the moment I wake up in the morning, it seems I’m playing catch-up with up until I think I’ll wind up locked up in a mental ward. At straight-up seven o’clock, I lock up the house, start up the car, and hurry up to get to the office. At work I’m either looking up some facts, speaking up at a meeting, or standing up for what I believe in. I know it’s up to me to hold up the truth. When my allotted time is up and I’ve finally used up every opportunity to stir up enthusiasm for my upstanding position, I give up and hope those others aren’t mixed up about the points I’ve brought up for discussion. Then I lock up the office and head home to brighten up my family’s evening by stirring up something for dinner, knowing they’ve worked up an appetite. My husband says I’m too worked up about up. He’d really like me to shut up and stop being so up-
set. I’m trying, but every time I give up, up pops up again! Up is really starting to get me down.!

There are many more phrasal verbs than in this list. See Appendices F for more. Create your own paragraph for further activities.

12. **Meaning Changed by Intonation.** By the use of intonation, each of the following sentences can be changed, for example, to a question, to an exclamation, etc. Put these sentences, and others, on cards, one to a card.

   - She’s not at home.
   - Roll down your window or I’ll scream.
   - Your pants are ripped.
   - Catch me if you can.

Have students experiment with different intonation patterns to convey as many meanings for each of these statements as possible and explain the meanings and why it means that.

Example: angry, sad, uncertain, apologetic, teasing, threatening, questioning, surprise.

13. **Dealing with Feelings:** Divide students into two teams and give them five minutes to list as many words as they can think of to describe “feelings.” Review the lists as a large group and ask for definitions of unusual words.

   For example: happy
   sad
   tender
   nervous,
   irritate,
   crank,
ACTIVITIES FOR DEVELOPING GRAMMAR SKILLS

Areas of grammar that might need some help, are
a. The perfect tenses: present perfect, past perfect, future perfect.
b. The subjunctive mood in the simple present tense, past tense, the present perfect, and past perfect tense.
c. Combining of sentences into one sentence.
d. The modal, have to (meaning must) -- e.g., I have to go -- it’s late.
e. The expression used to, meaning “something I did previously on a regular basis” -- e.g., I used to jog, but now I’m too old.
f. Changing from the active voice to the passive voice.
g. The comparative and the superlative formations, especially the use of more, most, less, and least.
h. The use of a/an before nouns.

Drills that will be helpful with the Advanced Level students:
a. Moving slot substitution,
b. Correlative substitution, both simple and complex,
c. Transformation -- changing from the simple tense to the perfect tense,
d. Restatement drills with grammatical changes,
e. Sequential statement drills.

1. Aren’t You? This is an exercise with negative questions and will serve as an exercise in listening comprehension as well. The instructions should be given orally.

Divide the class into pairs.
Situation: You can be any person, place, or thing. You and your partner tell each other what you are. You will have a conversation, and the rest of the class must try to guess who or what you are. The conversation must be in this form:

- Didn’t you fight in the Civil War?
- No, I didn’t. I fought in the Revolutionary War.
- Aren’t you on the ceiling?
- No, I’m not. I’m on the wall.
- Weren’t you the first American President?
- Yes, I was. Don’t you sharpen pencils?
- Yes, I do . . .

The class must guess in this form:

- Aren’t you George Washington?
- Aren’t you a pencil sharpener?
2. **Travel:** Using road maps and pictures of highways, service stations, road signs, etc., lead students in an exercise, first to get them acquainted with American culture of travel and secondly, to practice certain expressions: e.g., *farther than, less than, more than, closer than, straight ahead,* -- and the vocabulary related to travel, *road, bypass, interstate, highway, truck route,* etc.

3. **Exercise With the Indefinite Article, *a/an:*** Put together a list of sentences containing *a/an + Nouns,* correctly used. Isolate each *a/an + Noun* pair and keeping *a + Noun* constant, as a repetition drill have students repeat each pair. Do the same with *an + Noun.* Next mix up the list so that there is no regularity as to whether the *a/an + Noun* is consistent. Then as a substitution drill, offer the noun as the cue and have students repeat the noun but adding to it the correct indefinite article, or rather than saying the noun, show a picture.

   Using the list of sentences put together previously, read each one to students having them repeat each sentence. Then read to students sentences with incorrect usage. Ask them to identify the incorrect sentences and correct them.

4. **Right or Wrong?** Prepare a list of sentences that contain incorrect usage in them. Read each sentence, one by one, to the class and have students indicate what is wrong with the sentence. The incorrect part could be verb agreement, the incorrect word used, a grammatical error, etc.
ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING CONVERSATIONAL PHRASES

The major units of meaning in English are in phrases and sentences, not single words. Therefore, use phrases and sentences as the basis for instruction.

1. Games for telling time

When teaching *What time is it?* and *It’s ten o’clock* as well as telling time from the clock, after the class has learned the concepts, this activity will reinforce them. Create a clock face with a paper plate and with movable hands. Put on 3 x 5 cards various times (e.g., 3:05, 2:57, etc.).

- Divide the class into two teams. One team has the clock, the other team has the cards.
- The team with the cards asks, *What time is it?* and holds up a card.
- The second team must correctly answer *It’s _____ o’clock* and then locate that time on the clock.
- (After several minutes reverse the teams.)
- The team asking the questions must determine whether the other team has answered correctly.

If the second team HAS answered correctly but the first team doesn’t recognize it as a correct answer, then the team asking the question loses a point. One point is given for each correct answer. The team with the most points wins.

2. As students progress, make a list of everyday, practical questions and answers that might be needed. Making such a list is practical; it stresses structure as well as introduces needed vocabulary:

   *What time is it?*
   *Where is the bus stop?*
   *Where is the shopping center?*
   *Why are you late?*

3. If, in responding, your student uses the wrong word order, adds a word in his/her native language, or leaves a word out, what can you do? If your student says, *He going to school* (when it is really “work” he is going to), don’t be bothered by any pronunciation problems if there are any. It is important that part of the verb *(is)*, an essential part of the sentence, was omitted, and the wrong word was used for the destination. *Do correct both the verb mistake and the vocabulary mistake.*

4. Use the contraction as a basis for a short drill, first teaching the uncontracted expressions.

   *He’s going to school.*
I'm going to school.
She's going to school.
They're going to school.

5. Using pictures as a guide, you can substitute other words and create other structures.

   T: Where is she going tomorrow?
   S: She's going to the library.
   T: Where is he going tonight?
   S: He's going to the movies.

6. As you teach conversational English, you are working for sentence structure and word order familiar to the ear, not grammatical rules stored in the brain. Stress those concepts which follow regular patterns even as you introduce new vocabulary:

   tall   taller   tallest
   big    bigger   biggest

   cold    colder    below zero
   bad     worse     rotten

   Maybe students will come up with logical answers that will make you chuckle.

   This indicates how much English students may have picked up already. Help them to use the English their ears are familiar with.

7. Often a student will have heard an English expression but will not know the component ends or structure. Teach common English expressions by first teaching the correct usage. For example:

   What are you doing?
   Whatcha doin? OR Whaterya doin?

   I want to go.
   I wanta go.

   Why did you go?
   Why didja go?

   These expressions may take patience on your part to help the student figure out the meaning; but keep at it. Help your students to understand what the words are.
INTERACTIVE LISTENING-SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

1. Have students listen and respond in an informal way as factual questions are asked and solicit information-stimulated discussions.

2. A good strategy for advanced students is dictation (good for students but not for the teacher) -- the teacher has to check the papers!

3. Bring several pictures to class. For a picture of a group of girls, for example, say --

    *Describe the girl in the upper right corner.*

    or

    *Tell me how you feel about this picture.*

Such spontaneous expression provides an opportunity to see if there are words that students do not know, as well as providing an opportunity to check for correctness of vocabulary or grammar, and if not correct, model the sentences correctly.

4. Questions are helpful tools to use to solicit information about students and to get them to talk. But just as important, students must learn how to ask questions to get information.

   This method is good to prod advanced students to ask questions. Bring an object to class on which to focus attention. It could be something as ordinary as a transistor radio, a tennis ball, a handful of pennies, a bag of nails, etc. To open the conversation, say:

   *This is a transistor radio. We take it with us when we go to the beach (or on a picnic).*

Solicit information from questions: *Why do you think I brought this radio with me today?*

If students do not respond, encourage further conversation by answering the question:

   *I brought it to talk about -- to have you ask questions about it.*

If students cannot answer the questions, give the answers.

A good portion of the lesson could be directed around the radio (or whatever), including new vocabulary words. Other objects might be a spark plug, a banana, a potted plant, a special food, etc.

If the object is a tennis ball, words could be *tennis, court, sneakers, scoring, racket, net*; continue on to a discussion of the sports in students’ home country. A continuation of this lesson (if students are interested) could include other related topics -- sports for health, famous tennis players, how sporting equipment is made, where tennis is played.
5. A tape recording that has a lot of background noise with an ongoing conversation or one person speaking is good in helping students listen closely and sort out what is being said.

6. An Exercise in Memory. Using a merchandise catalog or a supermarket circular, students will make choices by means of a chain drill which actually seems to be more like a game. There should be sufficient circulars for each student to have one. In preparation for this activity, before class peruse the circular to make sure that there is an item for every letter in the alphabet; note the letters where items are missing. Students will do the following:

First of all, each student should be given time to look over the circular carefully in order to be aware of what is there. Secondly, allow students to ask questions about unfamiliar items.

- The first student: At the supermarket I bought apples.
- The second student: At the supermarket I bought apples and bananas.
- Subsequent students in turn follow with a similar response, each time having to remember and repeat all the items purchased previously and adding his/her own item. Items purchased must be in alphabetical order; continue until the entire alphabet is covered. By the time the exercise is finished, it gets to be a lot of fun -- and frustrating, especially if the class has more than a few students.

7. I Packed My Bag for Grandma’s. The first person says, I’m going on a trip and I’m taking _____ (a suitcase, umbrella, book, etc.). The second person says, I’m going on a trip and I’m taking _____ and ____ (repeating the first person’s word and then adding his own). Each person says all the items previously stated, then adds an additional item. The items added each time can be in alphabetical order or in any order. The game can be modified by changing the lead-in: e.g., Happiness is _____. If I had a million dollars, I would _____. I went to New York, and I saw _____.

Variation: Change the tense.

8. In Court. Designate two students as the attorneys. The teacher is the judge.

Situation:
C. W. Worthington invited several people to his mansion last month. On Friday night, there was a dinner and dance. The dinner began at 6:00 p.m., and the dancing lasted from 9 to midnight. C.W. was at the dinner and danced the first dance with his wife. The next morning, his servant found him in the study -- dead from a head wound. C.W.’s brother, John Worthington, was arrested for murder.

You are in court to testify about the events of Friday night.

9. Comprehension exercise: Bring to class either a photograph of your family showing all the members of the family (children, spouse, grandchildren, in-laws, etc.) and prepare a paragraph entailing information about the family. Read it to the class and ask students comprehension questions.

10. Gossip. This game is based on the party-line system which we used to have in America, and is often called “Party Line.” The teacher whispers something to the first student who then whispers the message to his neighbor who whispers it to the next person and so on until the entire class has heard the message. The last person to get the message will audibly relate the message that he/she has heard. Seldom is the message the same as in the beginning.
ACTIVITIES FOR DEVELOPING CONVERSATIONAL SKILLS

1. The following is a communication game that two people can play. A communication activity/game is one in which some people know something that the others don’t know. They must communicate in order to solve a problem or complete a puzzle.

   Player A and Player B sit back to back. Plastic figures or objects or pictures are in front of the players. Player A describes one of the objects or one of the pictures. Player B tries to identify the article or picture described. The only restrictions are that both players describing and identifying the object must use English.

2. Adapt some of the old stand-by games that involve oral communication -- “Hangman,” “20 Questions,” charade games, matching type games, Bingo, tic-tac-toe games.

3. **Uncle Louie’s Map.** Divide the class into teams. Using a map of the U.S., first familiarize students with the names of the states and any cities that are on the map. Teach vocabulary words -- north, northeast, northwest, south, southeast, southwest, east, west -- with the map orientation. Start the game by saying, *Uncle Louie lives in Kansas. He wants to visit Cousin Homer in Michigan. In what direction will he have to travel?* You may want to say, *Uncle Louie wants to visit the Capitol of the United States. Where is it?* Then say: *In which direction will he travel?* A point is scored for each correct answer. This activity provides an opportunity for the students to become acquainted with the geography of the U.S.

   **Variations**
   - Each team makes up a place for Uncle Louie to visit. The other team must tell the direction he must travel. This game can be played, also, with state maps or city maps.
   - Change the tense of the entire activity.

4. **Liars.** Explain the word if necessary.

   Tell students four things that you have done in your life, one of which is a lie. Students must ask you questions to help them identify the lie. Give them a few minutes to ask their questions. Then ask them to guess which statement is a lie. If they don’t guess correctly, tell them the answer.

   Give each student a chance to be the “liar.” Form groups of 3 students. Ask each group to pick the first speaker. Give each group three minutes to listen to the speaker’s statement and ask questions. Signal them when three minutes are up. Ask each group to guess which statement is the lie. Repeat for each member of the group. At the end of this part of the activity ask each group to choose the person that they think did the best job of fooling the other members of the group. Then have these people try to fool the rest of the class. Once again, invite the other learners to ask questions of the “liar.”
5. **A Creative Exercise:** Pair students up and have them invent a catchy name and slogan or jingle for a new type of computer or other item agreed upon by the class. Have them present their “ad scheme” to the client’s Board of Directors (the rest of the class).

6. **The Punishment Fits:** Divide students into teams and have them come up with creative “punishments” for the following “crimes.”

   - Harvey is always 10 minutes late for class.
   - Roberta never remembers to hang up her coat. She leaves it wherever it happens to fall when she comes into the house.
   - Caesar constantly litters the ground, dropping candy wrappers, orange peels, or other trash for someone else to pick up.
   - Larrisa has a habit of calling people on the telephone very late at night or early in the morning.

7. **Purchasing:** Using a supermarket circular, students will plan a shopping list. The class is divided into two (or more) teams; since teenage boys are not as acquainted with grocery purchases as are girls, the division could be between the boys and girls. Give each group a task.

   Introduce such concepts as “discount,” the American measurement system (which is different from the metric system); money expressions -- how we say $4.04 -- and other concepts as are appropriate for the particular situation. Let students spend time with the circular and answer questions about items they see in the circular. This exercise will provide information about American culture, vocabulary regarding shopping for food items, and will allow students to be conversational.

   - The girls’ task is to plan a menu from the circular, taking note of prices, quantities, bargains, etc.
   - The boys’ task is to put together a list of items that they want their wives to purchase and prepare for dinner.
   - Students are expected to explain why they made their decisions as they did and how much the cost will be.

8. The following are suggestions for using pictures for enhancing conversational skills.

   a. Choose pictures that “tell a story.” Distribute the pictures to the class and have each student tell a story about the picture. The teacher may have to demonstrate this since some students will do nothing but describe the picture. The other students just listen.
   b. In addition to students listening, each one is to ask the speaker a question. This offers a chance for conversational interaction.
   c. Distribute pictures to students, one to each student. Rather than the student speaking about his picture, have the class ask questions about the picture which the student must answer.
Dialogues

Common American Expressions

GREETINGS
Conversation 1
Student A – Hi, how are you?
Student B – Fine, thanks. And you?

Conversation 2
Student A – Hi, how’s everything? (“How’s it going?”)
Student B – Fine, thanks. How about you?
Student A – Fine. I’ve been working a lot.
Student B – Me, too.

Conversation 3
Student A – Hey, what’s up? (“What’s going on? happening?”)
Student B – Not much. How about you?
Student A – I’ve been busy at work.
Student B – I’m glad you have a job.

Conversation 4
Student A – Hello, I’m glad to meet you. (Pleased to meet you.)
Student B – How do you do. Nice to meet you, too.
Student A – Where are you from?
Student B – I’m from Turkey (or wherever).

Conversation 5
Student A – How do you do. My name is ____. What’s yours?
Student B – Hello. My name is ____. Glad to meet you.
Student A – Are you enjoying your English classes?
Student B – Yes, but English is very difficult.

DEPARTINGS
Conversation 1
Student A – I have to go now. Nice talking to you.
Student B – Nice talking to you. Good bye.
Student A – Good bye.

Conversation 2
Student A – It’s getting late. I’d better go now.
Student B – I need to go, too. (“also”)
Student A – See you tomorrow. Good bye.
Student A – Good bye.

Conversation 3
Student A – I’m glad I met you.
Student B – Thank you. I’m glad I met you, too.
Student A – Hope to see you again.
Student A – Yes. Good bye.

Conversation 4
Student A – I have to go now. I have to meet my mother. (etc.)
Student B – I’m glad we talked. (“chatted” “spoke”)
Student A – Let’s get together again. See you.
Student A – Good bye.

Conversation 5
Student A – It’s getting late. I have to go now.
Student B – I’m glad you came and visited me.
Student A – We’ll do it again. Good night. (Good bye”)
Student A – Good night. (“So long” “Good bye”)
AELT Oral Assessment

Questions

1. What is your name?

2. What is your address?

*3. Are you in school?
   (If no, ask Are you in the university.
    If yes, go to question #4)

**Alternate Question #3:(adult)
   Are you married? (If yes, go to
   Alternate Question #4. If no, ad-lib!)

**Alternate Question #3:(military)
   Are you in the military? (If yes, go to
   Alternate Question #4. If no, ad-lib)

*4. What form/year (in school) are you?

**Alternate Question #4 (adult)
   Are you married? (If yes, ask Do you have children?)

**Alternate Question #4 (military)
   What is your rank?

5. Do you like sports?

6. What kind of sports do you like?

7. What is today’s date?

8. What day of the week is today?

9. Where were you born?

10. How long did you live there?

11. What do you do in your spare time?

12. Tell me something about your family.

13. Have you studied English?

14. How do you want to improve your English?

* For an older young person, modify Question #3 to “Are you a student?” to distinguish between high school and university levels. In some cultures, particularly European cultures, “school” implies high school level, and “student” implies university level. If the interview takes place during the summer, a high school (or university) student may answer “no” because he or she is “out” of school on vacation.

** ALTERNATE QUESTIONS are intended for adults or when they otherwise seem appropriate.
AELT
STUDENT EVALUATION
for Placement

Student Name_________________________ Student # _____ Interviewer Position _____

Respond to the following by marking the appropriate place on each scale.

1. I had to repeat and rephrase the questions

<table>
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<th>Never</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Frequently</th>
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</table>

2. Student’s vocabulary usage was

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Limited</th>
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</table>

3. Student’s grammar usage was

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Mostly correct</th>
<th>Somewhat correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
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</table>

4. Student expressed himself/herself

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conversationally</th>
<th>With incomplete sentences</th>
<th>With one-word answers</th>
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</thead>
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RESPOND TO THIS ITEM LAST

5. The student’s over-all English competency is best described as

<table>
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<th>Good</th>
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COMMENTS
OBSERVATIONS FROM ASSESSMENT/PLACEMENT TRAINING

1. Most everyone wrote down what was answered (verbatim, or something of the sort)
   a. Sometimes we write down what we expect to hear.
      E.g., “Tanya dropped a/an.”
      Almost everyone wrote that down as though she had said it.
      Application: write down exactly what was said! or nothing.
      Mispronunciation
         (e.g., “I like watch”
         “moza” = for “mother”
         “brozas” = for “brothers”
         “faza” = for “father”
   b. Few wrote down nothing but verbatim answers. Need more.
   c. Look for grammar left out
      the, a/an
      tense
      complete phrases/sentences

2. Examples of what was written down by recorders. Very helpful comments.
   “Misunderstood the question” or “did not understand” = In what way? Give example of
   the answer.
   Did not understand “where”
   Confused
   Doesn’t understand
   Needed prompting; Needed help
   Clear answer
   quick, quick response
   Slowly thought it through
   Stumbled in responding
   Limited
   Much repetition
   Couldn’t understand
   Struggled
   Hard to understand
   Gave _____, not _____
      E.g., Question: What is today’s date? Answer: Today is Monday.
   Asked for help
   Hesitant
   Questions had to be repeated
   Incomplete answer (or incomplete answers)
   Good answer
   Specific
   Good understanding
      Continued answer
   Very conversational
Role Plays

The following Role Plays have been specially formatted for two students and have been successfully used with strong upper level intermediate students. It is best to put each student’s role on a strip of paper or a card and to distribute randomly to students. These role plays represent both Conflict and Situational types.

Role Play 1
A. You are in a restaurant. You have just had a good dinner. The waiter is waiting for you to pay the bill. You look for your wallet and find that you have left it at home.

B. Your are a waiter in a restaurant. Your customer has just discovered that he left his wallet at home and has no money to pay for his dinner.

Role Play 2
A. Your friend asks you to return a book that you borrowed from him several months ago. At first you cannot remember what you did with it. Then you remember that you loaned it to another friend who lost it.

B. You loaned a book to a friend and now you want it back. He can’t remember borrowing it. He makes excuses.

Role Play 3
A. You buy a sweater and leave it in the store by mistake. When you discover it is missing, you return to the store and ask the clerk if he/she has seen it. You realize that the clerk is wearing the sweater you bought!

B. You sold a sweater to a customer, but the customer didn’t take it with him. After waiting several days for him to return for it you decide that he isn’t going to come. Then you decide to wear the sweater. The customer finally comes back and wants the sweater and sees that you are wearing it.

Role Play 4
A. You have not cooked anything for dinner because you were at a meeting all day. Your husband comes home and is very hungry; he wants to eat right away. You get into an argument.

B. You have had a really busy day with a lot of problems. You come home very tired and hungry. You want to eat right away. Unfortunately, your wife has been gone all day to a meeting and hasn’t had time to get dinner. Dinner isn’t ready. You get into an argument.
Role Play 5
A. Your boss has given you too much work. You are so busy that you cannot get all of your work done. Your boss calls you into her office and asks you why you have not finished a certain project.

B. You have assigned a certain project to your assistant. You have given her other work to do as well, but the this project is very important and you told her that it was important. Now you are wondering why the project isn’t finished.

Role Play 6
A. You are a teacher. When you walk into the classroom you see that one student is crying at her desk. You ask her what is wrong.

B. You are a sixth grade student. You saw your pet dog get hit by a car as you came to school and the dog was killed. The teacher isn’t in the classroom yet and you start crying. The teacher asks you what is wrong.

Role Play 7
A. You run into an old friend whom you have not seen for years. He used to weigh 100 kilograms. Now he weighs 75. You ask about the change.

B. You run into an old friend whom you have not seen for years. You used to weigh 100 kilograms, but now you weigh 75 kilograms. Your friend asks why you have lost so much weight. You are reluctant to tell him that you have had cancer.

Role Play 8
A. You get off a train in a strange country. You find a person who speaks a little English and ask him/her how to get to a certain address. After speaking with him for some time, you understand how to get to your destination.

B. You get off a train and are walking to the exit just as a stranger asks you a question in English. He wants to know how to find an address. You notice that he speaks English and you speak only a little English.

Role Play 9
A. You are one of the first tourists on the moon. You are sending a message back to someone on Earth.

B. You receive a message from a friend who is on a space mission to the moon. You are curious about what is there.

Role Play 10
A. You bought a plane ticket to London. You go to the airport and learn from the airline representative that the flight has been canceled. You are very upset because you must be in London today.
B. You are an airline employee at a flight check-in desk. A flight to London has been canceled. A customer comes to you to check in for this flight. He is very upset because he must be in London today.

Role Play 11
A. Your house has been robbed. You call the police. When the policeman comes, he asks you a number of questions. You feel like the policemen should be trying to solve the robbery and is wasting time in asking questions.

B. You are a policeman. You have been called to a home where a robbery has taken place. You need a lot of information and try to ask questions.

Role Play 12
A. You are very near-sighted and you lose your eye-glasses in a crowded room. You are afraid someone will step on the glasses before you find them. You ask someone to help you look for them.

B. You are attending a party in a very crowded room. Someone near you drops her glasses on the floor and can’t see well enough without them to find the glasses. She asks you to help her. The problem is to keep people from stepping on the glasses.

Role Play 13
A. You are walking in the park. Suddenly you meet an old friend whom you have not seen since you were in elementary school. You are surprised to learn that he/she has become very rich and powerful.

B. You meet an old friend in the park. You have not seen him since elementary school. Since that time you have become very rich and have an executive position in a very large investment agency and have a lot of power.

Role Play 14
A. You are trying on shoes in a shoe store. You have tried on many different pairs and the salesman is losing his patience.

B. You work in a shoe store. You have worked with a customer for 30 minutes as she has tried on shoe after shoe and can’t make up her mind which she wants to buy. It is time for you dinner break and you feel frustrated.

Role Play 15
A. You are walking down the street. Suddenly you see a friend in front of you. You run up to him and say “hello,” but when he/she turns around, you discover he/she is a stranger.

B. You are walking down the street. Suddenly someone runs up to you and says “hello”, but when you turn around he discovers that you are a stranger.
Role Play 16
A. You are a government official. A journalist interviews you, asking you your opinions on world affairs. Many of the questions are sensitive issues.

B. You are a journalist who has asked for and been granted an interview. You want to know his opinions on world affairs. You know that many of the questions are sensitive issues.

Role Play 17
A. You are on vacation. While you are walking to the beach, you see your best friend. You call her name, but she/he acts as if she doesn’t know you.

B. You are on vacation. While you are walking to the beach, you see your best friend. You have been hurt by something she said about you and you do not want to speak to her. In fact, you walk past her as if you don’t even know her.

Role Play 18
A. You are a teacher. You give a student a low grade on his paper and he becomes very angry and argues with you.

B. You are a student. You have received a very low grade on a paper. You feel that you do not deserve this low grade and are determined to get the teacher to give you a higher grade.

Role Play 19
A. You are in the mall. A stranger comes up to you and asks you for directions. You are also a stranger in the city and you apologize for not being able to help him/her.

B. You are in the mall. You are a stranger in the city. You ask another shopper for directions. This person is also a stranger and is very apologetic that he isn’t able to help you.

Role Play 20
A. You are at your mother-in-law’s home. You are admiring a vase on the table. You pick it up and then drop it accidentally. Your mother-in-law walks back into the room.

B. Your daughter-in-law is visiting in your home. You walk in the room just she drops a vase which she had picked up to look at. The vase belonged to your grandmother and held great sentimental value.

Role Play 21
A. You are in a restaurant. You order chicken, but the waiter brings you beef instead. You tell him he made a mistake, but he insists he hasn’t.

B. You work in a restaurant. You are waiting on a customer who has ordered beef. When you bring the beef to her table, she insists that she ordered chicken. You politely tell her that she ordered beef and show her what you have written down.
TONGUE TWISTERS

Bobby and Ben buy bunches of books in bags and boxes at the Bargain Basement.

Felix found five fantastic fish with four funny feet in the forest.

Carl’s camera captures colors coming from carol’s casual calico costume.

Hope handed hungry Henry a handful of hamburgers.

Madeline the magician makes magic with melons, marshmallows, mice, and marbles.

Pam put a pack of pencils, a pad of paper, a pot of paste, and a palette of paint on the table.

Nick needs ninety dollars to buy nine nifty, new novels.

Sister Suzy sold seashells at the seashore. How many seashells did sister Suzy sell?

Lovely ladies look lovingly at the lambs.

How much wood could a wood chuck chuck If a woodchuck could chuck wood?

Betty bought some better butter.

Don didn’t dare dream about Dora.

Tom taught Tim to talk.

Ronnie ran round the roaring red rookery.

Nancy never noticed naughty Nathan’s nice neighbor.

Yesterday the youth yearned for the yucky yellow yams.

Frank fought a fierce fight after five.

Mary must make many modern motions.

Very vocal Vincent heard Victor’s voice in the village.

“Good gracious,” Godfrey groaned as he got the grumpy girls.

Ned needs a nice nap now.

Queasy questions quiver on the queer quacks.

Katherine kissed the kicking kids.

Alice ate apples on the airplane.

Zelda zapped the zebra at the zoo.

Every ear and eye was on the edifying egg.

Will Wanda want to watch the wicked witch?

Indians in icy igloos ignore itchy in-laws.

Charlie’s cook caught a cute cat.

Over on Old Orchard we ought to open our ovens.

Show Shelly’s shameful shoes to Sharon.

Under the Umbrella was Uncle Ulysses’ used underwear.
Sally saw a slimy snake at the seashore.

Can you cut cakes at the candy store?

Joyce just jumped after Jim jilted her.

Thoughtful Thelma threw the thin thimble.

How hurtful of Henry to hang healthy Harry.

Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers,
How many peppers could Peter Piper pick?
A peck of pickled peppers could Peter Piper pick.

Peter and Paul paste purple paper pelicans on pink paper.

Baby Betty has a basket on her blue baby buggy bumper.

Quiet queens quickly sew quilts for a quarter.

Andrew admitted his answer was absolutely accurate.

A unicorn usually uses its unique horn for useful things.
## Two-Word Verbs in English

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Add up</th>
<th>Build up on</th>
<th>Clear away</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Ask about</td>
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freeze out  
freeze over  
frighten away  
frighten off  
go around  
go at  
go back  
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go off  
go in for  
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go on  
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go through with  
go under  
go up  
go with  
go without  
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grow up  
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hand in  
hand out  
hand over  
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hang back  
hang on  
hang up  
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happen by  
happen on  
happen upon  
have on  
have over  
head off  
hear about  
hear from  
hear of  
hear out  
help out  
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hit on  
hit out  
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hold out against  
hold out on  
hold over  
hunt down  
hunt out  
hunt up  
hush up  
invite over  
iron out  
join in  
join up  
keep at  
keep on  
keep on with  
keep up  
keep up with  
kick around  
kick in  
kick off  
kick out  
kick up  
knock out  
laugh off  
laid away  
laid in  
laid into  
laid off  
laid out  
laid over  
lead off  
lead on  
lead up to  
leave off  
lend out  
let down  
let in  
let off  
let on  
let on to  
let out  
let up  
lie down  
lie down on  
light into  
light out  
light up  
line up  
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live on  
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look after  
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look over  
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look up to  
move in  
move out  
move on  
nod off  
open up  
pass away  
pass on  
pass for  
pass off  
pass on  
pass out  
pass over  
pass up  
pay back  
pay off  
pay up  
pick at  
pick on  
pick out  
pick up  
pile up
pitch in
play down
play up
play up to
point out
print out
pull apart
pull down
pull for
pull in
pull out
pull off
pull over
pull through
punch in
punch out
push for
push on
put across
put aside
put away
put by
put down
put in
put off
put on
put out
put over
put through
put together
put up
put up with
puzzle out
reach out
read out
read up on
rent out
ride out
ring up
ring down
rip into

rip up
rise up
roll back
roll up
rough in
rough it
rough out
round up
rub in
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Drills

I. Dialogue

Dialogue

Dialogue is a conversational exchange between two people. Incorporate all the techniques as they are needed. Keep the dialogue simple at first and keep it to four lines.

1 -- What’s this?
2 -- It’s an orange.
1 -- Do you like oranges?
2 -- Yes, oranges are good.

Steps for learning dialogue

1. Teacher says entire dialogue, being sure students understand content/meaning.
2. Teacher says first sentence. Students repeat first sentence.
3. Teacher says each sentence. Students repeat each sentence.
4. Teacher says entire dialogue. Students listen.
5. Teacher and students say together the entire dialogue.
6. Dialogue: Teacher
   Students
   Teacher
   Students
7. Reverse the roles if appropriate.
8. Variations for further practice: substitute words or lines, especially on the teacher’s part; add new lines for a longer dialogue; combine two, short related dialogues.

II. Backward Buildup

Backward Buildup Drill

If conversational English students have trouble repeating a complete sentence as modeled by the teacher, start the drill by using the last phrase of the sentence.

*He went to work at six o’clock on Tuesday morning.*

T -- . . . on Tuesday morning.
S -- . . . on Tuesday morning.
T -- . . . at six o’clock on Tuesday morning.
S -- . . . at six o’clock on Tuesday morning.
T -- . . . to work at six o’clock on Tuesday morning.
S -- . . . to work at six o’clock on Tuesday morning.
T -- . . . He went to work at six o’clock on Tuesday morning.
S -- . . . He went to work at six o’clock on Tuesday morning.
III. Repetition Drills

Repetition Drill: Verbatim
Have students listen first. Then indicate that the whole class is to repeat, then smaller groups, then individuals.

T -- This is a book.
S -- This is a book.
T -- This is a door.
S -- This is a door.

Repetition Drill: Open-ended Chain
The teacher says a sentence. Students repeat. Then each student in turn repeats the sentence and adds something. Each student in turn is required to repeat the sentence, plus adding each time what each subsequent student has said and then add his/her own item.

T -- I’m going shopping to buy a magazine.
S -- I’m going shopping to buy a magazine.
S1 -- I’m going shopping to buy a magazine and a book.
S2 -- I’m going shopping to buy a magazine, a book, and a pencil.
S3 -- I’m going shopping to buy a magazine, a book, a pencil, and a bottle of milk.
And so on for each student.

IV. Substitution Drills

Substitution Drill: Simple, Single Slot
Students substitute one word in a sentence, with an appropriate action for comprehension. The slot remains constant.

T -- Here’s a book.
S -- Here’s a book.
T -- . . . chair
S -- Here’s a chair.
T -- . . . my pencil
S -- Here’s my pencil.
T -- I’m sitting.
S -- I’m sitting.
T -- You’re . . .
S -- You’re sitting.
T -- We’re . . .
S -- We’re sitting.
Substitution Drill: Complex, Moving Slots
After giving a basic sentence, give only the cue word for substitution. Students must fit the substitution into the correct slot.

T -- Mary is walking to school.
S -- Mary is walking to school.
T -- . . . running . . .
S -- Mary is running to school.
T -- . . . work . . .
S -- Mary is running to work.

Substitution Drill: Multiple-slot
Students substitute two or more words in a sentence into two or more slots with an appropriate action for comprehension. The slots remain constant.

T -- We don’t drink many cokes.
S -- We don’t drink many cokes.
T -- . . . eat / vegetables . . .
S -- We don’t eat many vegetables.

Substitution Drill: Correlative - Simple
Students are required to make an adjustment in another part of the sentence required by the substitution.

T -- The girl is a student.
S -- The girl is a student.
T -- . . . artist . . .
S -- The girl is an artist.

Substitution Drill: Correlative - Complex
Students must replace two or more constituents and must make changes in the sentence accordingly.

T -- The boy who is coming is my brother.
S -- The boy who is coming is my brother.
T -- . . . boys . . .
S -- The boys who are coming are my brothers.
V. Response Drills

Response Drill
The teacher asks a question and students respond.

T -- The girl is in the boat.
S -- The girl is in the boat.
T -- Where is the girl?
S -- The girl is in the boat.

VI. Transformation Drills

Transformation Drill: Positive to Negative
Teacher provides a negative cue and students restate the statement in the negative.

(pointing to pen)
T -- This is a pen.
S -- This is a pen.
(pointing to book and shaking head in the negative)
T -- This is not a pen.
S -- This is not a pen.
For more advanced students:
(show picture of bus)
T -- This is a bus.
S -- This is a bus.
(show picture of motorcycle)
T -- . . . not . . .
S -- This is not a bus.

Transformation Drill: Statement to Question
Teacher presents a statement which students restate as a question.

T -- (pointing to window) This is a window.
S -- This is a window.
T -- (holding a ? card) Is this a window?
S -- Is this a window?
T -- (pointing to door) This is a door.
(teacher holding up ? card)
S -- Is this a door?
Transformation Drill: Past, Present and Future Drill
Teacher presents a statement which students repeat; teacher then presents a cue which students use to restate the sentence in the present, past, or future.

T -- *Today I’m playing tennis.*
S -- *Today I’m playing tennis.*
T -- . . . yesterday . . .
S -- *Yesterday I played tennis.*
T -- . . . tomorrow . . .
S -- *Tomorrow I will play tennis.* OR *I am going to play . . .*

Transformation Drill: Expansion
Student are required to add to a basic sentence pattern an adjective of their choice to each noun phrase.

T -- *The man is a lawyer.*
S -- *The big man is a bad lawyer.*
T -- *The women are students.*
S -- *The thin women are good students.*
T -- *There are some letters on the desk.*
S -- *There are some letters on the desk.*
T -- . . . bills for you.
S -- *There are some bills for you.*
T -- . . . *a phone call for John.*
S -- *There is a phone call for John.*
T -- . . . *a good restaurant near here.*
S -- *There is a good restaurant near here.*

Transformation Drill: Reduction
Students are required to reduce a basic sentence pattern by changing a noun phrase to its pronoun form.

T -- *The car is small.*
S -- *It’s small.*
T -- *The girl is beautiful.*
S -- *She’s beautiful.*
VII. Creative Drills

Creative Drill: Sentence Combining
The teacher presents two (or more) sentences which students combines into one statement.

1. Teacher says two short sentences.
   T -- The coffee is hot. The coffee is strong.
2. Students repeat.
   The coffee is hot. The coffee is strong.
3. Teacher gestures to combine them and says,
   T -- The coffee is hot and strong.
4. Students repeat.
   S -- The coffee is hot and strong.

Once this routine is comfortable for students, use only steps 5 and 6. If this becomes difficult, return to steps 1 through 4.

5. Teacher models (gesturing to students)
   T -- The coffee is hot. The coffee is strong.
6. Students say
   S -- The coffee is hot and strong.

Creative Drill: Restatement Drill
The teacher directs students to start a sentence in a different form.

T -- When I went to the clinic today they gave me vitamin pills and told me not to forget to take one every day.
S -- Today when you went to the clinic they gave you vitamin pills and told you to remember to take one every day.

Creative Drill: Completion Drill
The teacher begins a sentence suggesting students complete it appropriately.

T -- I have . . .
S -- I have a new car.
Creative Drill: Sequential Statement Drill

The teacher presents the stem of a sentence and students complete the statement, adding more to it in a conversational way.

1. Teacher says a sentence. *I bought a used car.*
2. Student repeats the sentence and adds as many appropriate sentences as possible.
   *I bought a used car. It’s a blue 1982 Ford, four door. I got an excellent deal and it’s in good shape.*

Creative Drill: Unscrambling Sentence Drill

The teacher gives words or sentences in random order and students put them in the proper sequence.

T -- . . . vegetables, store, the, I, bought, at . . .
S -- *I bought vegetables at the store.*

VIII. Reply Drills

Reply Drill: Two-Stage

The teacher provides a cue and students respond.

T -- *Big cities have pollution, don’t they?*
S -- *Yes, they do.*
T -- *Do you have a lot of work to do?*
S -- *Yes, I do.*
T -- *He is six feet tall, but she is only five feet tall.*
S -- *She is shorter than he is.*

Reply Drill: Short Answer

The teacher models a full question to which students give a short answer.

T: *Are you going to the movie tonight?*
S: *Yes, I am.*
T: *Do you like to read.*
S: *No, I don’t.*
T: *He’s going to the movie, isn’t he?*
S: *Yes, he is*
Reply Drill: Guided Comment

Students reply to a comment or a question by the teacher using a specified structure.

T: She’s 35, but he’s 45.
S: He’s older than she is.
T: He made some progress, but she made a lot of progress.
S: She made more progress than he did.
T: It’s easy to go by train, but it’s very easy to go by bus.
S: It’s easier to go by bus than it is by train.

Reply Drill: Comprehension

The teacher asks questions which test students’ understanding of material.

T: What is Jack’s wife’s name?
S: Her name is Jane.
T: What kind of a job does Jack have?
S: Jack is a lawyer.
T: How old is Kevin?
S: Kevin is 10 years old.

Reply Drill: Free Response

Students are free to respond as they wish to a teacher’s question or statement.

T: What kinds of things do you like to do by yourself?
S: I like to study alone, but I don’t like to eat by myself.
T: Do you always type your own papers?
S: Yes, I usually type them myself.
T: Did you come here by yourself?
S: No, I didn’t come here by myself.
T: Do you live alone or do you have a roommate?
S: No, I don’t live alone: I have a roommate.

Reply Drill: Three-Stage

This drill involves the teacher and two or more students. The teacher provides to the first student a cue which requires two questions and answers of a second (or more) student.

T  -- . . . on Monday . . .
S1 -- Were you in town on Monday?
S2 -- No, I wasn’t. I was in Madrid.
T  -- . . . last night . . .
S1 -- Where were you last night?
S2 -- I was at home.

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### IDIOMS

- beanpole
- beauty is only skin deep
- blind leading the blind
- by the skin of your teeth
- cold feet
- don’t move a muscle
- evil eye
- furniture disease (chest fell into the drawers)
- get it off your chest
- give him a piece of your mind
- give him a cold shoulder
- he who laughs last laughs best
- heartless
- hot-headed
- in over his head
- in the blink of an eye
- know something like the back of your hand
- lend a hand
- make no bones about it
- music soothes the savage beast
- no fool like an old fool
- no skin off my nose
- off the top of my head
- on hand
- on the nose
- on your toes
- out of my hands
- out of the mouth of babes
- pull your leg
- rub elbows
- run off at the mouth
- save your breath
- seeing is believing
- shake a leg
- shove it down your throat
- skeleton in the closet
- skin and bones
- slip of the tongue
- stole his heart
- sweating bullets
- talk a leg off him
- talking behind your back
- the look in your eye
- neck and neck
- under the weather
- twinkle-toes
### “Clothing”

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### “Education”

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#### (Idioms continued)

- hit the books
- hold your attention
- hungry to learn
- know the ropes
- mental block
- mull it over
- never mind
- over my head
- peak his interest
- play hooky
- pop quiz
- put two and two together
- put your heads together
- put on your thinking cap
- read you like a book
- skip class/skip school
- two heads are better than one

#### IDIOMS

- a light goes on
- ace a test
- bomb a test
- bomb out
- bored silly
- brain burp
- brain drain
- burn out
- class clown
- class dunce
- doesn’t know whether he’s coming or going
- draw a blank
- go by the book
- has a lot on the ball
“Family and Friends”

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**IDIOMS**

- apple never falls very far from the tree
- blood runs thicker than water
- broke the mold
- chip off the old block
- comes from good stock
- cut out of the same cloth
- daddy’s girl
- don’t fight about it
- get with the program
- get along
- give me a break
- grounded
- have a bone to pick with someone
- icy stare
- it’s in the genes
- keep an open line of communication
- like father, like son
- lives on the wrong side of the tracks
- mama’s boy
- open up
- rainy-day friend
- seeing is believing
- sharp as a tack
- sucker born every minute
- talk back
- tomboy
- turn your nose up at someone
- two peas in a pod
- under the gun
- wears the pants in the family
- words of wisdom
## “Food”

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**IDIOMS**

apple of my eye
carrot-top
cool as a cucumber
green thumb
cream of the crop
nip it in the bud
no dice
one rotten apple spoils the whole barrel
over the barrel
prune-faced
rabbit food
reap what you sow
the early bird catches the worm
tough row to hoe
two peas in a pod
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<tr>
<td>highest</td>
<td>ridge</td>
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<tr>
<td>hike</td>
<td>risk</td>
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<tr>
<td>hillside</td>
<td>river</td>
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<td>horizontal line</td>
<td>rivulet</td>
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<tr>
<td>impressive</td>
<td>road</td>
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<tr>
<td>involvement</td>
<td>roasted</td>
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<tr>
<td>jaunt</td>
<td>rocks</td>
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“Health and Exercise”

ache
cures
cut
cure
injure
rabies
tonsillitis

aches
cut
cure
injure
rabies
tonsillitis

acid
damage
inoculation
radiation

action
dejection
intensity
rebound

activity
depression
jerk
recovery

aerobics
discipline
jog
recovery

AIDS
discomfort
joint
recovery

alignment
disease
jolt
respiratory

allergic
dislocation
laser
rest

ambulance
dispensary
legs
restoration

ankle
emergency
mastery
rehabilitation

appendicitis
emotion
measles
rubella

aptitude
energy
medication
rubber

arthritis
epidemic
medicine
rush

aspirin
exertion
mend
sanatorium

attack
fatal
mental
scale

bacterium
fatigue
microorganism
sensation

bed
fever
military
shock

blight
fitness
mind
sick

blood
flu
misery
sickly

body
fracture
mortality
smart

bone
gait
motion
skin

brain
gash
movement
smart

breach
glands
multi-vitamin
sound

break
growth
mumps
sound

bronchitis
gym
muscle
spasm

bruise
gymnasium
muscle tear
spew

building
hale
muscular
split

burst
hands
nauseated
sprain

calisthenics
hardy
nudge
sting

cancer
heal
nurse
stomach

cartilage
healing
office
stomach

cauterize
heart
operation
strain

cavity
heart attack
organ
strength

chicken pox
heart rate
overstrain
stupor

chills
hemorrhage
pain
suffer

clinic
hepatitis
patient
surgeon

clinical
hospital
performance
surgery

colds
hurt
pestilence

collapse
hydrophobia
physical
swelling

coma
hypertension
physician
tablet

comfort
incision
plague
talent

condition
inclination
poison
temperature

conditioning
infected
posture
therapy

contagious
infection
practice
throat

convulsive
infirmary
pulse
throb

cough
influenza
push
tissue
### “History and Time”

| adventure | generation | synchronize |
| advance | heritage | tax |
| ancestors | historical | term |
| ancient | hour | the past |
| annals | instant | timed |
| archology | interval | timepiece |
| armistice | journal | tomorrow |
| background | latter | tradition |
| battle | legacy | turning point |
| biography | liberty | venerable |
| birth place | lifetime | victory |
| bygone | lineage | violence |
| century | massacre | vote |
| chance | maturity | winner |
| chronicle | memoirs | year |
| chronology | minute | yesterday |
| civilization | modern | |
| classic | moment | |
| clock | monument | |
| conflict | museum | |
| conquer | obsolete | |
| conquest | patriarch | |
| crisis | peace | |
| cycle | period | |
| decade | pioneer | |
| decay | prehistoric | |
| destiny | preserved | |
| dissension | primitive | |
| doctrine | recent | |
| elapse | record (verb) | |
| elders | record (noun) | |
| encounter | red-letter | |
| eon | reform | |
| epic | retreat | |
| epoch | revolution | |
| era | saga | |
| eternity | scale | |
| experience | season | |
| explore | second | |
| extinct | secure | |
| fascism | seize | |
| fate | social | |
| flag | span | |
| forefathers | suffer | |
| forerunners | surmount | |
| freedom | survival | |
| frontier | survive | |

### IDIOMS

- about time
- at the eleventh hour
- had the time of my life
- how time flies
- in the blink of an eye
- it’s a thing of the past
- it’s in the past
- it’s over and done with
- not born yesterday
- old as the hills
- over the hill
- quick as a wink
- signed, sealed, and delivered
- that was then, this is now
- the spur of the moment
- time after time
- time for yourself (myself, etc.)
- time is right
- turn the clock back
- two shakes of a dead lamb’s tail
- weather the storm
- what’s done is done
- wouldn’t give him the time of day
“Hobbies”

ability    ability    ability    ability    ability
acting    acting    acting    acting    acting
affair    affair    affair    affair    affair
albums    albums    albums    albums    albums
amusement    amusement    amusement    amusement    amusement
angler    angler    angler    angler    angler
antiques    antiques    antiques    antiques    antiques
arrow    arrow    arrow    arrow    arrow
art    art    art    art    art
artist    artist    artist    artist    artist
baking    baking    baking    baking    baking
binoculars    binoculars    binoculars    binoculars    binoculars
bird watching    bird watching    bird watching    bird watching    bird watching
boat    boat    boat    boat    boat
boredom    boredom    boredom    boredom    boredom
business    business    business    business    business
calligraphy    calligraphy    calligraphy    calligraphy    calligraphy
camaraderie    camaraderie    camaraderie    camaraderie    camaraderie
camping    camping    camping    camping    camping
career    career    career    career    career
carving    carving    carving    carving    carving
coaching    coaching    coaching    coaching    coaching
coin collecting    coin collecting    coin collecting    coin collecting    coin collecting
collecting    collecting    collecting    collecting    collecting
cooking    cooking    cooking    cooking    cooking
counted cross-stitch    counted cross-stitch    counted cross-stitch    counted cross-stitch    counted cross-stitch
craft show    craft show    craft show    craft show    craft show
crafts    crafts    crafts    crafts    crafts
craftsman    craftsman    craftsman    craftsman    craftsman
daycare    daycare    daycare    daycare    daycare
dealer    dealer    dealer    dealer    dealer
decoy    decoy    decoy    decoy    decoy
detail    detail    detail    detail    detail
directions    directions    directions    directions    directions
diversion    diversion    diversion    diversion    diversion
driving    driving    driving    driving    driving
embroidering    embroidering    embroidering    embroidering    embroidering
farming    farming    farming    farming    farming
firearms    firearms    firearms    firearms    firearms
fishing    fishing    fishing    fishing    fishing
flea market    flea market    flea market    flea market    flea market
free time    free time    free time    free time    free time
garage sale    garage sale    garage sale    garage sale    garage sale
gardening    gardening    gardening    gardening    gardening
guild    guild    guild    guild    guild
guns    guns    guns    guns    guns
handicraft    handicraft    handicraft    handicraft    handicraft
handwork    handwork    handwork    handwork    handwork
hiking    hiking    hiking    hiking    hiking
horseback riding    horseback riding    horseback riding    horseback riding    horseback riding
hunting    hunting    hunting    hunting    hunting
instructions    instructions    instructions    instructions    instructions
journey    journey    journey    journey    journey
jumping rope    jumping rope    jumping rope    jumping rope    jumping rope
key    key    key    key    key
knitting    knitting    knitting    knitting    knitting
license    license    license    license    license
lures    lures    lures    lures    lures
manual    manual    manual    manual    manual
materials    materials    materials    materials    materials
meticulous    meticulous    meticulous    meticulous    meticulous
model building    model building    model building    model building    model building
money    money    money    money    money
movies    movies    movies    movies    movies
needlework    needlework    needlework    needlework    needlework
objects    objects    objects    objects    objects
ornaments    ornaments    ornaments    ornaments    ornaments
painter    painter    painter    painter    painter
pastime    pastime    pastime    pastime    pastime
penmanship    penmanship    penmanship    penmanship    penmanship
perform    perform    perform    perform    perform
picture    picture    picture    picture    picture
product    product    product    product    product
profession    profession    profession    profession    profession
quilting    quilting    quilting    quilting    quilting
quilting bee    quilting bee    quilting bee    quilting bee    quilting bee
quilting frame    quilting frame    quilting frame    quilting frame    quilting frame
reading    reading    reading    reading    reading
refinish    refinish    refinish    refinish    refinish
refurbish    refurbish    refurbish    refurbish    refurbish
relaxation    relaxation    relaxation    relaxation    relaxation
removal    removal    removal    removal    removal
repairman    repairman    repairman    repairman    repairman
restore    restore    restore    restore    restore
retirement    retirement    retirement    retirement    retirement
riding    riding    riding    riding    riding
sewing    sewing    sewing    sewing    sewing
sharpshooter    sharpshooter    sharpshooter    sharpshooter    sharpshooter
show business    show business    show business    show business    show business
sideline    sideline    sideline    sideline    sideline
sightseeing    sightseeing    sightseeing    sightseeing    sightseeing
skillful    skillful    skillful    skillful    skillful
skating    skating    skating    skating    skating
sleeping    sleeping    sleeping    sleeping    sleeping
spare time    spare time    spare time    spare time    spare time
stamp collecting    stamp collecting    stamp collecting    stamp collecting    stamp collecting
stencil    stencil    stencil    stencil    stencil
stitches    stitches    stitches    stitches    stitches
talent    talent    talent    talent    talent
tedious    tedious    tedious    tedious    tedious
thread    thread    thread    thread    thread
tiresome    tiresome    tiresome    tiresome    tiresome
tiring    tiring    tiring    tiring    tiring
trade    trade    trade    trade    trade
traveling    traveling    traveling    traveling    traveling
trip    trip    trip    trip    trip
trucking    trucking    trucking    trucking    trucking
visiting    visiting    visiting    visiting    visiting
wood    wood    wood    wood    wood
woodworking    woodworking    woodworking    woodworking    woodworking
writing    writing    writing    writing    writing
yard sale    yard sale    yard sale    yard sale    yard sale

IDIOMS

both barrels loaded
chill out
cool your jets
footloose and fancy free
golden years
hang out
have things in common
if all else fails, read the directions
kill time
many hands makes light work
one step at a time
one man’s junk is another man’s treasure
people watcher
prone to wander
put your feet up
step by step
stitch in time saves time
“Holidays and Vacations”

access joyous
airplane leave (verb)
beach leave (noun)
billboard leisure
boating load
breaking luggage
break lull
beach bum meander
boating mileage
breakout motel
beach bum load
boating meander
burn out loaf
break meander
beach bum meander
boating burn out
burn out.

IDIOMS

bag lunch
beach bum
burn out
couch commando
couch potato
daily grind
free as the wind
gas up
get away from it all
give it a rest
go to town
go jump in the lake
hangout
in the same boat
just do nothing
kick back
living within your budget
make good time
Montezuma’s revenge
potty break
road kill
rock the boat
take a break
take a trip
take it easy
that’s the ticket
trip up
whoop it up
wild goose chase
“Houses, Landmarks, and Communities”

abode accessories address (verb) address (noun) apartment appliances arm chair avenues barn basement bathroom bedroom bedspread belfry bell billboard blueprint bridges building bungalow bunk butte cabin capital capitol carpenter carpet castle cell cellar chalet church churches city square condominium conservatory convent cottage counter top country courthouse cupboards direction door drain ductwork dwelling earth home eaves electricity elevator factory farm fence finish firemen fireplace flag pole flooring foundation founder fountains framework furnace furnishes furniture Grecian gutter habitat hamlet hills home horizon household housetop housing hut igloo kitchen landmarks landscape lawn layout level library light poles living room lodge mall mansion mayor mobile home monument mountains Mt. Rushmore municipal buildings municipality museum neighbor neighborhood parks patio peak penthouse plumb plumber plumbing police porch privacy private provincial rafter rambler rent repair shop residence restaurants rocks roof line rug schools shack shelter shopping center signs silo sink sofa stairway Statue of Liberty statues steeple stoplight stores streets structures tower trees tepee terrace town

IDIOMS

a man’s home is his castle breathing room cabin fever eat them out of house and home elbow room feel fenced in feel hemmed in keep her at arm’s length move in on someone on the house sweep it under the rug tailgate
“Literature”

act
adventure
allegory
alphabet
anecdote
anonymous
anthology
appendix
author
autobiography
ballad
bibliography
bindery
biography
chapter
characterize
chart
classic
collaborate
collate
colloquial
comedy
comic books
comic strip
conceptualize
conclusion
content
copyright
delineate
detail
dialect
dictionary
drama
director
editorialize
epic
essay
eulogy
euphemism
fable
fairy tales
farce
fiction
glossary
happy ending
hardbound
historical
humanities
illustration
imagery
index
introduction
irony

limerick
literary
magazine
manual
map
medieval
meter
mystery
myth
mythology
narrative
nonfiction
novel
novelist
ode
paperback
parable
paradox
paragraph
personification
philosophy
phrases
plagiarize
play
poem
proliferate
proof
proofread (verb-present)
proofread (verb-past)
prose
proverb
publisher
quotation
quote
realistic
recite
relate
research
review
rhyme
romance
saga
sayings
scientific
sequel
simile
slang
solution
sonnet
star
statement

a chapter in your book
a dead language
a “Who done it?”
bookworm
camera-ready
couldn’t put it down
don’t judge a book by its cover
garbage in garbage out
give credit where credit is due
go to press
gut-wrenching
mother tongue
old wives’ tale
read between the lines
read him like a book
reading expands your world
rough draft
sleazy romance novel
soap opera
tear jerker
throw the book at him
write from the heart
writer’s cramp
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accounts</td>
<td>exchange</td>
<td>poor risk</td>
<td>IDIOMS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accounts receivable</td>
<td>expense</td>
<td>possessions</td>
<td>a pay off</td>
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<tr>
<td>affluent</td>
<td>extrapolate</td>
<td>poverty</td>
<td>as phony as a three-dollar bill</td>
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<td>allowance</td>
<td>figure</td>
<td>principle</td>
<td>buying spree</td>
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<td>amortize</td>
<td>fortune</td>
<td>profitable</td>
<td>cash out</td>
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<td>amount</td>
<td>frugal</td>
<td>projections</td>
<td>dirt cheap</td>
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<td>asset</td>
<td>funds</td>
<td>promise</td>
<td>dirt poor</td>
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<td>balloon payment</td>
<td>generous</td>
<td>prosperity</td>
<td>earning a living</td>
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<td>banks</td>
<td>giving</td>
<td>purse</td>
<td>filthy rich</td>
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<td>bill</td>
<td>grant</td>
<td>push</td>
<td>free for the taking (asking)</td>
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<td>bond issue</td>
<td>greed</td>
<td>quarters</td>
<td>freeloader</td>
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<td>borrow</td>
<td>greenback</td>
<td>record</td>
<td>go Dutch</td>
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<td>bottom line</td>
<td>half dollar</td>
<td>recorded</td>
<td>highway robbery</td>
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<td>bouncing</td>
<td>happiness</td>
<td>reimburse</td>
<td>in the black</td>
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<td>broke</td>
<td>heir</td>
<td>repayment</td>
<td>in the red</td>
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<td>bucks</td>
<td>high risk</td>
<td>resources</td>
<td>living beyond your means</td>
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<td>budget</td>
<td>hoard</td>
<td>riches</td>
<td>money hungry</td>
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<td>business expense</td>
<td>income</td>
<td>risk</td>
<td>Mr. Money-bags</td>
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<td>button</td>
<td>indebted</td>
<td>savings</td>
<td>nest egg</td>
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<td>buy</td>
<td>inheritance</td>
<td>selfish</td>
<td>not worth a continental</td>
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<tr>
<td>cash</td>
<td>interest</td>
<td>spend</td>
<td>not worth a dime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cash flow</td>
<td>investment</td>
<td>spendthrift</td>
<td>not worth a plug nickel</td>
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<tr>
<td>change</td>
<td>lavish</td>
<td>statements</td>
<td>not worth two cents</td>
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<tr>
<td>charge</td>
<td>ledger</td>
<td>stingy</td>
<td>pass the buck</td>
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<tr>
<td>charity</td>
<td>legal</td>
<td>succeed</td>
<td>penny-pincher</td>
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<tr>
<td>checks</td>
<td>lend</td>
<td>sum</td>
<td>pool your resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clients</td>
<td>lender</td>
<td>support</td>
<td>poor as Job’s turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coin purse</td>
<td>levy</td>
<td>tabulate</td>
<td>put in your two cents worth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coins</td>
<td>liability</td>
<td>tax refund</td>
<td>tight-fisted</td>
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<tr>
<td>contribution</td>
<td>line item</td>
<td>taxes</td>
<td>two bits and a dollar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cost</td>
<td>loaded</td>
<td>transactions</td>
<td>well to do</td>
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<td>costly</td>
<td>loan</td>
<td>treasure</td>
<td>worth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>credit</td>
<td>luck</td>
<td>valuable</td>
<td>worth his weight in gold</td>
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<td>credit card</td>
<td>lucrative</td>
<td>value</td>
<td>worth your salt</td>
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<td>currency</td>
<td>machines</td>
<td>wallet</td>
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<tr>
<td>debit</td>
<td>materialistic</td>
<td>wealth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>debit card</td>
<td>meager</td>
<td>withdraw</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>debts</td>
<td>miser</td>
<td>worth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decimal</td>
<td>money belt</td>
<td>worthless</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>deferred</td>
<td>moneymaking</td>
<td>write off</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deposit</td>
<td>nickels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dimes</td>
<td>over-extended</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>dollar</td>
<td>ownership</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>donation</td>
<td>payments</td>
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<td>down payment</td>
<td>pennies</td>
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<tr>
<td>economical</td>
<td>pocketbook</td>
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**“Moods and Personalities”**

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<td>aggressive</td>
<td>domineering</td>
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<td>eccentric</td>
<td>nasty</td>
<td>tasteless</td>
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<td>amiable</td>
<td>egotistical</td>
<td>nature</td>
<td>teachable</td>
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<td>emotional</td>
<td>nauseating</td>
<td>temper</td>
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<td>energetic</td>
<td>negative</td>
<td>temperament</td>
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<td>explosive</td>
<td>nit-picky</td>
<td>tempestuous</td>
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<td>faithful</td>
<td>optimistic</td>
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<td>feeling</td>
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<td>awareness</td>
<td>flexible</td>
<td>overbearing</td>
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<td>foolish</td>
<td>overreacting</td>
<td>traits</td>
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<td>bashful</td>
<td>forgiving</td>
<td>patient</td>
<td>tricky</td>
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<td>frazzled</td>
<td>perplexed</td>
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<td>pessimistic</td>
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<td>frugal</td>
<td>pleasurable</td>
<td>undesirable</td>
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<td>generous</td>
<td>pliable</td>
<td>untidy</td>
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<td>polite</td>
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**IDIOMS**

- come apart at the seams
- feel like a million bucks
- go to pieces
- got up on the wrong side of the bed
- gun-shy
- have a mind of his own
- have a sunny disposition
- he’s stuck on himself
- he’s stuck up
- hold your temper
- in seventh heaven
- keep a stiff upper lip
- leave you high and dry
- let off steam
- nervous as a cat in a room full of rocking chairs
- not bat an eyelash
- on cloud nine
- on top of the world
- out of sorts
- practical joker
- pull yourself together
- shoulder the responsibility
- stand on your own two feet
- tickled pink
- tied to his mother’s apron strings
- tough as nails
“Music”

a cappella
duplicate
performance
twang
accompanion
easy listening
piano
verse
accompanist
eighth note
piercing
vibrato
accordion
ensemble
entertain
polka
video
all musical instruments
entertain
practice
warm up (verb)
allenetrooper
duplicate
project
warm-up (noun)
album
entertain
quartet
warble
accompanyist
enunciate
quartet
warm-up (noun)
accompanist
feedback
record
warble
andante
flat
reeds
warp
arrangement
folk songs
repeat
IDiOMS
Bach
verse
Albert
solo
Allegro
flat
soprano
allegro
flat
sourdough
alto
flat
scream
dance to another tune
amphitheater
flat
scream
dance to another tune
balance
flat
shriek
danger
ballad
flat
shriek
danger
band shell
flat
sight read
same song, second verse
barbershop bass
hard rock
song
song and dance
baton
Haydn
reeds
song and dance
beat
howl
repetition
song and dance
Beethoven
improvise
runs
steal the show
blend
improvise
saxophone
steal the show
bluegrass
jazz
saxophone
steal the show
blues
jazz
scream
steal the show
brass
jazz
scream
steal the show
bralss
jazz
scream
steal the show
cantata
key signature
shriek
danger
cassette
lesson
sixteenth note
danger
cD’s
loud
soft rock
same song, second verse
choir
lullaby
solo
same song, second verse
Chopin
lyrics
solo
same song, second verse
chords
majorette
sonatas
same song, second verse
chorus
mellow
song
same song, second verse
clarinet
melodic
sooth
same song, second verse
classical
melody
soprano
same song, second verse
compose
memorize
sound man
same song, second verse
composition
microphone
speakers
same song, second verse
concert
mix
staff
same song, second verse
conductor
mouth organ
string band
same song, second verse
copyright
musicals
strings
same song, second verse
country-western
music stand
symphony
same song, second verse
croon
nasal
tune
tune

cuts
natural
timpani
tri

dancing
octave
tempo
tenor
deadening
octet
tenor
theme songs
delivery
opera
tempo
treble
direct
orchestra
tempi
treble
disco
organ
treble
trumpet
discord
P.A. system
trumpet
trumpet
dissonant
percussion
tune
tune
duet
perfect pitch
tune
“Newspaper”

advertisements advocate artists bias blurb bulletin cable cartoons circulation classifieds column comics conservative coverage current daily deadline delivery boys edit editor editorial facts factual fashion news fax feature foreign news fraud gardening hints gossip headlines highlights hobby influence information informer involved issue item journalism letter to the editor liberal local news maps message motto mystery

news stand newsprint obituaries opinions paper route photographer political news poster primary printer printing press publication publicity purpose puzzle reporter secret sensationalism shorthand significant slander sports spy statement stats style subscription swindle tabloids the press truth typesetter underline want ads weather reports wireless word processor

IDIOMS
aired his dirty laundry bare facts character assassination didn’t get much press get it down in black and white give him a fair shake glossed over has a wide following has a large following hawk a paper he was smeared honeymoon with the press is over hot off the press hung him out to dry in plain black and white in plain English invaded his privacy left no trace let him off the hook made the headlines protected his privacy showed him no mercy state the facts straight from the horse’s mouth without a hitch you can’t believe everything you read
## “Occupations and Work”

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### IDIOMS

- bite off more than you can chew
- burn the midnight oil
- burn out
- climb the ladder
- do back-breaking work
- don’t lift a finger
- goof off
- keep your nose to the grindstone
- knock yourself out
- labor of love
- leg work
- put out your shingle
- run yourself ragged
- spread yourself too thin
- stick to your guns
- think tank
- work like a dog
- work your fingers to the bone
“Office”

accountant
administration
administrator
agency
alarm clock
announcements
answering machine
appointment
back bite
back-up (noun)
back up (verb)
bookcases
break room
bulk mailing
bulletin board
bureau
business
calculations
calculator
camera ready
career
catalog
checks
coerce
coffee break
competent
computer
conference room
copier
correspondence
cubicle
customize
data entry
deadline
demotion
department
desk
Dictaphone
dictate
dictionary
dot matrix
drafts
employment
eraser
estimates
example
facilitate
figures
file cabinet
filing
filing system
final copy
floppy disk
frustration
goals
graphs
hard copy
hard drive
highlight markers
instructions
intimidate
inventory
invoices
job
keyboard
keys
label
law books
letter
livelihood
manipulate
memo
minutes
monitor
motivate
mouse
notepads
occupation
office manager
overhead projector
page
paper clips
paper cutter
paper weight
pen
pencil
performance
phone
pin-feed
policies
position
postage
pressure
profession
promotion
proof
protocol
raise
receptionist
recommendation
references
registers
reports
room
rough draft
rubber bands
ruler
scissors
secretary
shelving
 shorthand
 stapler
 staples
 statements
 stationery
 storeroom
 time clock
 trustee
 typewriter
 validate
 vault
 verifications
 violations
 wages

**IDIOMS**
bring up the rear
call on the carpet
circular file
cream of the crop
day off
feather in your cap
file thirteen
lay down the law
long-range planning
low man on the totem pole
not hold a candle to
pecking order
phone rang off the hook
sit up and take notice
top dog
“Relationships”

abuse  accountable  acknowledge  acquaintance  admire  aggravate  agreeable  ally  attitude  authoritarian  background  badger  betrothed  bicker  bolster  buddy  caring  camaraderie  clinging  co-dependent  co-exist  cold  commitment  communicate  compatible  competitive  concerned  conflict  congenial  considerate  console  conspire  contentment  control  convince  courteous  critical  crush  date  deceitful  dependable  differences  divorced  dote  embrace  empathize  encourage

engaged  enthralled  esteem  estranged  extended family  faithful  favoritism  fellowship  forgiving  friendship  fulfill  gay  giving  gracious  harsh  hateful  helpful  honor  hospitable  illegitimate  immovable  independent  indifferent  infatuate  influence  infuriate  insecure  intimacy  introduce  jealous  judgmental  long for  lover  lust  manipulative  married  maturity  mingle  mistress  newlywed  open  outgoing  overload  overprotective  pal  parasitic  participate  partner  personality  platonic  promise  puppy love  reconcile  rejection  reliable  resolve  responsible  revealing  ridicule  rights  rivalry  sarcastic  scoff  selfish  sensitivity  separated  sham  sharing  smitten  sociable  spoil  superficial  superior  support  survive  sweet  sympathize  talkative  tease  tender  thankful  togetherness  tolerate  torment  transparent  trust  trustworthy  unconditional  unselfish  user  vow  vulnerable

warm  withdrawn  yearn  yielding

IDIOMS

bury the hatchet  deserve each other  forgive and forget  get a rise out of  get off my back  give and take  go to bat for someone  God’s gift to women  gold-digger  grin and bear it  have a crush  have a heart  have a heart of gold  have a heart of stone  heart goes out to someone  hen-pecked  hold your tongue  kick up a fuss  kiss and make up  lend someone an ear  let well enough alone  made for each other  make amends  make waves  man of his word  puppy love  two peas in a pod  wrapped around her little finger
“Science”

abstract      dietetics      orthopedics      verify
absolute      drugs          osmosis         viruses
accuracy      electrocardiogram otolaryngology x-rays
acidic        electrode       parasites
agronomy      electrolysis    pediatrics       zoology
alloys        electrons       perennial
analyze       entomology      physics
anesthesitics drugs          osmosis
annuals       evidence        viruses
archeology    evolution       x-rays
argument      experiment     precipitate
assumption    explore         premise
astronomy     fabricate      proliferate
atom          fact            proof
bacteria      factual         proprietary
basic         findings        protocol
biology       formula         protons
botany        fossils         purifications
bulbs         galaxy          quantify
calculation   gas            research
calibrate     gauge          result
cardiology    genetics        sample
cat scan       hygienic       space lab
catalyst      hypothesis      species
cells         hypothesize     specify
centrifuge    inert          specimen
chemical reaction intelligent design study
chemistry     hypothesis      statistics
classified    hypothesize     specimen
clue          journal         test
colloids      measure         test tube
combustion    meteorology     theorize
compounds     microbes        theory
crystal       microbiology    thorough
conclusion    microscope      transplants
conservation  molecules       truth
consult       MRI             ultramicroscopic
created       myth            universe
criterion (singular)  nature         urology
criteria (plural)  neurology       urology
cumulative      objective       urology
decception      obstetrics      urology
decomposition   omnipotent      urology
deduction       omnipotent      urology
degrees         order           urology
density         organism        urology
dermatology     origin

diagnosis

IDIOMS

beyond me
can’t see the forest for the trees
far out
fed a line
get off track
out of this world
out on the end of a limb
play with the numbers
preconceived idea
spaced out
swallow it hook, line and sinker
up a creek without a paddle
up a tree
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**IDIOMS**

- blow your wad
- blue light special
- burned a hole in his pocket
- “Crazy Days”
- flee market
- for sale
- garage sale
- hard sell
- in the market for
- money to burn
- on sale
- over the counter
- pay through the nose
- penny wise and dollar foolish
- penny wise and pound foolish
- plain Jane
- power shopping
- red tag
- rip off
- she holds the purse strings
- shop ‘til you drop
- sidewalk sale
- yard sale
“Skills and Abilities”

ability
accomplish
accurate
acquired
adeptness
adequate
apprentice
aptitude
art
articulate
authorized
best
capability
capacity
certified
challenged
champion
characteristics
class
clever
clumsiness
competence
competitive
conscientious
consumed
craft
creative
develop
dexterity
distinguished
drawing
duty
elaborate
enjoyment
enthusiasm
exemplary
exercise
expert
expertise
expression
facility
familiar
focused
forte
genius
gift
gifted

God-given
handicap
hard worker
heroic
hobby
idolized
imaginative
inability
incompetence
ineptitude
interest
intern
involved
knowledgeable
learned
licensed
limitation
master
mastery
meticulous
model
natural
observant
orchestrate
patience
perfection
practice
precise
pro
professional
proficiency
qualifications
qualified
rookie
sensational
sharp
skill
specialization
specialty
star
structured
superior
talent
talented
thrills
trade
trained

venture
veteran
whiz
winner

IDIOMS

a nose for something
a knack for something
be a breeze
be all thumbs
do or die
do your thing
easy as pie
golden touch
green thumb
have two left feet
if you’ve got it, flaunt it
in your element
jack of all trades
like nothing
too many irons in the fire
“Sports and Physical Activities”

agon
time
field goal
 Final Four
flip
float
forfeit
foul
frolic
fun
 game plan
garden
goal
guard
handicapped
hang time
health
helmet
hike
hit
hockey
hoe
home run
hoops
hop
improve
injured
injury
jog
judge
jumping
karate
kick
leader
locker room
loser
manager
marathon
march
mow
oar
offense
ointment
Olympics
opponent
overtime
pack
pairings
pastime
penalty
pennant
persevere
pick
pinch hitter
pitcher
play book
plants
pleasure
point guard
puck
pursue
quarterback
race
reaching
relaxation
ride
rivalry
romp
rout
row
run
seeds
skip
slide
smear
soccer
spectator
spirit
sportsmanship
sprink
statistics
stats
strategize
surfboard
suspended
swim
tag
teammate
technical
tennis
tie
toss
tournament
track
training

trampoline
 triple crown
tryouts
tumble
uniforms
vertical
victor
victory
walking
watch
winner
World Series

IDIOMS
add insult to injury
a hit below the belt
be a good sport
fair shake
give it all you got
give up
go for it
hit the showers
jump at the chance
jump the gun
jump through hoops
jump to a conclusion
kicked off the team
out in left field
punch his lights out
run wild
take a break
take a hike
throw a tantrum
throw in the towel
throw someone a curve
throw someone out of the game
throw your weight around
timeout
trash talk
“Tools”

adjust
anvil
appliance
architect
axe
axle
bench
blade
blueprint
brace
build
carpenter
caulk
chain
chisel
circuit
construction
contractor
conveyor
crank
crankcase
crescent wrench
crowbar
demolish
design
device
drill
drill bit
drill press
duct tape
engine
enlarge
fabricate
finish
fit
flush
force
forms
foundation
glue
hammer
handle
implement
instrument
insulation
jack
lathe
layout
level
loom
loosen
machine
manufacture
mechanic
metric
model
modify
motor
nail
operate
plane
planer
plank
plumb
pound
prefab
project
prop
prototype
pry
raze
remodel
repair
sandpaper
saw
sawhorse
screwdriver
scythe
sewing machine
shaft
sharpen
shim
shingle
sickle
socket set
solder
spindle
square
steel
steel wool
support
tap
tape measure
thread
tighten
torque
turning lathe
utensil
vehicle
vise
wedge
weld
wheel
workbench

IDIOMS

axe to grind
build up
cut corners
cut down to size
doodad
doohickey
fly off the handle
get it all together
hammer out a plan
hard as nails
having a loose screw
he was “framed”
hit the nail on the head
set in stone
step on it
thingamajig
tooling down the road
whatchamacallit
“Traditions and Celebrations”

accepted  
anniversary  
April Fool’s Day  
Arbor Day  
Ash Wednesday  
balloon  
banquet  
belief  
birthday  
birthday cake  
birth stone  
blowing out candles  
candlelight service  
carnival  
caroling  
centennial  
ceremony  
chocolate candies  
Christmas  
Christmas lights  
Christmas tree  
church  
circus  
classmates  
class ring  
contest  
costumes  
culture  
custom  
cutting the cake  
decorating graves  
decorating the cake  
deep-rooted  
Easter  
Easter bunny  
Easter sunrise service  
established  
excitement  
exhibition  
family  
fanfare  
Father’s Day  
feast  
festival  
fireworks  
flag  
Flag Day  

flying flags  
folks  
formal  
four-leaf clover  
Fourth of July  
four  
funeral  
gifts  
glittering  
Good Friday  
grand  
Groundhog Day  
habitual  
Halloween  
ham and raisin sauce  
history  
holiday  
homecoming  
homecoming queen  
honeymoon  
hot dogs  
inauguration  
Independence Day  
jubilee  
kiss  
Labor Day  
Leap Year  
May Day  
memorial  
Memorial Day  
menu  
mistletoe  
Mother’s Day  
Mother’s Day corsage  
National Day of Prayer  
New Year’s Eve  
New Year’s Day  
notation  
pagination  
Palm Sunday  
parades  
Passion Play  
people  
picnics  
pleasant  
popcorn  
posters  

prayer  
presents  
President’s Day  
Prom  
pumpkin pie  
reception  
reindeer  
relatives  
Remembrance Day  
retirement party  
rite  
Rose Bowl  
routine  
Santa Claus  
Secretaries’ Day  
shivaree  
showy  
song  
spanking on birthday  
spectacular  
sporting events  
St. Patrick’s Day  
Super Bowl  
sweethearts  
taffy  
Thanksgiving Day  
throwing rice  
tournament  
treat  
trip  
turkey dinner  
Valentine’s Day  
Valentine’s Day hearts  
Veterans’ Day  
wedding pictures  
weddings  
yearbook  

IDIOMS  
a high old time  
kick up their heels  
out on the town  
paint the town red  
red-letter day  
with flying colors
“Transportation, Travel and Vehicles”

accelerate  
downgrade  
mud flaps  
traffic  
(idioms cont’d)

accident  
driving  
overpass  
traffic ticket  
pedal to the metal  

accommodation  
elevator  
pass  
trailers  
peel out  

acquaintance  
engine  
passenger  
trams  
put on the brakes  

airline  
elevator  
passport  
transcontinental  
side wind  

air planes  
exit ramp  
pickup  
transfer  
smooth sailing  

air port  
express  
propel  
transferal  
tail wind  

air shuttle  
fare  
public  
transit  
thumb a ride  

aisle  
first class  
radar  
transportation  
to go overboard  

ambulance  
flatbed  
repair  
travel agent  
traffic jam  

arrive  
flexibility  
reverse  
tricycle  
wild driver  

automobile  
flight attendant  
roller blades  

axle  
follow  
rough  
truck  

baggage  
forklift  
rudder  

balloon  
gas pump  
sailboat  
underpass  

bicycles  
gate  
sailor  
upkeep  

brake  
gears  
savings  

budget  
grade  
scenic  

bumper  
gravity  
schedule  

bumpy  
sedan  

bus fare  
speed  

bus station  
speeding ticket  

bus stop  
speedometer  

bushed  
service  

canceled  
service station  

cargo  
hang glider  
shift  

carriage  
haul  
shuttle  

carry-on  
homesick  
skateboard  

car show  
hood  
skis  

cart  
hotel  
sled  

change  
hydroplane  
snowmobile  

clutch  
ignition  
spare  

comfort  
incline  
spark plugs  

commercial  
inny  
spectacular  

conductor  
introduce  
speed  

conveyance  
isolated  
speeding ticket  

coordinate  
jet  
speedometer  

corner  
jet lag  
speed trap  

Corvette  
key  
sports car  

cramped  
launch  
sporting events  

crankshaft  
layover  
station  

cruise  
license  
steamboat  

curb  
lifeboat  

curve  
limousine  

cylinder  
lodging  

decelerate  
maintenance  

delay  
motorcycle  

dent  
mechanic  

departure  
median  

deplane  
mobile  

depot  
motel  

destination  
motion sickness  

ticket  
lead in your pants
**“Weather and Climate”**

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<td>rainbow</td>
<td>white-out</td>
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<td>rapid</td>
<td>wind chill</td>
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Lesson Objectives:
Students will demonstrate intelligible pronunciation.
Students will distinguish through hearing and demonstrate correctly through action the
1. Meaning of the verbs *pick up*, *put (on)*, and *give*.
2. Commands *Listen*, *Repeat after me*, *English only*, *In English*, *Everyone together*.
Students will distinguish through hearing and demonstrate correctly through action and speaking
3. Singular and plural forms of concrete items found in the classroom environment.
4. Colors *blue* and *red*.
5. Numbers *one, two, three, four, five, six* .
6. Use of *I/He/She + have/has + a + (noun)* in the present tense, first and third persons singular, *statement format* by responding to the question format *What do you have?*
7. Compound noun phrase in the object position by means of the conjunction *and* in the statement *I/He/she + have/has + a + (noun) + and + (noun)"by responding with an appropriate action.
8. Incorporation of color words *red* and *blue* and number concepts *two, three, four, five, six* in the *statement format* *I/She/He + have/has + (number) + (color) + (noun)*.

Materials:
1. Visuals: 3 pens, 3 books, 3 pencils, 3 notebooks;
2. Number flash cards showing one to six;
3. 4 x 6 cards (blank) and pencil;
4. A flash card showing a question mark (?);
5. Two sets of colored cards, “red” and “blue;” each set should contain 2, 4”x 6” cards, 2, 3”x 5” cards, and 2, 2”x 3” cards (6 cards total each set).

Activities: (see Procedures [below] for detail on activities)
Explain to interpreter ahead of time that he/she will be asked to translate some instructions to the class at the beginning and shouldn’t translate anything else after that unless asked to. Ask the interpreter to translate the following commands on the spot as they occur during class, but she will gradually do no translating:

*Listen*,
*Repeat after me*,
*English only*,
*In English*,
*Everyone*.

1. Have the interpreter tell students the following (or something like the following) in the students’ native language:
   a. *There will be no (Russian, French, etc.) in class after today. No (Russian, French, etc.) allowed in class. English only.*
b. Do not be afraid to make a mistake. That is the only way I can help you learn the correct way.
c. Learn to laugh at yourself, and you can laugh at me when I make a mistake.
d. I am here to help you be comfortable in speaking English.
e. We will work hard and have fun.
f. This is the last time you can use (Russian French, etc.) in this class. Do you have any questions?

2. Common Greetings: Ask students their names. Create a seating chart on 4 x 6 cards based on where students are seated, so you will know their names and can call them by their first names.
   a. Hello, I am . . .
   b. What is your name?
   c. My name is . . .

Listening Comprehension Practice
3. Total Physical Response, using colored cards
4. Total Physical Response, using commands and objects/pictures

Pronunciation practice -- Minimal pairs
5. Have students go around table asking:
   a. Hello, I am . . .
   b. What is your name?

Oral Language Practice
   a. Repetition Drill
7. Introduce I + have + a + (noun) in statement format.
   a. Listening
   b. Repetition Drills (2)
   c. Substitution Drill
8. Introduce: I have a + red/blue + (noun) in statement format I + have + a + (noun).
   a. Repetition Drill
9. Introduce number + color + Noun(s) as in I + have + a + (number) + (color) + papers.
   a. Listening
   b. Repetition Drill
   c. Substitution Drills
10. Introduce question format: What + do + you + have? and response I + have + a + (noun).
    a. Listening
    b. Repetition Drill
    c. Response Drills/Question and Answer
11. Introduce third person singular personal pronoun, he/she in pattern He/She + has + a + (noun).
    a. Listening
    b. Repetition drill
12. Introduce third person singular personal pronouns he/she in context of He/she + has + a + (noun).
    a. Repetition drill
    b. Response Drills/Question and answer
    c. Substitution Drill
13. Introduce statement with number concepts “one” through “six” plus noun as in He + has + (number) + papers, keeping papers constant.
    a. Repetition drill
    b. Response Drills/Question and Answer with substitutions (3)
14. Introduce number concepts “one” through “six” + red/blue + papers as in He/She + has + (number) + (color) + papers, keeping papers constant.
    a. Repetition Drill
    b. Substitution Drill
15. Introduce statement pattern \( He/She/I + have/has + a + (\text{noun}) \) mixing \( I/He/She + have/has \) and keeping a \textit{book} constant. Purpose: students are now thinking \( I \ have, \ She \ has, \ and \ He \ has. \)

a. Repetition Drill

b. Substitution Drills

\section*{Procedures:}

\textit{Listening Comprehension Practice}

1. Total Physical Response, using colored cards.

\begin{enumerate}
\item Say, \textit{Listen} (with translation of the command).
\item Pick any slip of paper and say, \textit{a paper}, at a normal speed. Repeat this with each piece of paper.
\item Then pick up a blue piece of paper, any size, and say, \textit{a blue paper}, repeating for each blue piece of paper. Repeat this action with a piece of red paper.
\item Pick up a blue piece of paper and say, \textit{I pick up a blue paper}.
\item Put it down and say, \textit{I put the blue paper on the table}. Repeat this to be sure your students understand. Then repeat it with the red paper.
\item When you feel that students understand what you have said, push the pieces of paper to the middle of the table so that all students can reach them, and tell students, \textit{Pick up a paper}. If students don’t seem to understand, help by motioning to them to take the paper, or even taking someone’s hand and helping.
\item Then reach out to receive the paper and say, \textit{Give me a paper}. If there is no understanding, take the paper and continue.
\item Do the same with individual students by saying, \textit{Dima, give me a paper}, and so on with other students.
\item Follow up with \textit{Sancho, give Maria a paper}.
\item Repeat with other students and varying \textit{Pick up . . .} and \textit{Give me . . .} and (name), \textit{give} (name) . . .
\item Continue manipulating these patterns until you are sure students understand all the words.
\item Using number flash cards, repeat the exercise using the numbers one, two, three, four, five, six as follows.
\item Pick up two slips of paper, any color, show the numeral two, and say, \textit{two papers}. Repeat this with three, four, five, and so on to six papers.
\item Then pick up any two pieces of paper and say \textit{I pick up two papers}. Repeat this with three, four, five, and so on to six papers.
\item Then pick up two blue papers and say, \textit{I pick up two blue papers}. Repeat this with three blue papers, two and three red papers.
\item Put each paper down on the table, saying \textit{I put two blue papers on the table}. Repeat this with three, four, five, and six papers.
\end{enumerate}

2. Total Physical Response, using objects and action verbs -- utilizing the same format above when colored papers were used.

a. Begin by pointing to an object and naming it, e.g., \textit{book}.
b. Repeat this with every object (e.g., table, pencils, pens, cards, notebooks, etc.).
c. Then point to the object and say the book.
d. Repeat this with every object including table.
e. Then pick up the book and say I pick up the book.
f. Repeat this with other objects except for “table.”
g. When you feel students understand what you have said, push the book (and other objects) to the middle of the table within reach of students and say Pick up the book. If students don’t seem to understand, you can help by motioning to them to take the book, or even taking someone’s hand and helping.
h. Then reach out to receive the book and say, Give me the book. Even if there is no understanding, take the book and continue.
i. Continue with this exercise until students get the idea of Give me . . . and Pick up . . .
j. Continue with Ann, pick up the pencil. Take the pencil and say, Ivan, pick up the pencil. Give the pencil to Ann. Ann, give me the pencil.
k. Continue in the same way, going from Pick up . . . to Give (name) . . .
l. Repeat with the remaining objects.
m. Go back over these steps one more time.

Pronunciation Practice
3. Using minimal pairs, have students repeat the following. Go straight through the list first, saying “Repeat after me.” As students imitate your speech, take note of any problems in pronunciation that occur or minimal pairs that need more practice.
   a. fat – cat
   b. fit – kit
   c. green – mean
   d. drab – crab
   e. train – main
   f. big – bib
   g. school – skill
   h. thick – thin
   i. those – these
   j. sheep – ship
   k. crab – crib
   l. big – bag
   m. fat cat in the hat
   n. wheel a while
   o. cheap – sheep
   p. cheap sheep in the ship

Oral Language Practice
   a. Repetition Drill:
      1) Repeat after me. (with translation of the command)
      2) T -- book (no translation --holding up book)
      3) S -- book
      4) T -- pen (Hold up pen.)
      5) S -- pen
      6) T -- pencil (Hold up pencil.)
      7) S -- pencil
      8) T -- notebook (Hold up notebook.)
      9) S -- notebook
      10) T -- table (Point to table.)
      11) S -- table
12) T -- (Repeat exercise with book, pen, pencil, notebook, table)

5. Introduce a + (noun) in format I + have + a + (noun)
   a. First, say *Listen* (with translation of the command and with finger on lips).
      1) T -- I have a book. (Hold up each object, finger on lips.)
      2) T -- I have a pencil.
      3) T -- I have a notebook.
      4) T -- I have a pen.
   b. Repetition Drill:
      1) T -- *Repeat after me* (with translation of the command).
      2) T -- a book (Hold up book.)
      3) S -- a book
      4) T -- (Repeat with pen, pencil, notebook as class repeats.)
      5) T -- a table (Point to table.)
      6) S -- a table
      7) T -- (Repeat exercise with all items as group repeats.)
   c. Repetition Drill:
      1) T -- *Repeat after me* (without translation of the command unless it seems to be needed).
      2) T -- I have a book. (Hold up book.)
      3) S -- I have a book.
      4) T -- I have a table. (Point to table.)
      5) S -- I have a table.
      6) T -- (Continue with pen, pencil, and notebook.)
      7) T -- (Repeat exercise, varying objects.)
   d. Substitution drill: I + have + a + (noun), keeping pronoun and verb constant and varying object.
      Students respond to the cue with *I have a  + (noun).*
      1) T -- I have a book.
      2) S -- I have a book.
      3) T -- . . . pencil . . .
      4) S -- I have a pencil.
      NOTE: If this doesn’t work, repeat I have a pencil, saying *Repeat after me.*
      5) T -- . . . pencil . . .
      6) S -- I have a pencil.
      7) T -- . . . pen . . .
      8) S -- I have a pen.
      9) T -- . . . notebook . . .
      10) S -- I have a notebook.
      11) T -- . . . table . . .
      12) S -- I have a table.
      13) T -- . . . paper . . .
      14) S -- I have a paper.
      15) T -- (Do this as many times as it seems to be needed. A clue to discontinue is when students seem to be responding quickly and strongly.)

6. Introducing a + red/blue + (noun) in I + have + a + (color) + (noun).
   a. *Repeat after me* (try without translation).
      1) T -- a red paper (Hold up red paper, any size.)
      2) S -- a red paper
      3) T -- a blue paper (Hold up blue paper.)
      4) S -- a blue paper
      5) T -- I have a blue paper.
      6) S -- I have a blue paper.
      7) T -- I have a red paper.
8) S -- I have a red paper.
9) T -- . . . blue paper . . .
10) S -- I have a blue paper.
11) T -- . . . red paper . . .
12) S -- I have a red paper.
13) T -- . . . blue paper . . .
14) S -- I have a blue paper. (… and so on)

7. Introducing (number) + (color) + (noun[s]) in I + have + (number) + (color) + papers.
   a. Listen (finger across lips).
      1) T -- two blue papers
      2) T -- two red papers
      3) T -- three blue papers
      4) T -- three red papers
      5) T -- (Repeat listening exercise.)

   b  Repetition and substitution drills: Repeat after me. (Use gesture inviting group to speak.)
      1) T -- I have two blue papers.
      2) S -- I have two blue papers.
      3) T -- I have two red papers.
      4) S -- I have two red papers.
      5) T -- I have three blue papers.
      6) S -- I have three blue papers.
      7) T -- . . . two blue papers . . .
      8) S -- I have two blue papers.
      9) T -- . . . two red papers . . .
     10) S -- I have two red papers.
     11) T -- . . . three blue papers . . .
     12) S -- I have three blue papers.
     13) T -- (Hold up two blue papers as the cue.)
     14) S -- I have two blue papers.
     15) T -- (Hold up two red papers as the cue.)
     16) S -- I have two red papers.
     17) T -- (Hold up three blue papers as the cue.)
     18) S -- I have three blue papers.
     19) T -- (Hold up three red papers as the cue.)
     20) S -- I have three red papers.

   c. Substitution drill mixing objects, colors, singular/plural, and numbers: Repeat after me.
      1) T -- I have a book.
      2) S -- I have a book.
      3) T -- . . . paper . . .
      4) S -- I have a paper.
      5) T -- (Hold up two papers, any color.)
      6) S -- I have two papers.
      7) T -- (Hold up a pencil.)
      8) S -- I have a pencil.
      9) T -- (Hold up a pen.)
     10) S -- I have a pen.
     11) T -- . . . table . . .
     12) S -- I have a table.
     13) T -- . . . red paper . . .
     14) S -- I have a red paper.
     15) T -- . . . two red papers . . .
16) S -- I have two red papers.
17) T -- . . . two pencils . . .
18) S -- I have two pencils.
19) T -- . . . a notebook . . .
20) S -- I have a notebook.

8. Introducing question format: What + do + you + have? and response I + have + a + (noun).
   a. Listen (finger across lips)
      1) T -- What do you have?  I have a pencil. (Hold up a pencil.)
      2) T -- What do you have?  I have a pen. (Hold up a pen.)
      3) T -- What do you have?  I have a book. (Hold up a book.)
      4) T -- What do you have?  I have a table. (Touch the table.)
      5) T -- What do you have?  I have a notebook. (Hold up notebook.)
   b. Repetition Drill: Repeat after me.
      1) T -- What do you have?  I have a notebook. (Hold up a notebook.)
      2) S -- What do you have?  I have a notebook.
      3) T -- What do you have?  I have a pen. (Hold up a pen.)
      4) S -- What do you have?  I have a pen.
      5) T -- What do you have?  I have a book. (Hold up a book.)
      6) S -- What do you have?  I have a book.
      7) T -- What do you have?  I have a notebook. (Hold up notebook.)
      8) S -- What do you have?  I have a notebook.
      9) T -- What do you have?  I have a book. (Hold up a pen.)
     10) S -- What do you have?  I have a book.
     11) T -- What do you have?  I have a notebook. (Hold up notebook.)
     12) S -- What do you have?  I have a notebook.
   c. Substitution drill:
      1) T -- What do you have? (Hold up a paper.)
      2) S -- I have a paper.
      3) T -- What do you have? (Touch the table.)
      4) S -- I have a table.
      5) T -- What do you have? (Hold up a book.)
      6) S -- I have a book.
      7) T -- What do you have? (Hold up a pen.)
      8) S -- I have a pen.
      9) T -- What do you have? (Hold up a pencil.)
     10) S -- I have a pencil.
     11) T -- What do you have? (Hold up a notebook.)
     12) S -- I have a notebook.

9. Introduce third person singular subject pronoun, he/she in pattern He/She + has + a + (noun).
   a. Listen (finger over lips)
      1) T -- Say: . . . he . . . (Point to a male.) (Do this for every male in the class.)
      2) T -- Say: . . . she . . . (Point to a female.) (Do this for every female in the class.)
   b. Repetition Drill: Repeat after me.
      1) T -- . . . he . . . (Point to a male.)
      2) S -- . . . he . . .
      3) T -- (Go around the class with all the males and class repeating he.)
      4) T -- . . . she . . . (Point to each female.)
      5) S -- . . . she . . .
      6) T -- (Go around the class with all the males and class repeating he.)
7) T -- (Randomly point to male or female, gesturing that you want students to say correctly *he* or *she*.)

10. Introduce third person singular personal pronouns *he/she* in context of *He/she* + has + a + (noun).

a. Repetition drill: *Repeat after me*
   1) T -- *She has a book.* (Hand book to a female.)
   2) S -- *She has a book.*
   3) T -- *She has a book.* (Hand book to another female.)
   4) S -- *She has a book.*
   5) T -- *She has a book.* (Hand book to yet another female.)
   6) S -- *She has a book.*
   7) T -- (Repeat for all the girls.)
   8) T -- *He has a book.* (Hand book to a male.)
   9) S -- *He has a book.*
  10) T -- (Repeat for all the males and with students repeating.)
  11) T -- (Repeat this as many times as is necessary.)

b. Response Drill/Question and Answer: keeping *he* constant and changing object (each time pointing to a male)
   1) T -- *What does he have?* (Hold up book.)
   2) S -- *He has a book.*
   3) T -- *What does he have?* (Hold up pencil.)
   4) S -- *He has a pencil.*
   5) T -- *What does he have?* (Hold up pen.)
   6) S -- *He has a pen.*
   7) T -- *What does he have?* (Hold up notebook.)
   8) S -- *He has a notebook.*
   9) T -- *What does he have?* (Touch table.)
  10) S -- *He has a table.*
  11) T -- *What does he have?* (Hold up paper.)
  12) S -- *He has a paper.*
  13) T -- (Go over this drill until students respond quickly.)

c. Response Drill/Question and Answer: Repeat same drill, using *she* instead of *he*, and pointing to a female each time.
   1) T -- *What does she have?* (Hold up book.)
   2) S -- *She has a book.*
   3) T -- ... and so on, until all the female students have been used as an example)

d. Substitution drill: Hold up objects and ask a question, *What does he/she have?* Students will respond with “*He/She* + has + a + (noun).” Point to females and males randomly.
   1) T -- ... *she* ... (Hand pencil to a female.)
   2) S -- *She has a pencil.*
   3) T -- ... *He* ... (Hand book to a male.)
   4) S -- *He has a book.*
   5) T -- ... *she* ... (Hand book to a female.)
   6) S -- *She has a book.*
   7) T -- ... *she* ... (Hand pen to a female.)
   8) S -- *She has a pen.*
   9) T -- ... *she* ... (Hand book to a female)
   10) S -- *She has a book.*
   11) T -- ... *he* ... (Hand notebook to a male.)
   12) S -- *He has a notebook.*
   13) T -- (Continue exercise using different objects and randomly presenting *he* and *she* as cues; go over this several times.)
11. Introduce statement with (number/1-6) + (noun) as in He + has + (number) + papers, keeping papers constant.

a. Repetition drill: Repeat after me.

   1) T -- He has two papers. (Point to a male and hold up two papers or a number flash card with 2 on it and one piece of paper.)
   2) S -- He has two papers.
   3) T -- She has three papers. (Point to a female and hold up three papers.)
   4) S -- She has three papers.
   5) T -- She has four papers. (Point to a female and hold up four papers.)
   6) S -- She has four papers.
   7) T -- He has five papers. (Point to a male and hold up five papers.)
   8) S -- He has five papers.
   9) T -- He has six papers. (Point to a male and hold up six papers.)
  10) S -- He has six papers.
  11) T -- She has five papers. (Point to a female and hold up five papers.)
  12) S -- She has five papers.
  13) T -- He has six papers. (Point to a male and hold up six papers.)
  14) S -- He has six papers.
  15) T -- (Continue the exercise varying he and she and the numbers one to six.)

b. Response Drill/Question and Answer: Asking question, What does she have? keeping she constant, paper(s) constant, and substituting “number,” one to six. Students responding with She + has + (number) + papers.

   1) T -- What does she have? (Hold up two papers, any color.)
   2) S -- She has two papers.
   3) T -- What does she have? (Hold up three papers.)
   4) S -- She has three papers.
   5) T -- ( . . . and so on, varying the number of papers)

  c. Response Drill/Question and Answer: Asking question, What does he have? keeping he constant and paper(s) constant and substituting “number,” one to six. Students responding with He + has + (number) + papers.

   1) T -- What does he have? (Hold up two papers, any color.)
   2) S -- He has two papers.
   3) T -- ( . . . and so on, varying the number of papers)

  d. Response Drill/Question and Answer: Asking question, What does he/she have? varying he and she, keeping paper(s) constant, and substituting “number,” one to six. Students respond with He/she + has + (number) + papers. Students must listen for whether he or she is included in the question and respond accordingly.

   1) T -- What does he have? (Hold up two papers.)
   2) S -- He has two papers.
   3) T -- What does he have? (Hold up two papers.)
   4) S -- He has two papers.
   5) T -- What does she have? (Hold up three papers.)
   6) S -- She has three papers.
   7) T -- What does she have? (Hold up three papers.)
   8) S -- She has three papers.
   9) T -- What does she have? (Hold up four papers.)
  10) S -- She has four papers.
  11) T -- (Continue exercise, varying he and she and varying the number of papers, until students respond correctly and readily.)

12. Introduce number words (1-3) + red/blue + papers, as in He/She + has + (number) + (color) + papers, keeping papers constant.
a. Repetition drill: *Repeat after me.*

1) T -- *She has two red papers.* (Hold up two red papers.)
2) S -- *She has two red papers.*
3) T -- *He has three red papers.* (Hold up three red papers.)
4) S -- *He has three red papers.*
5) T -- *She has two blue papers.* (Hold up two blue papers.)
6) S -- *She has two blue papers.*
7) T -- *He has three blue papers.* (Hold up three blue papers.)
8) S -- *He has three blue papers.*
9) T -- *She has two red papers.* (Hold up two red papers.)
10) S -- *She has two red papers.*

b. Substitution drill: Varying *he/she* and (number) + (color) + *papers.*

1) T -- *Repeat after me -- She has two red papers.*
2) S -- *She has two red papers.*
3) T -- . . . *she . . .* (Hold up two red papers.)
4) S -- *She has two red papers.*
5) T -- . . . *he . . * (Hold up two red papers.)
6) S -- *He has two red papers.*
7) T -- . . . *he . . * (Hold up three red papers.)
8) S -- *He has three red papers.*
9) T -- . . . *he . . * (Hold up two red papers.)
10) S -- *He has two red papers.*
11) T -- . . . *he . . * (Hold up three blue papers.)
12) S -- *He has three blue papers.*
13) T -- (Continue the exercise, varying *he/she* and varying the number/1-3 and color of papers until students seem comfortable and respond readily.)

13. Introduce statement pattern *He/She/I + have/has + a + (noun)*, mixing *I/He/She + have/has* and keeping *a book* constant. Purpose: students are now thinking *I have, She has,* and *He has.*

a. Repetition drill: *Repeat after me*

1) T -- *I have a book.*
2) S -- *I have a book.*
3) T -- *She has a book.*
4) S -- *She has a book.*
5) T -- *He has a book.*
6) S -- *He has a book.*
7) T -- *She has a book.*
8) S -- *She has a book.*
9) T -- *I have a book.*
10) S -- *I have a book.*

b. Substitution drill: Same exercise, except *I, He,* and *She* are substituted. Students must make a decision between *have* and *has.*

1) T -- *Repeat after me. I have a book.*
2) S -- *I have a book.*
3) T -- *He has a book.*
4) S -- *He has a book.*
5) T -- *She has a book.*
6) S -- *She has a book.*
7) T -- . . . *she . . *
8) S -- *She has a book.*
9) T -- . . . *he . . *
10) S -- *He has a book.*
c. Substitution drill: Same exercise, varying I/He/She and the object -- a book, a pencil etc., gradually moving into a double-slot substitution – (PN) + have + a + (noun).
1) T -- Repeat after me. I have a pencil.
2) S -- I have a pencil.
3) T -- He has a pencil.
4) S -- He has a pencil.
5) T -- book . . .
6) S -- He has a book.
7) T -- She . . .
8) S -- She has a book.
9) T -- pencil . . .
10) S -- She has a pencil.
11) T -- notebook . . .
12) S -- She has a notebook.
13) T -- He . . .
14) S -- He has a notebook.
15) T -- He . . . a pencil.
16) S -- He has a pencil.
17) T -- She . . . a pencil.
18) S -- She has a pencil.
19) T -- I . . . a pencil.
20) S -- I have a pencil.
21) T -- (Continue with exercise, moving back and forth between one and two substitutions and varying the pronoun and the object until students respond readily and correctly.)

14. Review:
a. TPR: Go back over initial TPR exercise and review.

15. TPR: Introduce new material for Lesson 2.
a. Lesson 2: give, me, put, to, black, yellow, take.
1) Utilize the format and sequence of today’s TPR lesson using colored paper, adding black and yellow, and the numbers 1 to 12.
2) Present some of what will be in the TPR lesson for Lesson 2 in a brief way but sufficiently to implant new material in students’ memory.

Evaluation plan:
Use the answers to these questions to start planning for Lesson 2.
1. Listening Comprehension: Did students correctly identify the nouns?
2. Listening Comprehension: Did students comprehend the action verbs?
3. Did students identify colors?
4. Did students use to have correctly in first and third persons singular?
5. Were there any pronunciation problems?
6. Were they able to incorporate color words and number words in sentences?
7. Were they able to recognize the intonation pattern of a question?
8. Did students respond quickly to the commands in English?
9. How did the colored paper exercise work?
10. Did students grasp the personal pronouns?

Recommendations for Lesson 2