The teacher's guide accompanying the Pre-GED (General Educational Development) Level I writing skills student workbook of the PATHWAYS Curriculum deals with: (1) correct usage of the parts of speech, (2) sentence structure; (3) paragraph development; and (4) correct usage of punctuation and capitalization. The guide provides for each lesson in the workbook a concise explanation of each skill, suggested teaching strategies for presenting the skills, answers to the exercises, and a list of available commercial materials that may be used to supplement the exercises in the workbook. The preface of the guide describes in detail the components of the culture-based GED preparatory reading and writing curriculum for American Indian adult education students. (ERB)
PATHWAYS
An Adult Pre-GED Writing Skills Workbook
Level I
Teacher's Guide
PATHWAYS

AN ADULT PRE-GED WRITING SKILLS WORKBOOK
Level I

TEACHER'S GUIDE

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PREFACE
TO THE TEACHER

This guide is part of a culture-based, GED preparatory reading and writing curriculum for adult education students. Based on skills/area analysis of the simulated GED examination, all skills needed to pass the reading and writing sections of the GED (General Educational Development) exam have been compiled into the sequential, systematic program of study this curriculum encompasses.

In addition to providing a sequential, systematic approach to adult education instruction, the curriculum is unique in that it is completely culture-based. Utilizing Southwestern Indian myths, legends, poems, history, and information on religious beliefs, architecture, fine arts, music, dance, and social practices, the student workbooks present well-researched, accurate information about the rich heritage of Indian cultures of the Southwest. It is thus hoped not only that the workbooks will provide a welcome alternative to the too-often dry material found in commercial texts but also that the student's task of assimilating standard GED concepts and skills will be made both easier and more enjoyable.

The workbooks emphasize student-generated writing. This emphasis is achieved in two ways: the student is asked to write brief, one-sentence answers to questions in the exercises, and the student is given instruction and practice in composing short narratives as well as paragraphs. The reason for this is two-fold. First, traditionally, literacy programs for adult education students have focused on the teaching of reading and spoken English; the teaching of written composition, unfortunately, has received little or no emphasis. Second, although the GED exam, at present, assesses the student's mastery of the mechanics
of writing rather than his/her ability to compose a sentence, paragraph, or essay on a given topic, it is the bias of this author that the ability to do so is essential. Good composition skills are necessary in real-life situations ranging from having to write a letter to a landlord to completing an assigned task of composing a brief letter for an employer. The student who demonstrates writing proficiency not only will be a promising candidate for employment but also will be likely to advance more rapidly, once hired, than will the student who lacks the ability to express himself or herself in writing.

The curriculum consists of a continuum of skills, six student workbooks including unit tests, and six accompanying teacher's guides. The curriculum may be used either for individualized or group instruction. Each of the components is described below.

CONTINUUM OF SKILLS

The Continuum of Basic Reading and Writing Skills contains a scope and sequence of reading and writing skills for grade levels three (3) through eight (8). It identifies those skills which should be introduced at each grade level (3-8), and it indicates the order in which each skill should be presented. The determination of the scope (how many and what kind) and sequence (in what order) of skills in the Continuum is based not only on the GED requisites but also on extensive research of successful adult education and developmental English programs.

The purpose of the Continuum is to provide a suprastructure for an instructor or administrator who wishes to develop a total ABE/Pre-GED reading and writing skills curriculum for grade levels three (3) through eight (8). Although it is designed to be used with the corresponding student workbooks and teacher's guides, the Continuum may also be used independently of them to serve as a guide for structuring an ABE/Pre-GED program, using other available materials.
STUDENT WORKBOOKS

There are six student workbooks, three each in reading and writing. The workbooks and their corresponding grade levels are listed below.

**Reading Workbooks**

- Pre-GED Level I: 6th grade
  - Readability = 5.7 - 6.9
- Pre-GED Level II: 7th grade
  - Readability = 6.5 - 7.9
- Pre-GED Level III: 8th grade
  - Readability = 7.5 - 9.0

**Writing Workbooks**

- Pre-GED Level I: 6th grade
  - Readability = 5.7 - 6.9
- Pre-GED Level II: 7th grade
  - Readability = 6.5 - 7.9
- Pre-GED Level III: 8th grade
  - Readability = 7.5 - 9.0

Readability formulas have been applied to all selections to ensure the appropriate level of difficulty.

The organization of both the reading and the writing workbooks is the same. The workbooks observe the scope and sequence detailed in the Continuum for grade levels 6, 7, and 8.

In some instances individual skills listed in the Continuum do not appear in the student workbooks. In an attempt to control the scope of the workbooks, certain skills of secondary importance to the acquisition of a GED have been omitted. The coding of skills in the workbooks, however, remains consistent with that of skills listed in the Continuum.

Each lesson instructs a skill. The lesson begins with an information presentation section wherein the particular skill or concept is explained to the student and examples are provided. Next, exercises requiring application of the skill or concept presented are provided for the student. The items in each exercise are written in multiples of four (4, 8, 12, 16, 20, etc.), thus enabling the teacher to use a consistent criterion for measuring mastery of a given skill. (The
author recommends that a student should receive a score of at least 75% on each lesson before proceeding. If additional reinforcement of a skill is needed, the teacher should refer to the supplemental materials list in the teacher's guide.)

All related, individual skills are presented in the workbooks in units. For example, in the reading workbooks all of the individual skills used in comprehension (i.e., main idea, cause and effect, sequence, etc.) are contained in a unit called "Comprehension." Likewise, in the writing workbooks individual skills required for mastery of grammar (i.e., noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, etc.) are contained in a unit called "Parts of Speech." Individual lessons in a unit should be completed in sequence, since the later lessons are based on concepts presented in previous lessons.

At the end of each unit, a unit test has been included in the student workbook to enable the teacher to measure the student's mastery of the skills contained in the unit.

At the end of each student workbook is provided a glossary which includes all literary, grammatical, and technical terms used in that workbook. The glossary is designed, primarily, to bring to a student's mind a forgotten definition or to clarify a difficult term. For further explanation, the student should, of course, consult the appropriate section of the workbook.

TEACHER'S GUIDES
A comprehensive teacher's guide accompanies each student workbook. It is the author's belief that adult education instructors will more effectively teach any and all reading and writing skills if specific teaching methods and materials are available. Therefore, for each skill, the teacher's guide contains a concise explanation of the skill, suggested teaching strategies, answers, and a list of available
commercial materials (specific pages cited) which may be used to supplement the exercises in the workbook.

The need for specialized methods of instruction in adult education is widely acknowledged. The teaching strategies recommended in this guide observe accepted practices for instructing adults (i.e., aural-oral, oral-to-written, verbal, and other second-language approaches). Further, recognizing the possibility that some adult education instructors and aides may not have received formal training in teaching methodology, the guide presents detailed, step-by-step instructions for implementing the suggested strategies.

Instructional strategies for use of the materials in both an individualized and a group instructional setting are presented. Also, for each skill the guide contains a list of supplemental materials with specific page numbers cited. The materials suggested may be used to provide additional reinforcement, if needed. This list is not exhaustive; additional materials may be added according to individual program needs.

Program directors and teachers should refer to the Implementation Handbook for further information on the use and implementation of the curriculum. The Implementation Handbook contains sections on Understanding the Native American Learner (includes learning styles); Overview of Curriculum Components: Diagnoses, Evaluation, and Placement; Effective Teaching; Classroom Management; and Recordkeeping (includes student tracking charts).

A final note: Because of traditional Navajo beliefs, Coyote stories are told only during the winter months. In recognition of this cultural restriction, the instructor may wish to excuse the Navajo student from those lessons containing Coyote stories except during these months.
KEY TO SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Publisher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BBSR</td>
<td>Building Basic Skills in Reading</td>
<td>Contemporary Books, Inc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBSW</td>
<td>Building Basic Skills in Writing</td>
<td>Contemporary Books, Inc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BL-SSS</td>
<td>Specific Skills Series</td>
<td>Barnell-Loft, Ltd.</td>
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<td>BSG</td>
<td>Basic Skills in Grammar</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coping 4</td>
<td>Coping 4, How to Get a Job</td>
<td>Perfection Form Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td>English Essentials</td>
<td>Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EG-KET</td>
<td>English Grammar</td>
<td>Kentucky Educational Television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EW</td>
<td>Everyday Writing</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPP</td>
<td>From Pictures to Passages</td>
<td>Contemporary Books, Inc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GED-SB/DWS</td>
<td>GED Scorebooster, Developing Writing Skills</td>
<td>Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE (Cam IE)</td>
<td>Introduction to English</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IYV</td>
<td>Increase Your Vocabulary</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDL</td>
<td>Language in Daily Living</td>
<td>Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LE</td>
<td>Language Exercises</td>
<td>Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOL</td>
<td>Learning Our Language</td>
<td>Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGLS</td>
<td>Pre-GED Language Skills</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGRS</td>
<td>Pre-GED Reading Skills</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGW</td>
<td>Pre-GED Writing Skills</td>
<td>McGraw-Hill Book Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFC (RC)</td>
<td>Reading for Comprehension</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SF</td>
<td>Culture, People, Messages</td>
<td>Scott, Foresman &amp; Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIL</td>
<td>Skills in Language</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
</tr>
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<td>Skills in Reading</td>
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<td>Spelling</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPS (CSPS)</td>
<td>Skill Power Series</td>
<td>Cambridge Book Co.</td>
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<td>Adult Reading Series, A Sequential Program</td>
<td>Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>SNE</td>
<td>The New Streamlined English Series</td>
<td>New Readers Press</td>
</tr>
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</table>

viii
## CONTENTS

Acknowledgements ii  
Preface: To the Teacher iii  
Key to Supplemental Materials viii

### Unit I: Parts of Speech

| Collective nouns | 2 |
| Mass and count nouns | 3 |
| Noun used as indirect object | 5 |
| Demonstrative pronouns | 6 |
| Indefinite pronouns | 7 |
| Pronoun used as subject and direct object | 8 |
| Reflexive pronouns | 9 |
| Possessive pronouns | 10 |
| Present perfect tense | 11 |
| Past perfect tense | 12 |

### Articles

| Descriptive adjectives | 13 |
| Possessive adjectives | 14 |
| Demonstrative adjectives | 15 |
| Comparison of adjectives | 16 |
| Use of adverbs | 17 |
| Adverb as modifier of adjective or adverb | 18 |
| Negative and emphatic adverbs | 19 |
| Comparison of adverbs | 20 |
| Prepositional words and phrases | 21 |
| Conjunctions and their use | 22 |

### Unit II: Sentence Structure

| Compound subjects and verbs | 23 |
| Complete, incomplete, and run-on sentences | 24 |

Unit I Post-Test: Parts of Speech 33
Subject-Verb agreement
Verb used as adjective
Unit II Post-Test: Sentence Structure

Unit III: Paragraph Development
- Characteristics of paragraph
- Descriptive paragraph writing
- Deductive paragraph writing
- Sequence in narrative writing
- Dialogue in narrative writing
Unit III Post-Test: Paragraph Development

Unit IV: Punctuation
- Use of comma in a series, after introductory words, in direct quotations
- Use of comma in a compound sentence
- Use of comma with introductory phrases
- Semicolon in compound sentence without conjunction
- Quotation marks in titles
- Apostrophe in contractions and possessives
- Apostrophe in dates
- Underlining in titles of books and periodicals
- Hyphen in end-of-line word division
- Hyphen in a two-word adjective before noun

Unit V: Capitalization
- Use of capitals in abbreviations, titles, organizations, places
- Use of capitals in languages, races, nationalities, religions
Units IV & V Post-Test: Punctuation/Capitalization
UNIT 1
I. PARTS OF SPEECH

A.1. Collective nouns

A collective noun is a noun which, by definition, is made up of a number of individual parts; it names a group.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. To instill the concept of collective noun, give student 4 or 5 collective nouns orally and ask student to tell you what items or parts make up that group.

   Ex: A tribe is made up of members.

ANSWERS:

1. C
2. H
3. D
4. B
5. A
6. G
7. E
8. F

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

PGLS, p. 58
I.A.2. Noun used as subject and object of verb

A noun used as subject of the verb tells who or what performs the action of the verb. A noun used as a direct object tells who or what receives the action of the verb.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Supply list of five action verbs (speak(s), chased, ate, etc.). Ask student to supply words that tell who or what performs the actions.


   Using the same verbs, ask students to tell who or what receives the action of the verb.

   Ex: What does my mother speak? My mother speaks Navajo.

   This may be done orally or in writing.

2. Using the cloze technique, have student supply a subject or object noun.

   Ex: Tom hit ______. The snow covered the ______. ______ are hot in Arizona. ______ is hard to find in a desert.

   ANSWERS:

   1. Cocopahs; rafts
   2. Hopis; dolls
   3. Cocopahs; rice
   4. Pimas; tools
   5. Women; crops
   6. Children; kachinas
   7. Mojavans; dolls
   8. Men; fields

   Answers will vary, but make sure that these nouns are in the subject position. Usually they will be the first word in a sentence.

   1. medicine men
   2. hogan
   3. Spanish settlers
   4. education

   Answers will vary. Make sure these nouns are in the direct object position. They may be the last word in a sentence or may provide a prepositional phrase.

   1. wick ups
   2. corn
   3. kachinas; dolls
   4. birth
I.A.2. Noun used as subject and object of verb

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
GED-SB: DWS, pp. 23-36
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 28-29
LDL, p. 45
PGLS, pp. 23-25

A mass noun is a noun which cannot be counted. For example, one does not say one water, two waters, three waters. A count noun is countable; it may be counted. For example, one says one dog, two dogs, three dogs.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This is a very difficult concept for non-native English speakers, but they need to understand that not all nouns in English are pluralized. Ask them to visualize water or milk. Do they see it in parts or in a continuous stream? (The latter). Then ask them to visualize a bracelet or ring—is it an object? (Yes). Can you have another one, a third, a fourth? (Yes). If possible, do this example with "props"—the bracelet, some water, etc.

2. Give students three or four examples of count nouns. Then ask them to look around the room and name four more. Then, give student examples of mass nouns. Ask students to look outside and find three or four mass nouns. (Ex: sky).

ANSWERS:

1. C
2. C
3. M
4. C
5. M
6. M
7. C
8. C

Answers will vary.

1. Ex: pens
2. Ex: cars
3. Ex: land
4. Ex: water

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

PGLS, pp. 59-61
I.A.4. Noun used as indirect object

An indirect object is a noun (or pronoun) which comes before the direct object in a sentence and tells for whom or to whom the action of the verb is done.

Subject + verb + **indirect object** + direct object

Ex: He + threw + Guy + the blanket.

**TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:**

1. Write several short sentences containing Subject + Verb + Direct Object. Ask student to insert a noun in the indirect object position.

2. Act out sentence containing indirect and direct object. (Ex: Give a pencil to a student. Then ask the student to write a sentence explaining what you did. For example, "Teacher gave John a pencil."

**ANSWERS:**

1. families
   The medicine men told stories of mystery and magic to their families.

2. Acomas
   Spaniards brought the Catholic religion to the Acomas.

3. Rabbit
   Coyote sneaked a second piece of meat to/for Rabbit.

4. father
   He often wrote letters to his father from boarding school.

5. clan
   He built three separate hogans for his clan.

6. patient
   The Singer made four sandpaintings for his patient in four days.

7. sons
   The Apache warrior had carved three war shields for his sons.

8. First People
   Spider Woman spun a web for the First People that reached through the sky to the Fourth World.

**SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:**

BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 32-33
I.B.1. Demonstrative pronouns

There are only four demonstrative pronouns, so the student should memorize them: this, that, these, those. Demonstrative pronouns point out which one. Remember that there are also demonstrative adjectives, which are the same words. The demonstrative pronouns are used as subjects (or objects), while the demonstrative adjectives are used as adjectives preceding a noun.

EX: That is a long story! (Pronoun used as subject)

That song is so sad! (in this case, song is the subject and that is an adjective modifying song).

Make sure you keep this distinction in mind when reviewing the lesson with the students. Give them examples of pronouns only, however; don't confuse them with adjectives.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Walk around the room and point to various things, using a demonstrative pronoun as subject. Ex: "This is my book," or "These are my shoes." Then have student do the same. If student uses demonstrative adjectives instead of pronouns, start over, and use the same pattern until student uses the pattern:

   This ---- is ---- my book
subject ---- verb ---- complement.

2. For second part of exercise, remind student that he/she chose is or are in the spoken sentences according to whether the subject was singular (that or this) or plural (these or those). Have student point to 3 or 4 additional objects, making sure student uses the correct form of the verb. Then, ask student to write 4 sentences, one for each demonstrative pronoun. Thus, student's sentences will start with this, that, these, or those. Make sure student uses correct form of verb.

ANSWERS:

1. This
2. those
3. This
4. These
5. that
6. This
7. That; these
8. this

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 2, 24
PEW, Bk. 1, p. 18
I.B.2. Indefinite pronouns

An indefinite pronoun tells who or how many without specifically naming the person or telling how many.

Ex: Some of the rugs were wet; a few of the boys were dirty.

Some indefinite pronouns are singular; some are plural. They are invariably this way. Student does not have to know this at this point, but you should keep this in mind for correct subject/verb agreement later.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>somebody/someone</td>
<td>many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>each</td>
<td>all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anybody/anyone</td>
<td>few</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neither/either</td>
<td>several</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some</td>
<td>both</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, you'll also have to remember that some of these words can be used as adjectives. (Some rugs were on sale; rugs is the subject, not some); so be sure to use a pronoun as subject in your example. The easiest way to do this is to begin the sentence with the indefinite pronoun. All you want the student to do at this point is recognize the pronoun.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Give the student about 3 sentences orally, beginning each sentence with the pronoun. Then, have student do the same. Student should have no trouble using the pattern and thinking up examples, but make sure student uses pronouns, not adjectives. If student persists, supply the first word of the sentence for student, using examples which can function only as pronouns, never as adjectives.

Ex: none; someone; anybody; nothing.

2. If student uses words as adjectives instead of pronouns, the teacher should make a short explanation and then proceed. Tell student that more detailed explanation will be given when class works with adjectives.

ANSWERS:

1. somebody  7. none
2. each  8. Neither
3. many  9. both
4. all  10. someone
5. any  11. none
6. several  12. anybody
I.B.2. Indefinite pronouns

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 2, 25
REW, Bk. 1, p. 72
I.B.3. Pronoun used as subject and direct object

Remember, the subject pronouns are I, you; he, she, it; who, we, they.

Object pronouns are me, you, him, her, it, whom, us, them.

Only you and it stay the same.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Ask student to give you a sentence using she. Then a sentence using her. Then one sentence using I, and one using me. If student uses these words in the correct position (subject or object), let student do exercise.

2. If student has trouble, write a sentence on the board, minus the subject.

Ex: ___________ looked for the sheep.

Have student fill in subject position with various pronouns. Then, write a sentence minus the direct object.

Ex: You don't like ___________

Have student fill in blank with appropriate object pronouns.

ANSWERS:

1. she; she; him
2. You; I; him
3. we; we; him
4. We; I; you; it
5. they; them
6. they; them
7. me; who
8. he; her

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SK:DWS, pp. 23-36
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 70-72
LDL, Bk. 1, pp. 45, 18
LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 9-13
IE, pp. 18-23
PGLS, pp. 128-131
I.B.4. Reflexive pronouns

These are the reflexive pronouns: *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, oneself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.* Note that the plural forms end in *-selves* and that, for this type of pronoun only, the singular and plural forms of *you* are different (*yourself, yourselves*). Reflexive pronouns send the action back upon the doer, emphasizing that the subject does the action to itself or by itself.

Ex: She hurt *herself* while playing ball.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. For this exercise, the student has only to write the correct form in the blanks. As with other types of pronouns, rote memorization is necessary if the student is not familiar with these pronouns. Once the student knows the forms, he/she should have no trouble using them. The student will almost always put the reflexive pronoun in the correct place, but may use an incorrect form (*they hurt *themselves*). This is why memorization of the forms is necessary.

2. Use the memorized forms in a drill:

   She dressed *herself.*
   He dressed *himself.*
   They dressed *themselves.*
   etc.

   Try a couple more drills if the student is having trouble. Remember to use verbs that convey action one can do to oneself.

3. Ask student what he/she did this morning or last night to *herself* or *himself.* Student should give responses such as "I washed myself." Then have student tell what other members of his/her family did, eliciting such responses as "My sister hurt *herself*" or "My brother cut the wood *himself.*"

ANSWERS:

1. *themselves*
2. *himself*
3. *himself/itself*
4. *themselves*
5. *herself*
6. *myself*
7. *yourselves*
8. *myself*

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

IE, pp. 71-72
LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 16-19
BBSW I, pp. 154-156
PGLS, pp. 132-133
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 114-115
I.B.5. Possessive pronouns

A possessive pronoun tells whose something is. Possessive pronouns are mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Again, people often confuse possessive pronouns with possessive adjectives (my, your, her, etc.). The student won't get confused if you don't insert any adjective into your presentation. In this case, identification should be pretty easy as long as the adjectives, which, after all, have a different form, are left out of the lesson. Show students a list of possessive pronouns, then have them do a drill similar to the last lesson:

   The book on the table is mine.
   The book on the table is yours.
   The book on the table is theirs.
   etc.

   Make sure students supply pronoun forms, not adjectives.

2. If student is having trouble, point out that with possessive pronouns, you can always hear a z sound at the end of the word (except for mine). Have student say the pronouns and hear the sound.

3. Give the student 4 or 5 objects for which he/she can write a sentence with a possessive pronoun. Ex: dress, necklace, lunch, car, child. Have the student supply rest of sentence, so that responses should follow this pattern:

   The child is hers.
   That car is mine.
   etc.

   ANSWERS:

   1. yours, mine
   2. hers, his
   3. hers
   4. theirs
   5. yours
   6. theirs; ours
   7. mine; his
   8. yours; mine

   SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

   LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 13-16
   BBSW I, pp. 147-150
   PGLS, pp. 142-148
   Rew, Bk. 1, p. 113
I.B.6. Pronoun used as indirect object

An indirect object tells to whom or for whom the action is done. Ex: He wove his son a sash; son is the indirect object, telling for whom the sash was woven. When pronouns are used as indirect objects, use the same form as for direct objects: me, you, her, him, it, us, them, whom.

Ex: Give me something to drink!

Also remember that the indirect object always comes before the direct object.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. It's best to start with prepositional phrases and have student change the sentence to one in which an indirect object is used:

   Ex: I threw the ball to him.
       I threw him the ball.

   I gave the pencil to you.
   I gave you the pencil.

   I drew a circle for her on the paper.
   I drew her a circle on her paper.

   Accompany this drill by actually demonstrating all these actions. Then, have student do 2 or 3 actions, reciting the sentence while doing the action. Listen for correct placement of the indirect object.

2. Do a drill in which student simply supplies alternate indirect object pronouns in a given sentence:

   Give me the book.
   Give her the book.
   Give them the book.
   etc.

   ANSWERS:

   1. her
   2. them
   3. me
   4. her
   5. him; him
   6. her
   7. them
   8. us

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 9-13
PGLS, pp. 128-130
LE-Gold Book, p. 103
I.C.1. Present progressive tense

The present progressive tense is used to tell what is happening at the moment. It implies a transitory state; that is, that the action will be finished at some point in the future. It is formed with the present tense of the verb BE (is, am, or are) and the -ing form, also called the present participle, of another verb. Ex: I am going; she is crying. The adverb, if there is one, comes between the two parts of the verb.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This is not a difficult lesson, so don't spend too much time reminding the student that the verb form consists of two words, and so forth. The student should be familiar enough with the form to follow the example given in the correct pattern. However, if the student has difficulty, have him/her do a drill, where student supplies different verbs for the same subject. You write the subjects on the board, varying them between nouns and pronouns, thus:

He __________ to school.
My brother __________ home.
Angela __________ to paint.
Joe __________ too fast.
etc.

Do this drill only long enough for the student to be able to supply verbs easily.

2. In order to expand student's use of action verbs, have student repeat the same sentence over 5 or 6 times, changing only the verb:

He is __________ over the grass.

(running; walking; leaping; crawling; jumping; sauntering)

This kind of drill is very good for encouraging student to get away from standard verbs, such as walking.

ANSWERS:

1. am going
2. am trying
3. are asking
4. is herding
5. are running
6. is making
7. is snowing
8. are traveling

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

GED-SB: DWS, pp. 21-23
LDL, pp. 15-25
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 72-76
I.C.2. Present perfect tense

The present perfect tense is used to convey action a) that has just been completed; b) that began in the past but is still continuing.

Ex: 1) We have finished our evening meal. (action just completed)

2) I have gone to college for 3½ years. (action begun in past and still going on)

The verb form is two words: have, has + past participle of another verb: reached, gone, finished, swum, called, etc.

Again, the adverb, if there is one, goes between the two parts of the verb.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. The semantic implications of this tense are extremely difficult for non-native speakers, so it's wise just to concentrate on the form. The form is extremely important, as they must learn past participles, one of the most frequent forms used in speech or writing. Some students will have no difficulty with this pattern, for they will know the endings; but for others, a drill similar to the previous lesson will help. Always use sentences, however; don't just conjugate verbs.

Ex: He has gone to school.
   We have heard this story before.
   I have sung that song many times.

You write the sentence on the board, having student supply a verb, as above. If student uses an adverb, make sure it's in the right place. If student supplies an incorrect ending, gently correct the student by saying that in this tense, we use this ending (for example, sung instead of sang).

ANSWERS:

1. has gone
2. has looked
3. have seen
4. have been
5. have finished
6. have sold
7. have irrigated
8. has attended

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SIL I, pp. 36-37
GED-SB:DNS, p. 72
LDL, pp. 15-25
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 116-119
I.C.3. Past perfect tense

This, in form, is simply the past tense of the present perfect tense. Had is used in place of has or have + past participle of verb. Ex: He had seen the lightning before. The implication in this tense is that the action in the past perfect was complete before another action, also now past, began.

Ex: When I arrived home, mother had already cooked us a rabbit.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. There are two things to teach in this lesson: The form of the verb, and the concept noted above, of two past actions occurring. The verb form should present no problem, if the student completed the previous lesson satisfactorily. If student is still having trouble, use a drill similar to the ones described in the previous lesson.

2. In order to instill the concept of double action, the items we have included contain both a simple past tense verb and a past perfect verb. Let the student know that the past perfect verb always happens before the simple past verb. Ask the student what he/she did last night. Then, ask student what he/she did yesterday morning. Now, make up sentences combining the verbs, showing that the past perfect verbs happened first (in the morning) and the simple past verbs later (in the evening).

3. Reverse the example to show that the sentence can be written in either order and not change the time frame or action.

ANSWERS:

1. had lasted
2. had dry-farmed
3. had arrived
4. had been
5. had danced
6. had left
7. had gone
8. had woven

1. had lasted; were
2. had dry-farmed; introduced
3. had arrived; died
4. had been; built
5. had danced; were
6. had left; arrived
7. had gone; came
8. had woven; used

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, p. 72
pp. 75-78, 84 (for "irregulars")
SIL I, p. 45
REW, Bk. 2, p. 41
The articles are a, an, and the. We've included lessons on articles because non-native speakers of English have great difficulty remembering to use articles.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Two things are being reinforced in this lesson. The first is simply identification of articles. Student simply underlines the articles. This should present no problem as long as the student follows directions. Make sure student knows he/she is not to underline all adjectives in passage, or even the ones which point out (ex: one, this). Only 12 words should be underlined.

2. Next, student is to discriminate between a and an. Have student do one or two items which require the choice of a vowel or consonant following the article. If student makes an error, tell student the rule for using a or an and then give student several examples.

Ex: a book
    an opening
    a tire
    an owl

Have student supply several examples as above.

ANSWERS:

Note: There are 12 articles in the first exercise.

His father took him out one spring on a hunt that began by placing an offering in the Third Mesa Eagle burial plot. His father found the young hawk, and, because they were in Bear Clan eagle-hunting territory, they had to take the young bird to the sister of the Bear Clan's chief. She already had an eagle and three hawks tethered to her roof, so she was willing to part with this one—after the proper rites. First she washed the head in white-clay suds, just like a newborn babe, and then gave it to the young man.

Answers will vary, but the sentences must be completed with a word that meets the requirements indicated below:

1. word that begins with a vowel
2. word that begins with a consonant
3. word that begins with a consonant
4. word that begins with a vowel
5. word that begins with a consonant
6. word that begins with a consonant
7. word that begins with a vowel
8. word that begins with a consonant
SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 30-32
REW, Bk. 1, p. 79
I.D.2. Descriptive adjectives

Descriptive adjectives answer the questions what kind? which one? how much? or how many? They either point out or describe size, color, type, number, position, and so on. Adjectives usually precede a noun but can also follow a noun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHAT KIND?</th>
<th>WHICH ONE?</th>
<th>HOW MUCH? or HOW MANY?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a tall tree</td>
<td>The other one</td>
<td>five sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a steep trail</td>
<td>The same color</td>
<td>many months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a long walk</td>
<td>The last dance</td>
<td>several children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a tired horse</td>
<td>The winning entry</td>
<td>no supplies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This should be a fun and interesting lesson for the student. Remind them that a noun names things, but that we are usually not satisfied by just naming things. We like to make a noun definite or more interesting or more vivid by describing it in some way. The words we use to describe nouns are called adjectives.

2. Give the students a common noun, like man, woman, car, and have each person give a descriptive adjective. You can group two or three adjectives together and create a vivid mental image: The old, rusty, run-down truck. Remind the students to use commas to separate two or more adjectives.

3. Bring in a picture or poster. Ask students to describe what they see, using descriptive adjectives.

4. Have student complete exercise. An easy way to spot adjectives is to look at words immediately preceding nouns. Do they answer the questions what kind? (what shape? what size? what color?) which one? how much? or how many? This also helps students to pick out nouns first.

ANSWERS

Note: There are 10 descriptive adjectives in this exercise. The student only needs to find eight.

1. Zuni
2. black
3. white
4. same (place)
5. same (time)
6. winning
7. impounded
8. deerskin
9. civilized
10. cultivated
I.D.2. Descriptive adjectives

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
PGLS, pp. 154-156
LE - Red Book, pp. 79-82
LE - Gold Book, pp. 80-82
I.D.3. Possessive adjectives

Possessive adjectives answer the question *whose?* They are my, your, her, his, its, our, their. Remember that possessive pronouns take a different form (mine, yours, etc.). Possessive adjectives will always precede a noun. Ex: *my* truck, *her* grandmother.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. First have students read or repeat the possessive adjective once or twice. Then, remind student that possessive adjectives only answer the question *whose?* Have student point to several things in the room and say whose they are:

   - *my* pen
   - *your* chalk
   - *her* hairbrush
   - *his* keys
   - etc.

2. Next, have student complete exercise. Be sure student understands he/she is to underline only the possessive adjectives. If student underlines other adjectives or the pronouns, have student do drills again and remind student that a noun must always follow a possessive adjective.

3. If student still has trouble, read the sentences out loud to student and have student stop you whenever you come to a possessive adjective. Student should say "stop" when you come to *my* in first sentence, for example.

ANSWERS:

1. my; her
2. his
3. their
4. *My*; *your*
5. his
6. *Our*
7. their
8. his; his

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

REW, Bk. 1, p. 13
I.D.4. Demonstrative adjectives

Demonstrative adjectives point out which one(s): this, that, these, those. In all cases they are followed by nouns (or by the word one, as in this one). Don't confuse these with demonstrative pronouns, which are the same words but are used as the subject of a sentence and are never followed by nouns.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This should be a relatively easy lesson for the student, as we list the adjectives for the student and have not included any pronouns. The main point here is to get the student to recognize that some adjectives point out which one(s).

2. Have student write four sentences, using each of the four demonstrative adjectives. This will tell you whether the student has really grasped the concept. Student should have no trouble generating sentences, but look for two things: make sure these and those are used for plural objects, this and that for singular objects, and make sure student has used adjectives not pronouns. Explain this difference only if student uses them incorrectly.

ANSWERS:

1. That
2. those
3. That
4. Those
5. This; that
6. This
7. This; these
8. these; this

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 30-32
BBSW I, p. 167
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 158-160
PGLS, pp. 158-160
Comparison of adjectives is made in two forms: comparative and superlative. Comparative means two things are being compared; use -er for comparing regular adjectives. Superlative means three or more things are being compared, use -est for comparisons among several things.

Some comparisons aren't formed regularly; these must be memorized: good, better, best.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. As this is a step-by-step guide to comparisons, student should not have too much difficulty. If student has not heard the words used often enough and so has difficulty telling which ones are compared regularly, a hint is that longer adjectives, or more unusual ones, are often compared using more and most instead of -er and -est. The very irregular ones, such as good and bad, must be memorized.

2. Clue words are given in exercise so that student will be able to tell how many things are being compared ("three," "any," "all," etc.). If student does have trouble, ask student how many things he thinks are being compared. This should then make the answers easy.

3. Remind student we never combine forms of comparison, such as in the common error "more better" (where more and -er have both been used). This is redundant.

4. For further practice, give student 3 or 4 adjectives and ask him/her to write a sentence using each of the adjectives in a comparative form. (Do not ask student to supply own adjective at this point.)

ANSWERS:

1. bigger
2. happier
3. funnier
4. sadder
5. more famous
6. more beautiful
7. more wonderful
8. faster

biggest
happiest
funniest
saddest
most famous
most beautiful
most wonderful
fastest

1. tallest
2. most beautiful
3. more scary
4. more traditional
5. oldest
6. fastest
7. narrower
8. best

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

GED-SB:DWS, pp. 118-121
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 7-9
LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 46-50
PGLS, pp. 170-187
REW, Bk. 1, p. 82
I.E.1. Use of adverbs

An adverb modifies either a verb (ran quickly), an adjective (very beautiful), or another adverb (too strongly). An adverb gives you certain kinds of information; adverbs tell where or when something happened, tell how or in what manner something happened, and tell to what extent or how much. (See examples in exercise.)

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student is asked to underline adverbs. We are not asking to tell in each case what information is being provided, but it's a good idea to instill in student's mind the kinds of things that can be learned by adverbs. Thus, you may want to take 3 or 4 of the items and pick out some adverbs you think aren't too hard and ask student whether this adverb tells when, how, where, or to what extent something happened.

2. If student has trouble picking out adverbs, a hint is that many of them end in -ly, especially the ones that tell how something was done (swiftly, easily). Other adverbs do not follow this pattern, but many are so frequently used the student gets used to them (adverbs like very, too, so, now, tomorrow, today, etc.). Tell student to think about the kinds of information being provided and to look for words that tell when, where, how, or how much.

3. To reinforce adverbs, do drill in which you write a sentence and have student supply several adverbs that make sense:

He went home slowly.
He went home quickly.
He went home angrily.
He went home early.

Make sure student supplies logical adverbs.

4. Sometimes student needs to identify verb before working on adverbs. In basic sentences, where adverb modifies verb, ask student about the verb.

ANSWERS:

1. finally; now
2. softly
3. later; tightly
4. always; up
5. quickly
6. easily; far
7. gently
8. usually

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

PGLS, pp. 165-174
REW, Bk. 1, p. 63
I.E.2. Adverb as modifier of adjective or other adverb

An adverb can modify any of the following three parts of speech:

- a verb, as in She moved awkwardly;
- an adjective, as in He was very handsome;
- another adverb, as in Her voice echoed too harshly down the hall.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This step-by-step approach is to get student to see that adverbs can modify several parts of speech and to instill in student's mind the correct placement of adverbs. As the adverbs are already underlined, ask student to find the word modified by the adverb in #1. Ask student, "What does quickly describe? It tells you how they _________." Student will say, "reached a decision." So student writes down reached and must identify that as a verb.

2. If student has trouble identifying the part of speech of the modified word, write several phrases on board or paper.

- very quickly
- so tall
- barked loudly

Ask student "What could happen very quickly?"
"Who is so tall?"
"What can bark loudly?"

Student should be able to tell you after piecing this together what part of speech is being modified.

3. Explain that an adverb "limits" whatever it modifies. Many books use the word modifiers when referring to adjectives and adverbs. Be sure students understand the meaning. Use example of "modified stock cars"—cars that have been altered or changed.

ANSWERS:

1. reached; verb
2. short; adjective
3. practiced; verb
4. loosely; adverb
5. tied; verb
6. sad; adjective
7. starved; verb
8. graciously; adverb
9. accepted; verb
10. old; adjective
11. treated; verb
12. are; verb

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 37-43
PGLS, pp. 165-174
I.E.3. Negative and emphatic adverbs

Not and never are negative adverbs. They reverse the meaning of the sentence:

We will go. We will never go.

There are other so-called emphatic adverbs: possibly, probably, certainly, indeed, of course, and similar adverbs which also alter the meaning of the entire sentence.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. The adverbs in this lesson are really just adverbs that tell you to what extent (refer to lesson #1). But they present certain difficulties, especially for second-language students, that warrant their having a separate lesson at this level.

The placement of negative adverbs is always between the two parts of the verb:

I could not go she will not come
it does not shine they will never learn.

This is true whether the adverb not is written out or contracted.

For other "emphatic" adverbs, the problem of usage arises. For students whose first language is not English, it may be difficult to tell when to use possibly, only, etc. Student must practice until he understands which word logically is used in each individual case.

2. For the first exercise, if the student uses incorrect adverbs, ask student to explain to you why he/she chose that adverb. The student will probably see upon reflection that it doesn't make sense. Semantically, for instance, we can't say in English, "Almost the clay pottery sherds found last week at Acoma are older than those previously discovered."

3. For negative forms, it's a good idea, after the student does the exercise, to get him or her to write negative sentences, both with and without contractions. Have the student write 5 or 6 sentences using not or n't, using a different verb in each sentence. If the student is stuck on the verbs, you may supply verbs for the student.

ANSWERS:

1. not 5. Possibly
2. almost 6. Only
3. possibly 7. not
4. only 8. only/almost
I.E.3. Negative and emphatic adverbs

ANSWERS:

1. I couldn't go.
2. She didn't see.
3. They can't forget.
4. We mustn't wonder.
5. He won't write.
6. She wasn't betting.
7. I shouldn't accept.
8. They wouldn't object.
9. It isn't raining.
10. They aren't afraid.
11. She isn't coming.
12. You aren't friendly.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

LOL I, pp. 84-85
I.E.4. Comparison of adverbs

Adverbs are compared in two forms: comparative (two things) or superlative (3 or more things). The regular form for comparing two adverbs is using more before the adverb:

runs quickly
runs more quickly than

To compare several things, use most:

moves beautifully
moves most beautifully of all

Some adverbs have irregular forms (see exercise). These must be memorized.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student shouldn’t have much trouble with this, as he/she has only to choose correct form, not to supply the form. If student has difficulty, ask student to tell you how many things are being compared. If student chooses an incorrect form, have student say the words out loud (”closelier, more closely”) and tell you which way sounds better.

2. In writing, student may not make too many errors, but in speaking students often do, so to break student of this habit and ensure he transcribes to writing correctly, pick half a dozen comparative or superlative forms and have student write a sentence for each one. Again, student does not have to figure out the correct form, as you supply it for him, but correct usage is reinforced as he writes.

ANSWERS:

1. more closely
2. better
3. most loudly
4. more humbly
5. more quickly
6. more softly
7. fastest
8. better

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 15-17
LDL, Bk. 3, pp. 52-54
REW, Bk. 1, p. 83
PGLS, pp. 179-188
I.F.1. Prepositional words and phrases

There are three things to remember about prepositions: a) they tell where or point out direction (on, up, from, around); b) they always begin a prepositional phrase (otherwise they'd be adverbs); and c) the prepositional phrase always ends with a noun or pronoun, which is the object of the prepositional phrase. This is because a preposition must have an object.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Explain as much of the above to student as is necessary for student to complete exercise. It was thought best to combine the teaching of prepositions and prepositional phrases into one exercise, as a preposition cannot stand alone but always comes in a phrase.

2. Student may either underline all prepositions first, then go back and find the phrase, or find each preposition and its phrase before going on to the next one. Refer student to list of prepositions in appendix, if necessary. There are 16 prepositional phrases in this exercise, so student should pick out at least 12.

3. Point out to student as he does exercise that he should see a pattern emerging—that prepositional phrases are usually comprised of 2 or 3 words and often end the sentence. Have student say several of these out loud so he can hear the intonation patterns.

4. Use experiential method to help instill idea of a prepositional phrase. Ask student "where" questions requiring a prepositional phrase in the answer: "Where do you live?" "Where are your books?" "Where do you park your car?" Afterwards, point out to student all the prepositional phrases used.

5. Draw a picture of a hogan and use as noun to explain prepositions:

beneath  beside
around  within
in       outside the hogan
on       down
under    away from
over      

29
I.F.1. Prepositional words and phrases

ANSWERS:

Note: there are 16 prepositions in this exercise.

1. of (a healing ceremony)
2. by (the singer and his helpers)
3. on (the clean, swept floor)
4. of (the hogan)
5. through (this intricate and colorful design)
6. from (colors)
7. to (the Navajo)
8. of (the portion)
9. of (the Origin Myth)
10. around (the painting)
11. with (an opening)
12. like (the single thread)
13. from (the center)
14. of (a Navajo blanket)
15. by (the humans)
16. with (them)

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, p. 29
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 17-18
LDI, pp. 1-12
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 30, 68, 100, 109, 129
LS-Gold Bk., p. 91
I.G.I. Conjunctions and their use

Up to now, two ways of using conjunctions have been introduced:

a) to join words or phrases:

He read and played guitar last night.

b) to join two separate simple sentences (clauses) into one compound sentence:

He wanted to stay home, so he pretended he was sick.

These are coordinating conjunctions.

In this lesson, another use of the conjunction is introduced, that of using a conjunction to begin a subordinate clause. A subordinate clause is one that is dependent on the main clause.

When he was tired, he went to sleep.

"When he was tired" is a clause that is dependent on the second clause to make a complete thought. "When" is the subordinate conjunction.

This kind of conjunction tells when the main clause happened, why it happened, or presents a condition for it to happen. Below is a partial list of conjunctions that tell

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When</th>
<th>Why</th>
<th>Condition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>when</td>
<td>because</td>
<td>if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>so</td>
<td>whether</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>since</td>
<td>unless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>then</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>although</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>until</td>
<td>in order that</td>
<td>however</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Give student several examples verbally and ask student to identify the conjunction:

Tom and Joe
I'll swim, then I'll run
I'm not hot or cold

Then ask student to tell you whether the conjunction joins words, phrases, or clauses.

2. Each item in this exercise contains one conjunction, so that hint should help student find it. The main trouble, if any, will be in identifying whether the conjunction joins word
I.G.1. Conjunctions and their use

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

groups, or phrases. Have student put his/her finger over parts of the sentence not joined by the conjunction. This should help student see whether conjunction joins two words, two phrases, or the two parts of the compound sentence.

3. It's a good idea at first to refer student to this list. Give student some examples orally so student can see that they tell when, why, or present a condition. After you identify the first few, see if student can tell you what kind of information is being given.

4. Now, student should have little trouble identifying the subordinating conjunction, especially as there is only one per sentence (you need not tell student the conjunction is called subordinating). If student has trouble identifying what the conjunction tells you, work on this part verbally with student, asking him/her questions to guide the answer.

5. If student is sharp, have him/her begin to apply this lesson by writing half a dozen sentences using subordinating conjunctions. You must at this level, however, supply the dependent clause for the student and have student complete the sentences.

Ex: When he was tired, Before the rain came, Until you reach adulthood, etc.

ANSWERS:

1. and; phrases 1. before; when
2. or; phrases 2. When; when
3. but; clauses/or; words 3. Because; why
4. for; clauses 4. if; condition
5. and; words 5. until; when
6. yet; clauses 6. unless; condition
7. so; clauses 7. whether; condition
8. or; words 8. since; why

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG Bk. 1, pp. 18-19
LS - Gold Bk., p. 93
PGLS, pp. 234-238
UNIT-I POST-TEST: PARTS OF SPEECH

1. b
2. a
3. c
4. a
5. a
6. b
7. c
8. a
9. b
10. c
11. d
12. c
13. a
14. b
15. a
16. b
17. b
18. c
19. a
20. a
21. c
22. b
23. where
24. how
25. when
26. how
27. harder
28. best

29. outside the window; from the north, in this direction
30. Before sunrise; across the sky,
31. and
32. so
33. but
34. when
35. because
36. Although
UNIT II
II. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

A. Compound subjects and verbs

A sentence with a compound subject is a sentence in which two or more persons, places, or things (nouns or pronouns) function as subjects of the same verb. A sentence with a compound verb is a sentence in which two or more action words describe the action of the same subject. Compound subjects and verbs are joined by conjunctions (and, or nor, but, etc.)

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Suggest that to find the subject of a sentence, first find the verb (the simple predicate); then ask yourself the question "who or what...?"

2. Here are some other hints:
   a. In a sentence expressing a command or request, the subject is always you;
   b. The subject of a sentence is never in a prepositional phrase;
   c. To find the subject in a question, turn it into a statement.

3. Orally supply students with compound predicates and ask them to supply a subject. Ex: caught her dress on a limb and tore it.

4. Orally supply students with compound subjects and ask them to supply a predicate. Ex: Both Tina and Jack

ANSWERS:

1. Bows; arrows
2. sow; irrigate; gather
3. skirts; necklaces
4. weather; snowstorms
5. screamed; ran
6. Utah; Arizona
7. Navajos; Pueblos
8. Snake Dance; Antelope Dance
9. farmed; gathered; hunted
10. dived; wandered
11. aided; fought
12. stored; cooked

For the sentences, make sure the student meets the following requirements:

1. Make sure they are complete sentences and have a compound subject.
2. (same as above)
3. Make sure they are complete sentences and have a compound verb.
4. (same as above)
II.A. Compound subject and verbs

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 46-49
LDL, Bk. 1, p. 47
FGLS, p. 207
II.B. Complete, incomplete, and run-on sentences

Remind students that a complete sentence has a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. A fragment of an incomplete sentence usually lacks either a subject or a verb and does not express a complete thought. A run-on sentence occurs when what actually should be two or more sentences are written together as one sentence (often joined by a comma but sometimes even the comma is omitted).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Have students locate the subject and verb (verb, first). If the sentence lacks either one, it is called incomplete (a fragment).

2. Have students read the sentence aloud. They will develop a sense of "sentence sense" with practice and should be able to determine when a sentence is correct.

3. Caution students to beware of sentences beginning with dependent clauses introduced by words such as when, if, since, because, until, while, after, etc. These dependent introductory clauses require a complete sentence following them to express a complete thought.

4. For further practice, have student write four complete sentences and tell you what the subjects and verbs are.

ANSWERS:

1. C
2. I
3. I
4. R
5. C
6. I
7. I
8. R

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, pp. 19-21, 44-49
BSG, BK. 1, pp. 39-45
II.C. Subject-verb agreement

Subject-verb agreement simply means that the subject (singular or plural) agrees with the verb (singular or plural). A singular subject requires a matching singular verb to agree. A plural subject requires a matching plural verb to agree.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. One of the biggest problems for students in agreement is that of intervening phrases (phrases coming between the subject and the verb). Remind students that the verb agrees with its subject in number, not with any modifiers the subject may have.

Ex: One (of the girls) was unable to go.

2. Remind students that certain pronouns used as subjects always take singular verbs: every, anybody, each, everyone, everybody, nobody, anyone, nothing, no one. (A complete list is at the back.) You might advise your students to always think of these words as modifying "one".

3. Suggest that the students quietly read each sentence in the exercise aloud to themselves. Hearing the sentence helps develop sentence sense.

4. If student has trouble with intervening phrases, put your finger over the phrase and have student read the rest. Student will see that what remains is a complete sentence. Then have student do the same thing himself with a couple of the items.

ANSWERS:

1. are
2. has
3. were
4. were
5. soaks
6. were
7. lie
8. was

1. town; is
2. dye; is
3. baskets; were
4. land; is
5. people, were
6. moccasins; feel
7. Zunis; were
8. rains; provide

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB: DWS, pp. 25, 91-101
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 67-69
LOL, Bk. 1, pp. 56-63
PGLS, pp. 43-49
II.D. Verbs used as adjectives

   A verb form used as an adjective is called a participle. Present participles consist of the verb + ing. They modify nouns or pronouns.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. The only problem in teaching the participle is to get the students to see that it functions as an adjective— that it modifies a noun or a pronoun. To help students see this, you might write several examples like the following:

   a. the laughing girls
   b. the girls, laughing
   c. laughing, the girls
   d. the whistling wind
   e. the wind, whistling
   f. whistling, the wind

   Examples such as these serve to show students that the participle either precedes or follows the noun or pronoun it modifies.

2. For writing practice, provide student with several participles and have student complete the sentence.

   Ex: Running over the hill,

   This will help student see the function of participles.

ANSWERS:

   1. Seeing
   2. Running
   3. Wearing
   4. Covering
   5. Turning
   6. Holding
   7. Living
   8. Smiling

   (Note: make sure student capitalizes and spells the verbs correctly.)

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
UNIT II POST-TEST: SENTENCE STRUCTURE

1. Navajos, Hopis
2. were, fought
3. farmed, gathered, roamed, hunted
4. San Juan Pueblo, Santo Domingo Pueblo, Taos Pueblo
5. R
6. I
7. C
8. are
9. were
10. is
11. frightens
12. Covering
13. Turning
14. Swimming
15. Running
III. PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

A. Characteristics of paragraph: unity, clarity, topic and supporting sentences

A paragraph is, by definition, a series of sentences unified by a controlling idea stated in the topic sentence. A good topic sentence expresses a central (or controlling) idea which all remaining supporting sentences further explain or make clear. When all supporting sentences develop this central idea (contained in the topic sentence), the paragraph is said to have unity. When the supporting sentences are arranged so that they flow smoothly from one to another, the paragraph possesses clarity—its idea is clear.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. One of the difficulties of inexperienced writers is an inability to identify the controlling idea in a topic sentence. To help them learn to do this, put on the board some of the following topic sentences and have them explain why the underlined words express the idea that the writer would focus on when developing a paragraph.

   1. Without doubt, Harry was my enemy.
   2. Joe, who is very courageous, proved to be a true friend.
   3. History repeats itself.
   4. Spring is my favorite season.

2. One way to ensure unified support of the controlling idea is to use a "because statement." For example:

   Boss Jones was a scheming politician.

   because: At every picnic held in Minisink County he distributed free to prospective voters and their children all the ice cream they could eat.

   because: He always did favors for anyone who could control votes at the polling places in the district.

   because: He supported and voted for any legislation that would in any way bring profit to his various business enterprises.

3. Another method of teaching characteristics of good paragraph writing is to supply students with a sample unified paragraph to which you have added several supporting sentences which do not support the controlling idea of the topic sentence. Have the students apply the "because test" to find out which sentences do not belong. (This may be done orally.)
III.A. Characteristics of paragraph: unity, clarity, topic and supporting sentences

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

4. In each of the following groups of sentences, pick the one sentence that gives the main idea of the group.

   a. My friend Harvey works in the city.
      Another one of my friends, Sheila, also works in the city.
      In fact, most of my friends work in the city.
   
   b. There is a big difference between you and me.
      You take everything that you do very seriously.
      I don't care about anything that I do.

   If the student can select the topic sentence of main idea, then the rules have been learned.

ANSWERS:

1.-4. Answers will vary but must be based on information from the text. Do not allow student to copy the text word for word.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, p. 200 (topic sentences)
III.B. Descriptive paragraph writing

A descriptive paragraph uses details to develop the controlling idea of the topic sentence. The topic sentence is developed by a series of single parts that make up a whole.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Offer students several topic sentences which lead themselves to development by descriptive details. Ask students to brainstorm and orally give you possible details to support the topic sentence.

2. Since good descriptive writing often involves use of adjectives and vivid verbs, brief exercises such as these will be helpful.

   a. Give students a list of nouns and ask them to supply 3 lively verbs for each:

      Ex: a horse (gallops, neighs, grazes)
      a car
      a tree
      a baby

   b. To encourage use of colorful adjectives, supply students with nouns as follows:

      What color?                     What size?
      _______ hair                    _______ purse
      _______ rose                    _______ beads
      _______ dress                   _______ castle
      _______ leaves                  _______ moon

      What kind?                     How many?
      _______ food                    _______ bananas
      _______ shoes                   _______ times
      _______ snow                    _______ mountains
      _______ motor                   _______ pennies

   c. You also might write several sentences such as these on the board, asking students to supply adjectives.

      1) Today Mary is wearing a (what color)
         _______ dress.
         (what kind)
III.B. Descriptive paragraph writing

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

2. c. 2) We ate _______ sandwiches. 
   (how many)  (what kind)

3. To show students how language communicates, ask them to 
   write sentences describing something in the very room where 
   you/they are sitting. The sentence may begin, "I see", 
   "I feel", "I hear", "I am touching." After the sentences 
   are written, you may ask the students to try to include 1) 
   a color, 2) a sound, or 3) a name of a boy or girl in the 
   room.

Here are some examples of what to expect:

"I see the sun shining on the black curls of Vi's shoulder 
length hair."

"I hear the squeaking of Joe's desk behind me."

"I smell the odor of fried chicken as it drifts through 
the door which is propped open with a brick."

If students supply sentences which are too broad, such as 
"I see boys and girls writing," ask yourself, what does 
this student need to add to make his picture clear? Could 
he take one boy or girl and visualize one particular thing 
about her/him, such as a gold ring or a green ribbon?

ANSWERS:

1. In 1900, the Western Apache lived in dwellings called wick-
   iups.
2. circular  
circular  
dome-shaped  
cone-shaped
3. (any three of the following) 
a) women built the wickiups  
b) made of framework of poles and limbs  
c) covered with bear grass, brush, yucca or rushes  
d) opening at the top allowed smoke to escape  
e) a fire was built in the center of the wickiup  
f) a blanket or skin was draped over the eastern side of 
   the wickiup
4. sight

1. The wickiup furniture was kept to a minimum.  
2. Truly, furnishings in the wickiup consisted of only the 
   necessities.  
3. They were made with a pole base and were 2-3 ft. above 
   ground. Brush or grass was spread over the frame. The 
   bed was covered with blankets.
III.B. Descriptive paragraph writing

**ANSWERS.**

4. Usually there was a pot, a frying pan, a dishpan, a few knives, a pounding stone and grinding slab.

**SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:**

SPS, Bk. 1, pp. 174-176
III.C. Deductive paragraph writing: general to specific

Deductive writing begins with a general statement (the topic sentence) and then proceeds to offer specific examples, details, instances or reasons to show that the broad, general statement is true.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Since deductive writing is from general to specific, pre-writing exercises involving clarification or a breaking down into smaller parts is helpful. Suggest a general topic to students and then have them brainstorm in pairs or threes to develop a number of specific ideas that could be used to develop the topic idea. For example, if the topic idea is "the high cost of owning a car," students might come up with specific supporting ideas such as gasoline, service maintenance, replacement of tires, tags and registration, cosmetic maintenance, insurance, etc.

2. Remind the students that some general statements can be developed by giving reasons why the general topic idea is true. Reasons are opinions—they are judgments; they tell why someone believes something is or should be so.

3. This is a good time to review four characteristics of a paragraph. Ask students to select a paragraph and define all four parts. Use same paragraph to see if it is an example of descriptive, narrative or deductive writing.

ANSWERS:

1. All living things pass through four stages
2. Four creators of life
3. Four festivals held each year, headed by four priests
4. Prayers are offered to gods four times per day
5. At baptism, an arrow is shot in four directions
6. Food is placed on grave four times after death
7. Smoke is sent in four directions
8. Ritual acts repeated in sets of four, such as verses which are sung in sets of four

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
III.D.1. Sequence in narrative writing

As you know, narrative writing (or narration) tells a story. It is made up of a number of events. The order in which these events occur is called the sequence of events. Usually the sequence of events is in chronological order, that is, the order in which the events occur. Watch for signal words such as first, second, next, then, finally, etc.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. A simple way of introducing sequencing to students is to list a number of events (in mixed-up order) under the topic "getting ready for school in the morning".

   Ex: shower or bathe     make bed
       turn off alarm     get out of bed
       lock door of house  eat breakfast
       brush teeth      take books
       get dressed     comb hair

   Students are to put the events in order (sequence of occurrence).

2. After students are comfortable with sequencing, emphasize the importance of using key words to signal the order of events: first, second, next, then, finally, etc.

   ANSWERS:

1. He refused to register for the draft.
2. He was sentenced to three years' hard labor and taken to jail.
3. A government agent told Paul to get rid of half of his sheep.
4. They took away half his sheep and left the other half to be driven to Hotevilla.
5. The long walk was too much for her, and she lost her baby.
6. They had to be killed, as no one could take care of them.
7. He lost the sight of one eye because of an infection that was poorly treated.

4. First, Next, Shortly after, again, Then, Finally, Today

1. Cooking a rabbit in the ashes is a simple task.
2. The rook digs a trench in the ground.
3. He builds a fire in the trench.
4. He takes the rabbit out of the trench.

1-4. Answers will vary. The students' narrative of a process should contain a clear sequence of the steps involved.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, pp. 201-204
III.D.2. Dialogue in narrative writing

Dialogue refers to the exact recording of character's words in narration. Their exact words are enclosed in quotation marks.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. In narration, the writer has to not only develop a main idea, but also establish a setting and sequence of events. An effective way of doing this is through dialogue. Stress these things when teaching use of dialogue.
   a. Dialogue should be used to emphasize important points. It livens up a narrative.
   b. Begin a new paragraph each time the speaker changes.
   c. Punctuate dialogue correctly. In punctuating dialogue students must be cautioned to place commas, periods, question marks and exclamation marks inside quotation marks. Colons and semi-colons are placed outside quotation marks. Capitalize the first word of a quotation; however, if the quotation is only a fragment of a sentence, enclose it in quotation marks, but do not begin it with a capital letter.

ANSWERS:

1. Kocho, Chief, Kuna
2. Chief
3. The chief asked, "Mockingbird, will you sing a calling song for the chipmunk?"
4. The chipmunk agreed, "I will plant a tree that will grow very fast and will reach the sky."

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, p. 209
SPS, Bk. 1, pp. 148-167
UNIT III POST-TEST: PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

1. d
2. c
3. b
4. a
5. b
6. Student should have all items checked
7. Any three of these:
   mix   remove
   roll   sprinkle
   place   bite
   turn
8. crackling of oil, sputtering of dough
9. c
10. The landscape of Arizona varies greatly, ranging from dry desert to high forest.
11. Arizona's landscape differs in each part of the state.
12. d
13. b
14. c
15. Coyote told Porcupine the bark was delicious. The Coyote invited Porcupine over for dinner in four days. He offered to cook for Porcupine.
16. Coyote
IV. PUNCTUATION

A.1. Use of comma in a series, after introductory words, in direct quotations

A comma is used after each item in a series: My favorite fruits are oranges, peaches, and pears. Commas are also used after introductory words such as yes, no, well, maybe and after a person's name: "Betty, would you like to have lunch?" Finally, commas are used at the end of a direct quote, before the speaker's name:

"I'll be at school this afternoon," said Liz.

Note that the comma is placed before the closing quotation marks. If a quote is split up before and after the speaker's name, a comma is placed in both positions:

"If you want me," said Liz. "I'll be at school this afternoon."

The second comma is placed directly after the speaker's name.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Have student read these sentences out loud and place commas according to the pauses that naturally occur. Or, if student doesn't like to read aloud, you read aloud, and student places commas where he/she hears pauses.

2. To reinforce using commas with dialogue, have a short dialogue with the student. Ask student about his/her day, hobbies, car, whatever. You transcribe the dialogue then have student put commas in proper places. Two students could do this together, as well.

ANSWERS:

1. Often
2. Oraibi, Hano, Walpi, Shipaulovi
3. said
4. fleshed, pounded
5. "Why"
6. "Well," said Barbara
7. Mountain, falling rain
8. Player

Note: the final comma in a series is optional.
IV.A.1. Use of comma in a series, after introductory words, in direct quotations

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
GED-SB:DWS, pp. 137-141
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 112-114
BBSW II, pp. 51-53
LE - Red Bk., pp. 7-10
LE - Gold Bk., pp. 7-9
IV.A.2. Use of comma in a compound sentence

A comma is placed between the two parts of a compound sentence. A compound sentence is comprised of two clauses joined by a conjunction.

\[ \text{I wanted to go, but she wouldn't let me.} \]

Notice that the comma precedes the conjunction, and there is no comma after the conjunction.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This is so formulaic that it's relatively easy for students to follow. The most likely error would be to place the comma after the conjunction (after but in the sentence above). If student does this, he/she must simply memorize correct placement of the comma and practice it on several supplementary exercises.

2. If student has trouble with this, have student read sentences out loud and ask student where the two clauses (or parts) of the sentence are. Student should cover up everything but the clause that he's looking at. Then he should find the other clause. Point out that these are sentences in themselves. Now ask student to find the conjunction (student has done work on conjunctions before). Now comma placement should be easy.

ANSWERS:

1. arrive
2. households
3. life
4. Canyon
5. home
6. informal
7. year
8. Verde River

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, pp. 137-142
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 112-114
PGLS, pp. 213-214
IV.A.3. Use of comma with introductory phrases

A comma is always placed after an introductory prepositional phrase. Prepositional phrases coming at the beginning of a sentence function as adverbs or adjectives.

_Under a gray sagebrush, a fox lay hidden._

This phrase functions as an adjective describing fox.

_In the early part of May, barrel-cactus and prickly-pear cactus begin to bloom._

This phrase functions as an adverb telling when they bloom.

If there are several prepositional phrases in a row which introduce the sentence, the comma is placed after the last phrase.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student does not need to distinguish between these kinds of introductory phrases. Student need only pick out the introductory phrase from the main clause of the sentence. There is only one comma in each of these sentences.

2. If student has trouble, have her/him put finger over everything extraneous to the main part of the sentence. If the sentence still makes sense, student will have blocked out correctly. Student places comma after the non-essential phrase. Tell student also that he or she will hear a natural pause where comma goes.

3. For further practice, write half a dozen introductory phrases for student and have student complete the sentences.

Ex: On a rainy day in March, During my last year at my job, On top of First Mesa,

4. Continue to have student speak sentences aloud softly. This practice makes writing skills so much easier.

ANSWERS:

1. death
2. Emergence
3. Mexico
4. century
5. July
6. others
7. ceremony
8. ceremony
1. east
2. bank
3. tops
4. Hopi
5. mesa
6. thick
7. Mountain
8. Mesa
IV.A.3. Use of comma with introductory phrases

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB: DWS, pp. 139, 143
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 112-114
IV.B.1. Semicolon in compound sentence without conjunction

A semicolon is used when a comma is too weak and a period is too strong. Its most common use is to separate the two independent clauses in a compound sentence without a conjunction.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. A good way to teach usage of the semicolon is by sentence-combining exercises. Give the students two brief but related sentences. Show them that the two can be combined into one sentence with the use of a semicolon. Make sure student doesn't add a conjunction (if this were the case, a comma would be used instead of a semicolon).

2. If student has trouble finding the clauses, have him/her read out loud slowly till student pauses at the end of the first simple sentence; this will be where student places the semicolon.

3. The semicolon smooths things out. Take this example:

She came. She saw. She conquered.

It sounds choppy. So:

She came; she saw; she conquered.

ANSWERS:

1. rain
2. ceremony
3. ground
4. Pueblo
5. Hbpi villages
6. Papago Reservation
7. walls
8. mud

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 115-116
PGLS, pp. 222-226
IV.C.1. Quotation marks in titles

Quotation marks are used to enclose titles of poems, short stories, essays, articles, and chapters of books. A double quotation mark is placed before the first word in a title and a double quotation mark is placed after the last word in a title.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Emphasize to students to memorize the uses of quotation marks in titles.

2. Remind students that commas and periods go inside quotation marks; semicolons and colons are always placed outside the closing quotation marks. They will need to know this rule to do the exercise.

3. We have identified most titles by using words such as "the article," "the short story," so student will be clued into the forthcoming title. The main difficulty will be to get student to place the quotes outside the commas and periods. Have student do supplementary exercises if he/she has trouble with this.

4. For further practice, ask student questions requiring use of quotation marks in the answer. Have student write out his answers. Questions you might ask:

   a) Name a short story you have read.
   b) Find an article in the newspaper and write its title.
   c) Look through your textbook and write the title of one of the chapters.
   d) Find a poem you like in a supplementary text and write its title. (Make sure student uses full sentences.)

ANSWERS:

1. "Gaining Financial Independence,"
2. "Job Opportunities for Youth"
3. "Prayer to the Pacific"
4. "How Hotevilla and Bakabi Were Founded"
5. "Matters of Courtesy"
6. "On Civil Disobedience"
7. "My Early Life in Whiteriver"
8. "Learning to Weave,"
10. "The Navajos at Canyon de Chelly"
11. "The Zuni Craftsman"
12. "Final Words about GED Preparation,"

Note: Make sure student has placed quotation marks outside other marks of punctuation in sentences 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11.
IV.C.1. Quotation marks in titles

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 100
LDL, p. 72
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 44-46
IV.D.1. Apostrophe in contractions and possessives

To make a singular noun possessive, add an apostrophe and an s. To make a plural noun ending in s possessive, add only an apostrophe. Ex: kachina's (one kachina); girls' (many girls). Use an apostrophe to show where letters have been omitted in a contraction (a word made up of two words combined into one by omitting one or more letters). Ex: doesn't (does not).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. A quick way to determine if a noun should be possessive is to see if it can be used in an "of" phrase. For example, Mary's house can be translated as the house of (or belonging to) Mary.

2. Two common errors in the use of the apostrophe in a contraction are a) confusing it's (which means it is) and its (which is the possessive form), and b) inserting the apostrophe in the wrong place (can't for can't; doesn't for doesn't). Correct student as necessary.

3. For further practice with possessives, have student write phrases containing owner and object owned; have student use names of people rather than pronouns. For example, "Doug's car," "Alicia's books," "Joe's truck," etc.

4. For needed practice with contractions, write half a dozen contractions and have student separate them into their original two words:

   she'll    won't    I'm
   can't     they've    we've

Since the GED spelling practice test uses contractions as spelling words, have students check carefully on placement of apostrophe.

ANSWERS:

1. infant's
2. it's
3. mother's
4. shouldn't
5. man's
6. woman's
7. aren't
8. youth's
9. Didn't
10. weaver's
11. Haven't
12. Hopi's

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, pp. 156, 158-159
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 102-106
PGLS, pp. 139-141
LE- Gold Bk., pp. 28-29, pp. 61-63
IV.D.2. Apostrophe in dates

Use an apostrophe in dates that have been abbreviated and in forming plurals of numbers. Ex: '81; 60's; five's.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. When only the last part of the date is used ('80 for 1980), use an apostrophe. If in doubt, write out the number (seventies, sixties).

ANSWERS:

1. '48
2. seventies
3. 1800's
4. 1700's
5. sixties
6. 1860's
7. '53
8. 1820's

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB:DWS, pp. 156, 158-159
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 102-106
IV.E.1. Underlining in titles of books and periodicals

Underlining is used to identify titles of books and periodicals (magazines, journals, newspapers, newsletters). A solid, unbroken line should be placed under the entire title.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Orally ask students what newspapers they read... which magazines? Then, explain that these titles are underlined in writing to indicate they are the names of books or periodicals.

2. Student should have little difficulty identifying the title in this exercise as we've indicated it with the words book, article, etc.

3. For writing practice, have student write four or five sentences in which he refers to books, newspapers, etc. Ex: "Yesterday I read the Arizona Republic." Student can draw from his own experiences and look around the room for journals, texts, etc.

ANSWERS:

1. Navajo Religion
2. Los Angeles Times
3. Arizona Highways
4. Tewa Firelight Tales
5. National Geographic
6. Navajo Times
7. Sun Tracks
8. The New York Times

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
IV.F.1. Hyphen in end-of-line word division

Use a hyphen to:

-- divide a word between its syllables. One-syllable words and abbreviations or contractions should never be divided.
-- divide a double-consonant word between the consonants, unless what follows the double consonant is a suffix.
-- divide a word only if at least two letters can be carried over to the next line (don't divide a word so that one letter stands alone).
-- divide a word after a prefix or before a suffix.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Remind students to look and listen for the syllables in words to know where to divide multi-syllabled words.

2. Provide examples to illustrate each point in the use of hyphens. Have student give you the words (classroom, automobile, textbook, cooking, etc.), and together you divide them. You may supply illustrations of rules which student has not come up with.

3. Syllabication rules may need to be reviewed before this unit and its rules are taught.

ANSWERS:

1. ans/wer
2. U.S.A. - X
3. weight - X
4. trimmed - X
5. call/ing
6. wel/come
7. neces/sary
8. snow/fall
9. cere/mony
10. prin/cess
11. couldn't - X
12. suc/cess/full (either one is acceptable)

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

LE - Gold Bk., p. 37
IV.F.2. Hyphen in a two-word adjective before noun

--join a two-word adjective before a noun if the two words jointly describe the noun.
--do not hyphenate adjectives that follow the noun.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. For two-word adjectives before a noun, familiarize student with this concept by writing several phrases containing two-word adjectives:
   - well-known chairman
   - full-time employment, etc.

   Have student pick out noun first, then the modifiers.

2. Have student write 3 or 4 phrases using two-word adjectives. This will really help instill the concept in the student's mind, but you can only do this with a relatively sharp student.

ANSWERS:

1. well-planned
2. long-feared
3. earth-colored
4. pebble-filled
5. 300-mile
6. peace-loving
7. well-recognized
8. orange-red

1. time-worn
2. black-eyed
3. present-day
4. gray-blue
5. ever-flowing
6. well-meaning
7. cliff-dwelling
8. hand-carved

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, BK. 2, p. 98
V. CAPITALIZATION

A. Use of capitals in abbreviations, titles, organizations, places

Let's review some cases where you need to capitalize place names:

Arizona  
San Juan River
Albuquerque  
Mount Blanco

names of organizations:

Department of the Interior
Phoenix Indian Center
All Indian Pueblo Council
Bureau of Indian Affairs

titles (book):

The Hopi Indians  
A Pima Remembers

titles (personal):

Mr., Dr., Ms.  
President Lincoln
General Custer  
Executive Director Steve Darden

abbreviations of proper nouns:

ACLU  
USA
NUIC  
Dept.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. At this level, it will probably be necessary to go over each of these rules separately with student, using the examples given above. You might remind student also to capitalize the first word of a sentence (omissions of this are usually due to carelessness).

2. Tell student to capitalize all words in a proper noun (title, place names, organization) except small prepositions, small conjunctions, and the articles. (These words are, of course, capitalized if they are the first word of the proper noun.) Pick out multi-word examples from above; note that the and of aren't capitalized.

Lovely is the Desert  
The Land Above
V.A. Use of capitals in abbreviations, titles, organizations, places

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

3. For capitalization, it is especially essential to spend time with student going over rules. This is because it is difficult to read a number of rules and take it all in; they are not likely to assimilate the information without verbal directions and exercises. Ask student questions orally and elicit answers requiring use of capitals in answer. You write answers on board.

ANSWERS:

1. The; Place of Emergence
2. Apaches; Fort Apache; San Carlos Reservation
3. Mr. Zah; Mr. McDonald
4. President Carter; Washington, D.C.
5. The Sierra Club
6. The Mescalero Apache Reservation
7. Have; Vine Deloria's Custer Died for Your Sins?
8. U.T.E.T.C.; United Tribes in Bismarck, North Dakota
9. Have; Organ Pipe National Monument
10. My; Hamlet, by William Shakespeare
11. Last; I; Tewa Fireside Tales
12. Phyllis Bigpond; Phoenix Indian Center; Oklahoma

Note: for capitalization, as with other skills, the whole sentence is either right or wrong.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

GED-SB; DWS, pp. 182-186
Spelling, pp. 90-99
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 119-123
LDL 4, pp. 16-21
EE, pp. 89-91
LE - Gold Bk., pp. 3-6
LE - Red Bk., pp. 3-6
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 23-26
V.B. Use of capitals in languages, races, nationalities, religions

Other uses of the capital include names of races, nationalities, tribes, and the languages people speak:

- Tewa
- Hopi
- Japanese
- Hispanic
- English
- Cherokee

Religions, religious figures, divinities:

- God
- Catholicism
- The Holy Spirit
- First Man, First Woman

Teaching Suggestions:

1. Again, go over each example with student. Then, let student think up one example for each case listed above and write it down.

2. Remind student to capitalize all words in a proper noun, such as The Holy Spirit above, not just the first word.

3. Ask student questions orally requiring use of capitals in answer. Then have student write down his answers, capitalizing correctly. Examples of questions could be these:

   a) What tribe do you belong to?
   b) Do you have a particular faith?
   c) What languages do your friends speak?
   d) Have you ever known anyone from another country? If so, what nationality were they?

Answers:

1. The Mesa Verde Indians; Anasazi
2. The Kayenta Anasazi
3. Many Hispanic; Texas; Spanish
4. Eototo and Aholi; Hopi
5. The Havasupai Indians
6. Pueblo Indians; Spanish; Rio Grande
7. Early Spanish and Portuguese; Christianity; Indians, Southwest
8. The; Cocopah's Skip and Comat

Supplemental Materials:

GED-SB:DWS, pp. 182-186
Spelling, pp. 90-99
BSG, Bk. 1, pp. 119-123
LE - Gold Bk., pp. 3-6
LE - Red Bk., pp. 3-6
UNITS IV & V POST-TEST: PUNCTUATION/CAPITALIZATION

1. Occasionally.
2. informal.
3. ground.
4. The Founding of Hotevilla
5. "Job Opportunities for Youth"; Sunday's
6. mother's
7. '48; farmers'
8. after-school
9. said. "Come to my house for dinner next Tuesday."
10. hard-earned
11. Navajos; Hopis; Yavapais. (last comma is optional)
13. The Mesa Verde Indians; Anasazi; Cliff Palace
14. Spanish; Christianity; New Mexico Indians
15. The Quechan Indian Reservation; Colorado River
16. Last; I; Black Elk Speaks; I'm; "My Life in Fort Apache."