The teacher's guide for the Pre-GED (General Educational Development) Level II writing skills workbook of the PATHWAYS Curriculum provides a concise explanation of each skill presented in the 45 lessons, suggested teaching strategies, answers to the exercises, and a list of available commercial materials that may be used to supplement the exercises. The lessons deal with: (1) correct usage of the parts of speech; (2) sentence structure; (3) paragraph development; (4) punctuation; and (5) capitalization. The guide presents detailed, step-by-step instructions for implementing the suggested strategies, which may be used for both individualized and group instructional settings. 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.
PATHWAYS
An Adult Pre-GED
Writing Skills
Workbook
Level II
Teacher's Guide
PATHWAYS

AN ADULT PRE-GED WRITING SKILLS WORKBOOK
Level II

TEACHER'S GUIDE

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This guide is part of a culture-based, GED preparatory reading and writing curriculum for adult education students. Based on skill 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 twofold. 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 in 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**

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<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Readability</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-GED Level I</td>
<td>6th</td>
<td>5.7 - 6.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-GED Level II</td>
<td>7th</td>
<td>6.5 - 7.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pre-GED Level III</td>
<td>8th</td>
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**Writing Workbooks**

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</table>

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.
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.
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
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<tr>
<td>BBSR</td>
<td>Building Basic Skills in <em>Reading</em>, Contemporary Books, Inc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>BBSW</td>
<td>Building Basic Skills in <em>Writing</em>, Contemporary Books, Inc.</td>
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<td>Specific Skills Series, Barnell-Loft, Ltd.</td>
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<td>Basic Skills in <em>Grammar</em>, Cambridge Book Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>EE</td>
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<tr>
<td>EW</td>
<td><em>Everyday Writing</em></td>
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<td>FPP</td>
<td>From <em>Pictures to Passages</em>, Contemporary Books, Inc.</td>
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<td>GED-SB:DWS</td>
<td>GED Scorebooster, Developing Writing Skills, GED Test Preparation Series, Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
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<td>IE (Cam IE)</td>
<td>Introduction to English, Pre-GED, Cambridge Book Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>LDL</td>
<td>Language in Daily Living, Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>LE</td>
<td>Language Exercises, Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
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<td>LOL</td>
<td>Learning Our Language, Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
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<td>PGLS</td>
<td>Pre-GED Language Skills, Cambridge Book Co.</td>
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<td>PGRS</td>
<td>Pre-GED Reading Skills, Cambridge Book Co.</td>
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<td>PGW</td>
<td>Pre-GED Writing Skills, McGraw-Hill Book Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RFC (RC)</td>
<td>Reading for Comprehension, Cambridge Book Co.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
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<td>SPS (CSPS)</td>
<td>Skill Power Series, Cambridge Book Co.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>CVR</td>
<td>Adult Reading Series, A Sequential Program (2200-2600), Steck Vaughn Co.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>The New Streamlined English Series, New Readers Press</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONTENTS

Acknowledgements ii
Preface: To the Teacher- iii
Key to supplemental materials viii

Unit I: Parts of Speech

Noun used as subject and object 2
Mass and count nouns 3
Noun used as object of preposition 4
Kinds of pronouns 6
Pronoun used as subject, direct object, and indirect object 8
Pronoun used as object of preposition 9
Correct pronoun case 10
Pronoun-antecedent agreement 12
Present progressive tense 14
Present perfect tense 15
Past perfect tense 16
Past progressive tense 18
Active versus passive voice 19
Possessive and demonstrative adjectives 21
Kinds of adjectives 22
Comparison of adjectives 24
Use of adverbs 25
Adverb as modifier of verb, adjective, or other adverb 27
Comparison of adverbs 28
Prepositional words and phrases 30
Conjunctions and their use 32
Unit I Post-Test: Parts of Speech 33

Unit II: Sentence Structure

Complete, incomplete, and run-on sentences 35
Subject-verb agreement 37
Verb used as adjective 39
Avoidance of double negative 40
Unit II Post-Test: Sentence Structure 42

Unit III: Paragraph Development
Characteristics of paragraph writing 44
Dialogue in narrative writing 45
Sequencing in narrative writing 47
Deductive method of paragraph writing 48
Use of examples in expository writing 49
Order of importance in expository writing 50
Unit III Post-Test: Paragraph Development 51

Unit IV: Punctuation
Use of comma in compound sentence 53
Comma used with appositive 55
Use of comma with introductory phrases 57
Use of semicolon in compound sentence without conjunction 59
Use of semicolon with sentence connectors 60
Use of colon to introduce list of items 61
Use of quotation marks in titles 63
Use of apostrophe in dates, contractions, and possessives 64
Use of apostrophe with joint ownership 66
Underlining in titles of books and periodicals 67
Use of hyphen in two-word adjective before noun 68
Use of hyphen with prefixes and suffixes 69

Unit V: Capitalization
Use of capitals in abbreviations, titles, organizations, places, languages, races, nationalities, religions 71
Use of capitals in poetry 73
Units IV & V Post-Test: Punctuation/Capitalization 74
I. PARTS OF SPEECH

A.1. Noun used as subject and object

The noun may be used as a subject or an object. A subject noun is the "doer" of the action ("Joe sings") and an object noun receives the action ("the boy embraced his grandfather").

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. At this point, student should have learned that a noun can function in 3 ways: as subject, direct object, or indirect object. At this point, student has not yet learned that a noun may be the object of a preposition. Give the student an example of each noun function to remind student of the 3 functions before she/he does task. Keep to simple subjects; don't confuse student by discussing the idea of a complete subject, in which adjectives and articles are included.

2. If student cannot distinguish between a subject and object, have student write 5 or 7 sentences. You point out the subjects and objects in the first one or two, then have student continue.

3. Have student pick out two things in the room (including people). Tell student to write two sentences using those things as subjects. Then have student pick out two more things and use those as direct objects. Have student pick out two people and use them as indirect objects. Correct any misconceptions before going from one part of the task to the next.

ANSWERS:

1. S
2. D
3. S
4. D
5. S
6. D
7. S
8. I

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 27-32
SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 44-52
SIL II, pp. 49-51
BBSW I, pp. 47-55
LDL II, pp. 45-49

direct object; indirect object
I.A.2. Mass and count nouns

A **count** noun may be counted, such as toe, orange, knife. A **mass** noun is thought of as one entity, such as corn growing in a field or the water in a river.

**TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:**

1. Explain the conceptual differences to student. If student has difficulty understanding that we do not pluralize all nouns in English because we don't divide all things into recognizable parts, get a glass of water and pour water, asking student to point out the different "waters" in the glass. (He can't.) Or, do this with the smoke of a cigarette or the coffee in a cup.

2. Have student write down three countable nouns. Ask student to tell you why they're countable. Then ask student to write 3 mass nouns and explain why they're mass nouns. If student can't think of any, tell student to look outside for ideas (air, smoke) or think about what he/she eats and drinks (corn, coffee).

**ANSWERS:**

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

**SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:**

BBSW I, pp. 62-64
PGLS, pp. 59-61
I.A.3. Noun used as object of preposition

When a noun is used as the object of a preposition, it is
the noun which ends the prepositional phrase.

   after the war (a prepositional phrase)
   / prep. art. noun

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. In this lesson, student must learn that a noun can be
   used in a prepositional phrase. Point out to student that
   we rarely write or speak a sentence which does not contain
   a prepositional phrase. (The first sentence contains two.)
   Student has already learned about prepositions, so all stu-
   dent is learning here is that a prepositional phrase ends
   with a noun (as it begins with a preposition). Refresh
   student's memory as to what is a prepositional phrase (give
   examples). Point out that prepositional phrases end with
   a noun. This noun is the object of the preposition. Write
   3 or 4 prepositional phrases on board (or paper) and under-
   line the nouns.

2. Write the following phrases on the board (or paper):

   down the road
   across the mountain
   in a box

   Have student write or orally supply three new nouns that
   make sense for each of the above phrases.

3. Have student write a paragraph describing his or her name
   so you can visualize it. Then, have student underline the
   prepositional phrases. Have student tell you the nouns
   that are the objects of the preposition. Student should
   use phrases such as in the corner, on the floor, through
   the door, (hanging) from the wall, etc.

ANSWERS:

1. wickiup
2. bank; river
3. path; post
4. dyes
5. Blue Ridge Campground; Mogollon Rim
6. spring
7. apartments
8. soil
I.A.3 Noun used as object of preposition

ANSWERS:

1. outside the wickiup; on the ground
2. at the bank; of the river; into the water
3. in Navajo blankets; with angular lines
4. along the dusty road; at the sky
5. along the road; through the White Mountains; in central
6. For many centuries; under cliffs; along rivers
7. Along the valley; of the Rio Grande River; in the spring
8. after the thunderstorm

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 30-32
SIL II, pp. 54-56
I.B.1. Kinds of pronouns

**Demonstrative** pronouns point out which one: These are the cheapest earrings in the store.

**Indefinite** pronouns express the idea of quantity without naming explicitly the doer of the action: Everyone wanted his supper.

**Reflexive** pronouns point the action back on the doer: She felt herself losing consciousness.

**Possessive** pronouns tell whose something is: The moccasins in the corner are mine.

**TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:**

1. Student has been introduced to all the above pronouns at this point, but some examples and clarification may be necessary. Review pronoun lists if necessary; otherwise, hope that an example will spark remembrance of others. If student has difficulty, use props, as in the following illustration:

   a) Hand student your book. Ask whose it is. Student will say its yours. Point out that this is a possessive pronoun. Do not mix pronouns with possessive adjectives (my, your).

   b) Hold up two books. Ask student which one he prefers. Student will say "that one" or "this one". You ask, "Is this the book you prefer?" (Yes.) Write this sentence on the board, to reinforce idea.

2. If student has difficulty distinguishing adjectives from pronouns, point out that the pronoun will be the subject of the sentence. Write these two sentences:

   Few boys want to grow up.
   Few were old enough to understand.

Ask student to tell you the subject in each case (boys and few). Point out that a pronoun cannot describe a noun, so when they write or see a pronoun, in this exercise it will be the subject of the sentence.

**ANSWERS:**

I.B.1. Kinds of pronouns

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 90-91
PGLS, pp. 132-133; pp. 142-144
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 113-115, pp. 90-91
REW, BK. 2, p. 73
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 51-52
I.B.2. Pronoun used as subject, direct object, and indirect 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.
The object form of the pronoun is used for both direct object and indirect object.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Ask student to give you a sentence using me; then, a sentence using him; then, a sentence using she; and so on until all subject and object pronouns are used correctly.

2. To distinguish between direct and indirect object, write several sentence patterns on the board, some requiring a pronoun to be used as indirect object and some as direct object.

Ex: I gave ______ the ball.
    The ball hit ______ in the face.

Ask the student to tell the part of speech of each pronoun.

3. Put a group of sentences on the board. Ask student to underline each pronoun and identify its proper function. This may be done in pairs.

Ex: I spoke to him a week ago about dinner.
    We gave her a beaded purse for Christmas.
    My friend wants him to see the game.

ANSWERS:


SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 91-92
SIL II, pp. 51, 90-93
PGLS, pp. 127-130
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 56-58, pp. 59-60
I.B.3. Pronoun used as object of preposition

When a pronoun is preceded by a preposition (to her, with them, from him), it is the object of that preposition.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. If student has recently worked on nouns as objects of prepositional phrases, he/she should have no difficulty with this exercise. Remind student that the object pronouns are always me, you, him, her, it, whom, us, and them.

2. If student has difficulty, write a phrase on the board: with her. Ask student to supply alternatives for with. Do the same thing using other object pronouns. Student should quickly see that a preposition precedes the pronoun. (In some cases and may precede the pronoun directly but a preposition will still start the phrase, such as in between her and me.)

3. Use the demonstration technique:

   You: Give the pen to her.
   S: I'm giving the pen to her.
   You: Take this piece of paper from me.
   S: I'm taking this piece of paper from you.

ANSWERS:

1. her  
2. him; me  
3. them; us  
4. whom  
5. us  
6. them; me  
7. him; her  
8. us; him  
9. him; whom  
10. him  
11. us  
12. him; them  

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SPS, Bk. 2, p. 90  
BBSW I, pp. 145-147  
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 57-58
I.B.4. Correct pronoun case: subject vs. object

The personal pronouns (I, me, she, her, etc.) usually change their forms according to the function of the pronoun in the sentence. Subject pronouns are always I, you, she, he, it, we, and they. Object pronouns are me, you (no change), her, him, it (no change), us, and them.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. In this case, student is being asked to discriminate between subject and object usage of the pronouns. Student may have little difficulty at this point. If student has difficulty distinguishing object from subject, write four sentences on the board, two with subject pronouns and two with object pronouns. Ask student to identify subjects and objects.

2. For compound subjects and predicates, point out that the choice remains the same; choose as if there were only a single subject or object:

She and John went looking for Phil.
She went looking for Phil.
John went looking for Phil.

People tend to make subject/object discrimination difficult, but it's not.

3. Use demonstration/substitution drill: have student write two sentences about the same act and the same person, but in one case the pronoun will be an object, in another case, a subject. For example, tell student to hand book to another student. Student should write two sentences about this act:

I gave her the book. (object)
She took the book from me. (subject)

Have student underline the pronoun she's emphasizing and tell you what function each takes.

If students need more explanation (students may have some difficulty understanding what the teacher wants written), teacher should demonstrate the action and write two sentences on the board. Then demonstrate another action, asking students to orally give responses; write these on board.

ANSWERS:

1. me; he
2. them
3. I; him
4. I; them
5. we
6. me; we
7. She
8. me
9. I
10. We; we
11. her
12. him; him
I.B.4. Correct pronoun case: subject vs. object

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

- SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 91-92
- SIL II, pp. 51, 90-93
- LE, Gold Bk., p. 79
- PGLS, pp. 127-131
- LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 57-58, pp. 56-57
I.B.5. Pronoun-antecedent agreement

A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number and gender.

Each of the boys brought their dog to the river.

WRONG

Each of the boys brought his dog to the river.

RIGHT

The antecedent is the noun or pronoun to which the underlined pronoun refers. In the above example, each is the antecedent.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

1. Student may have some difficulty with this lesson, but if student has studied subject/verb agreement, the difficulty may not be too great. In the first exercise, the pronoun is underlined for the student. The student must first identify the antecedent, then decide if the two agree. In order to help student identify antecedent, tell student that the antecedent will always be the subject of the sentence. Thus, if the subject is plural, the pronoun that comes later must be plural also.

Ex: The men danced and waved their sticks.

subj. pronoun

(antecedent)

Plural subject (men) goes with plural pronoun (their). In this lesson, we are not concerned with the fact that the pronoun is functioning as an adjective.

Ex: The girl found her comb on the floor.

subj. pronoun

(antecedent)

Singular subject (girl) takes singular pronoun (her).

You might also tell student that pronoun subjects such as one, every, each, are always singular subjects. They should recognize that all, most, both, etc. are plural subjects.

Give the student these and other examples. Make sure she understands this concept before you insert prepositional phrases between the subject and the verb, as in the following example:

One (of the boys) left his books in the classroom

sing. prep. sing.

subj. phrase pronoun

Then do two or three examples as above, explaining to student that prepositional phrases do not affect the subject.
I.B.5. Pronoun-antecedent agreement

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

2. If student has difficulty with the above, write several prepositional phrases on the board:

   of the boys
   of those girls

   and have student complete sentences by inserting a subject and predicate.

3. Certain words are always plural and take plural pronouns. Have students memorize these words:

   both    few    many    several

ANSWERS:

1. *; One
2. *; trees
3. 0; One
4. 0; dancer
5. *; John and Liz
6. 0; None
7. *; dog
8. *; one
1. its
2. its
3. his
4. its
5. their
6. her
7. their
8. their

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

IE, pp. 62-63
SIL II, p. 106
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 48-49
I.C.1. Present progressive tense

The present progressive is formed with the present tense of the verb BE (am, is, or are) and the -ing form of another verb: *is coming.*

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student should have no difficulty with this tense by this grade level. The pattern and the inflections should be ingrained. However, if student uses the wrong helping verb or makes some other error, give the student a series of verbs, suggesting a subject, and have the student respond with a sentence, thusly:

   You: "Count." Use "man".
   S: The man is counting his money.

   You: "Paint." Use "girls".
   S: The girls are painting bright pictures.

   You: "Walk." Use "I".
   S: I am walking to the store.

Correct any errors in agreement before you allow the student to go on.

ANSWERS:

1. is using
2. is painting
3. is going
4. are performing
5. is preparing
6. are sleeping
7. is opening
8. am counting

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 53
SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 78-85
IE, pp. 50-53
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 72-76
REW, Bk. 2, p. 26
1. C. 2. Present perfect tense

The present perfect is formed with has or have and the past participle of another verb: have learned, has gone.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student has been working with this tense for awhile, also, so it should present little difficulty. Watch for errors in agreement (the boys have gone vs. the girl has gone) and for errors in making the past participle. This is where the error is most likely to occur.

2. If student still has difficulty with this tense, write several present perfect verbs for student and have student complete the sentence:

   You: "Have changed."
   S: We have changed for the better.
   You: "Has forgotten."
   S: My brother has forgotten to give me money this week.

3. Review how to form past participle of verb, especially the irregular ones. Sometimes, memorization and repetition are the only two ways.

ANSWERS:

1. have woven
2. have camped
3. have taken
4. has prepared
5. has participated
6. has dealt
7. have watched
8. has given

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 53
SIL II, pp. 81-83
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 116-119
REW, Bk. 2, p. 37
I.C.3. Past perfect tense

The past perfect is formed with had and the past participle of another verb: had lived, had gone.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This tense might be a little more difficult for the student, although the form is actually quite easy, since had, the helping verb, never varies. The main difficulty is to get the student to understand that this tense is used to express action that came before another action which is also past. This action will be either stated or implied in the sentence, but in our sentences, we have always stated the second verb right in the sentence. Student will have no difficulty picking out the past perfect tenses, since all past perfect tenses begin with had, but if student cannot identify which of the two actions occurred first, do the first two or three items with student and take apart sentence, asking student, "Now, what two things happened in this sentence?"

   S: I had driven, and I reached the reservation.
   You: OK, which thing happened first? Did you drive before you reached the reservation or reach the reservation and then drive?
   S: I drove first, then reached the reservation.

Hopefully, this will clarify it for the student. If not, as a last resort you may tell student that the verb with had in front of it (the past perfect verb) will always be the earlier of the two actions. But make sure you've explained the concept to the student before you give him the pat formula.

2. With this exercise, it's good to have student write about four sentences of his own, to reinforce the idea of two verbs in a sentence, one in the past perfect and the other in the simple past.

3. Two students can do this exercise together, one writing or speaking prepared sentences containing both a past perfect verb and a simple past verb, and the other saying which action happened first, which second.

ANSWERS:

1. had driven; had driven
2. had promised; had promised
3. had eaten; had eaten
4. had completed; had completed
5. had rained; had rained
6. had arranged; had arranged
7. had gone; had gone
8. had stopped; had stopped
I.C. 3. Past perfect tense

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SIL II, p. 82
BBSW I, pp. 103-109, 114-118
REW, Bk. 2, p. 41
I.C.4. Past progressive tense

The past progressive form of the verb is formed with the past tense of the verb BE (was, were) and the -ing form of another verb.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This shouldn't present much difficulty either, as the form is easy to make and follow. If student has difficulty, it is suggested that you offer the student drills which resemble those of verb #1 and verb #2 in each sentence.

2. At this point, it's good practice to have student review the four tenses he has worked with by having him write at least two sentences using each of the four tenses.

ANSWERS:

1. was weaving
2. were living
3. were wearing
4. were farming
5. was molding
6. was bringing
7. was producing
8. was placing
9. was using
10. were building
11. were trading
12. was coiling

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 53
REW, Bk. 2, pp. 27-28
I.C.5. Active vs. passive voice

In active voice, the doer of the action is the subject of the sentence:

*Coyote ate the squirrel.* (Coyote did the eating.)

In passive voice, the "receiver" of the action (squirrel) becomes the subject, and the "doer" (Coyote) is the object of a preposition:

*The squirrel was eaten by Coyote.*

The active form *ate* is changed to its passive form "*was eaten*".

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This concept may be difficult for the student. Student must learn that there are two forms of the passive voice: present and past (Example: *is cooked, was cooked*). The step-by-step approach in this lesson should help student master the forms. In the first exercise, student changes active forms into passive forms, past and present tenses. Student must be familiar with past participles to do this. Next, student performs same action but within a sentence. Finally, student must actually change a sentence from its passive voice back to its active voice (student knows active voice, so it should be easier to write a sentence of this type than the other.).

2. If student has difficulty, have student write a sentence using the active voice. (There must be subject-verb-object pattern for it to be changeable.) Example: "I drove my car this morning." Now, have student change the sentence, while you guide her/him by beginning the sentence yourself: "The car was driven by me this morning." When student understands this pattern after several examples, have student insert a prepositional phrase: "I drove my car to school this morning." When student changes this sentence to passive voice, the main problem will be to get student to put the prepositional phrase in the right place. We don't say, "The car was driven by me this morning to school." We put the prepositional phrase next to the object: "The car was driven by me to school this morning," or "I drove my car to school this morning." (This morning, an adverb phrase, goes at the end of the sentence.) This aspect of English usage is difficult but very important and, they'll encounter it frequently on their GED test. But they also need to write English sentences in the normal syntactical manner for jobs, etc.
I.C.5. Active vs. passive voice

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

3. Teacher and students can do a lot of redesigning sentences orally. Teacher gives "passive" sentence first and student changes it to "active". Teacher should have a list of statements using a great variety of verbs--jump, sit, write, encounters, weave, leave, kneel.

ANSWERS:

1. was read  
2. was blown  
3. was cut  
4. was handled  
5. was allowed  
6. was excited  
7. was cooked  
8. was killed

1. was scared  
2. are woven  
3. was eaten  
4. is; indulged  
5. is brought  
6. are heard  
7. is; feared  
8. is sung

1. The angry deer chased Coyote.  
2. The Hopis on First Mesa make pottery.  
3. Pima children carry water to their parents.  
4. Coyote quickly ate the rabbit.  
5. Navajos sing the Bead Chant for skin irritations.  
6. The relatives named the child "Evening Star."  
7. At the girl's puberty rite, the guests chanted many songs.  
8. The Anasazi wove ropes for climbing mountains.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 8-9  
REW, Bk. 2, pp. 63-67
I.D.1. Possessive and demonstrative adjectives

A possessive adjective shows ownership: my, his, her, its, our, your, their.
A demonstrative adjective points out which one(s): these, those, that, this.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student should not have much difficulty with this now. There are no pronouns at all in the exercise, so no confusion will arise there. Students have only to distinguish possessive from demonstrative and identify. Don't give them the lists of adjectives unless necessary, for doing so gives them the answers. Give an example and further clarification if necessary.

2. This would be a good time to point up the distinction between their—there—they're and its—it's. Explain the different uses of these words and, to reinforce learning, have student write one sentence for each of these five words. Make sure usage is correct in each case before going on to the next.

3. If student is still having difficulty with these two types of pronouns, use props and demonstration method to reinforce idea of possession ("my book, your hair") and pointing out ("that table, these maps").

4. It would help to explain to students that we generally use this or these for near items and that or those for distant items.

ANSWERS:

1. These; their
2. these; her
3. this; their
4. This; its
5. Those; your
6. These; their
7. This; its
8. That; my

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 6-8
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 13, 18
LE, Gold Bk., p. 86
I.D.2. Kinds of adjectives

**Possessive adjectives** show possession or ownership: my, his, its, our, your, her, their.

**Demonstrative adjectives** point out which ones: these, those, that, this.

**Descriptive adjectives** describe or specify or further clarify nouns; they tell how many, what size, what kind, what color, what shape, etc.

**Articles** are the words A, AN, and THE. For the purpose of this exercise, they are included under descriptive adjectives since they tell how many.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. An easy way to spot adjectives is to look at words immediately preceding nouns. This is the standard adjective position. It also helps students to pick out the nouns first.

2. Once students have learned to easily spot adjectives, they will need to ask themselves how the adjective functions in relation to the noun.

3. List nouns and ask students to fill in blanks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>possessive</th>
<th>descriptive</th>
<th>demonstrative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>books</td>
<td>birds</td>
<td>Americans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td>long</td>
<td>peninsula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>those</td>
<td>bridges</td>
<td>answers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ANSWERS:

**Descriptive** (student may select any 6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>the</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>older</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>last</td>
<td>one</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>summer</td>
<td>nearby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>young</td>
<td>four</td>
<td>Tall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spotted</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>sheepskin</td>
<td>two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td>one</td>
<td>unmarried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an</td>
<td>two</td>
<td>Navajo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I.D.2. Kinds of adjectives

ANSWERS:

**Demonstrative**

these
these

**Possessive (any 4)**

their
person’s
her
her
their
their
their
their

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 6-8
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 13, 18
PGLS, pp. 155-156
LE, Gold Bk., p. 86
I.D.3. Comparison of adjectives

Regular adjectives are compared thusly: two things: weaker; three or more things: weakest. Some adjectives, usually longer ones, sound awkward with -er and -est suffixes, and so we use more and most (more orderly; most atrocious).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student should not have trouble if she/he understands the rules: always use -er or more when comparing two things, -est and most if comparing three or more things. If student has trouble, write a list of five or six adjectives and have student write the comparative and superlative forms (you need not refer to them as such). Make sure student knows we never say "more better" in English; in other words, we never combine the -er and more in the same adjective. This is a good place to break the student of such habits.

2. It is important at this point for student to start applying this skill toward good English usage, so have student do writing exercise in which student generates at least two sentences using the comparative and two using the superlative (you may not want to use these terms.)

ANSWERS:

1. prettier
2. least excited
3. most sacred
4. more dangerous
5. weaker
6. sturdier
7. tallest
8. most colorful

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 93-94
SIL II, p. 93
IE, pp. 77-79
PGLS, pp. 179-188
REW, Bk. 1, pp. 82, 84
REW, Bk. 2, p. 71
LE, Gold Bk., pp. 83-85
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 82-84
I.E.1. Use of adverbs

An adverb is used to modify a verb. It also modifies another adverb or an adjective. It provides certain kinds of information: tells where something happened (down); tells when (tomorrow), tells to what extent (very); tells in what manner (tightly).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. In this exercise, student is asked to recognize adverbs. Adverbs and adjectives give life to language, and it's important to be able to use them. If student has trouble picking out adverbs, one hint is that they often end in -ly. Tell student to ask himself these questions when looking for adverbs: Where? When? How? How much? Emphatic words that change the meaning of a sentence, like not, never, certainly, possibly, are also adverbs, so tell student to look for this kind of word.

2. If student still has difficulty grasping the meaning of adverb, ask her questions requiring the use of an adverb in the answer:

You: "When are you going back to the reservation?"
S: "I'm going Saturday."
You: "How do you usually drive?"
S: "I usually drive pretty fast."
You: "How well did you dance last Saturday?"
S: "I did pretty well." (Correct student if she says "good").

3. For further practice and to get student to build his use of adverbs, have student do drill in which you write sentences and student substitutes several appropriate adverbs in the correct place (correct placement of adverb is very important).

He quickly herded the sheep.
He slowly herded the sheep.
He anxiously herded the sheep.

etc.

(Make sure the adverb is logical and, remember, we don't say, "He herded quickly the sheep.")

The old chief spoke long and well.
The old chief spoke fast and furiously.
The old chief spoke angrily and uneasily.

etc.

(Don't allow the student to omit the -ly on the adverb.)
I.E.1. Use of adverbs

ANSWERS:

1. only; never
2. not
3. slowly
4. annually
5. always
6. very; usually
7. later; roughly
8. Traditionally; naked

Answers will vary:

1. The boy ran fast.
2. I have not eaten.
3. He tore down the rotten boards.
4. Tomorrow, I'll bake bread.
5. Certainly, I'll bring a dish.
6. The task was very easy to complete.
7. He easily mounted the horse.
8. I finally attempted the task.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 59
PGLS, pp. 165-173
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 80-81
LE, Gold Bk., pp. 87-89
I.E.2. Adverb as modifier of verb, adjective, or other adverb

An adverb may modify one of three parts of speech: a verb (runs awkwardly); an adjective (too harsh); or another adverb (very quickly).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. The principal point of this lesson is to get student to recognize that an adverb may modify several parts of speech, and to encourage student to utilize adverbs in several ways. Ask student to look for the word in sentence which adverb (underline) modifies. They then write the part of speech for the modified word. In the last four sentences, they must also identify the adverb, but there is only one per sentence.

2. To reinforce idea of adverb and adjective being used together, write a series of combination modifiers and have student complete the sentence.

...too far.
...very beautiful.
...so nervous...
...more exciting...

ANSWERS:

1. together; verb
2. usually; verb
3. steadily; verb
4. inward; verb
5. too; adverb strongly; verb
6. unexpectedly; verb quickly; verb very; adverb
7. very; adjective once; verb
8. rather; adverb awkwardly; verb

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

IE, pp. 89-91
SIL II, p. 93
PGLS, pp. 165-173
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 80-81
LE, Gold Bk., pp. 87-89
I.E.3. Comparison of adverbs

Adverbs may be compared in the comparative degree (two things are compared) or the superlative degree (three or more things are compared). The regular form for making comparisons is to use more with comparative degree and most with superlative degree.

Ex: He ran more swiftly than she did.
The horse ran most swiftly of all of them.

Some adverbs have irregular forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fast</th>
<th>Faster</th>
<th>Fastest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Well</td>
<td>Better</td>
<td>Best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early</td>
<td>Earlier</td>
<td>Earliest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student should be somewhat familiar with these forms but must simply memorize the most common forms, if not. Refer to lists in appendix. That good is an adjective and well an adverb, for instance, is something one must memorize. In this exercise, we have always compared one object/person to one other one when we wanted the comparative, even though one object may be compared to a group of objects, and still the comparative, rather than the superlative, degree is used (She ran faster than any of her sisters did). Student should thus not be too troubled by this exercise. If student chooses incorrectly, ask student to tell you what things are being compared.

2. Since adverb/adjective comparisons are used so frequently and constitute one of the most glaring errors made by English speakers, have student practice doing it correctly by writing one sentence using each of the following adverbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Well</th>
<th>Better</th>
<th>Best</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Badly</td>
<td>Worse</td>
<td>Worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slowly</td>
<td>More slowly</td>
<td>Most slowly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far</td>
<td>Farther</td>
<td>Farthest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Student will write 12 sentences in all.

ANSWERS:

1. better
2. well
3. more
4. more
5. least
6. earlier
7. most
8. more
I.E.3. Comparison of adverbs

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 93-94
SIL II, p. 93
PGLS, pp. 179-190
REW, Bk. 1, p. 83
REW, Bk. 2, p. 71
LOL, Bk. 2, p. 82-84
I.F.1: Prepositional words and phrases

Prepositions point direction: across, down, toward, with. They are always followed by nouns or pronouns, usually in phrases (these phrases often contain articles or adjectives).

preposition: by
prepositional phrase: by the still water
prep. adjec.
art. -noun

A noun or pronoun is always the object of the preposition and ends the phrase. This is why, with practice, phrases are easy to recognize.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Before student does exercise is a good time to familiarize him/her with the idea of a prepositional phrase. Ask student questions:

   You: "Where is your house?"
   S: "On First Mesa," or "In Tuba City."
   You: "How do you get there?"
   S: "You drive up highway 87 to Second Mesa, then you go up the hill to First Mesa," etc.

   Write down or keep in mind everything student says and after a short conversation, as above, point out to him all the prepositions used. Then point out all the prepositional phrases. This is a good way to instill idea in student's mind and show him how pervasive is the use of prepositional phrases. (We can hardly write a sentence without one; note this sentence.)

2. Refer student to list of common prepositions in back of book. Then have student write half a dozen prepositional phrases of her own. If she can do this, she'll have no trouble with the exercises.

3. If student has trouble, have her act out actions requiring the understanding of prepositions. Have her walk around the room, toward you, away from the blackboard, sit down on the floor. Students whose first language is not English often have a good deal of trouble understanding the meaning of prepositions or using the right ones with the particular actions. For example, we put the mail in the slot, not down the slot. But use this demonstration method only if student is troubled.

4. Two students together can do exercise #1, which provides an opportunity for both to learn prepositional phrases simultaneously.
I.F.1. Prepositional words and phrases

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

5. Discreetly have a tape recorder recording the pre-class conversations between students. Ask students' permission to replay and count prepositional phrases.

ANSWERS:

1. (by the spring)  
   (of the villages)  
   (on Second Mesa.)

2. (of 800)  
   (in the eastern half)  
   (of the Mojave Desert.)

3. (in the late 1700's)  
   (into Mojave territory)  
   (on the west side)  
   (of the Colorado River.)

4. (from the Utes,)  
   (of Plains Indian traits)

5. (of the Papagos)  
   (on their reservation)  
   (for the entire year)

6. (for their basketry,)  
   (of willow and devil's-claw.)

7. (in the United States)

8. (in the early days)  
   (during the spring and summer months.)

Answers will vary:

1. The raft floated along the river.
2. For a short time, I watched the current.
3. After a long discussion, we agreed not to move.
4. Outside the door, the wind was blowing.
5. Second Mesa lies beyond First Mesa.
6. Harry gave a watch to his sister for Christmas.
7. With a quick glance toward the sun, the boy ran off.
8. This necklace is a present from grandfather.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 15/  
SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 54-56  
IE, pp. 84-85  
LDL, pp. 1-12  
SIL II (C), pp. 54-56  
LE, Gold Bk., pp. 91-92
I.G.1. Conjunctions and their use

Conjunctions are of two types: they join words, phrases, or clauses (Jim and Alan went horseback riding) or they introduce a dependent clause (When he left, he took his hat with him).

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Conjunctions are the hardest part of speech (or possibly second-hardest, after pronouns), and difficult for mainstream students as well as second-language students. Before student does exercise, give him one sentence containing each type of conjunction and see if he can identify it after you've gone over definitions with him.

EX: Susan and Helen left early. (words)
I'm going to eat lots of food and feel full tonight. (phrases)
He fed his horse, and he took him for a ride. (clauses)
There's the girl who drove the Corvette before she bought it. (dependent clause)

2. The first exercise contains 16 conjunctions for recognition. If student has trouble recognizing conjunctions, use experiential examples verbally in which student must identify the conjunction you used or use one themselves. Always use the more obvious conjunctions such as but, so, and, for, rather than the more obscure ones.

ANSWERS:

and, so, and, but, and, because, and, until, when, so, and,
although, after, and, then, and

1. but; join clauses
2. and; join words
3. When; introduce dependent clause
4. so; joins independent clauses
5. While; introduce dependent clauses
6. nor; join words
7. Although; introduce dependent clauses
8. why; introduce dependent clauses

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

- BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 16-17
- PGLS, pp. 236-238
- LE, Gold Bk., p. 93
- LOL, Bk. 1, pp. 65-66
- LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 85-87
UNIT I POST-TEST: PARTS OF SPEECH

1. OP
2. IO
3. S
4. OP
5. S
6. S
7. R
8. P
9. I
10. D
11. me
12. We
13. him
14. She
15. her
16. its
17. his
18. is entering
19. has entered
20. had taken
21. was working
22. chased
23. was eaten
24. performed
25. is celebrated
26. D
27. P
28. S
29. D
30. better
31. more colorful
32. most beautiful
33. fondest
34. Cautiously
35. Carefully, slowly
36. Almost immediately; noiselessly
37. adverb (gently)
38. verb (combed)
39. verb (spreading)
40. more loudly
41. more

41. (of the Taos Indians)
   (as a group)
   (in 1884.)
42. (in the springtime,)
   (of my favorite weekend trips)
   (to Havasupai Canyon.)
43. Ex: I won't talk in person, but I'll write.
44. Ex: Unless you understand the directions, you won't do the exercise correctly.
II. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

A. Complete, incomplete, and run-on sentence

Remind students that a complete sentence has a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. A fragment or 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 students write four complete sentences and tell you what the subjects and verbs are.

ANSWERS:


Answers will vary:

1. Ex: The young man walked ten miles to reach the trading post before evening.
2. Ex: The child with the tired face had not slept for eighteen hours.
3. Ex: The sheep ran away because they were frightened by the horses.
   OR: The sheep ran away; they were frightened by the horses.
4. Yes
II.A. Complete, incomplete, and run-on sentences

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 69-73
SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 57-62
SIL II, pp. 57-62
LDL II, pp. 27-28
LE, Gold Bk., p. 41
II.B. 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.

(The prepositional phrase has no effect on the subject-verb relationship.)

2. Students also have difficulty with clauses coming between the main subject and verb.

Ex: The men who own the property allow us to use it.

Point out to student that the intervening clause has no effect on subject-verb agreement. Men (a plural subject) requires a plural verb (allow).

3. If student still has trouble with intervening phrases or clauses, put your finger over the phrase or clause 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.

4. Suggest that student quietly read sentence in the exercise aloud to himself. Hearing the sentence helps develop sentence sense.

5. Remind student that certain pronouns used as subjects, always take singular verbs. They are: every, each, everyone, everybody, nobody, anyone. (A complete list is at the back.) You might advise your student to always think of these words as modifying "one".

6. For further practice, put a group of phrases on the board as so:

One of the women...
All of the men...
Each of the boys...

and have student complete sentence correctly.
II.B. Subject-verb agreement

ANSWERS:

1. Each; wears
2. plumes; are
3. sits; bowl
4. housewives; sweep
5. sounds; echo
6. noises; increase
7. pottery; textiles; come
8. meal; is

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 47-50
SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 43-45, 85-87
LDL I, pp. 65-70
PGLS, pp. 43-49
LE, Gold Bk., p. 77
LOL, Bk. 2, p. 74-76
II.C. Verb used as adjective

A verb form used as an adjective is called a participle. Present participles consist of the verb + -ing.

Ex:  run + -ing = running

Past participles consist of the verb + -ed, -d, -t, -en, -n or sometimes a change in the whole verb.

Ex:  move + -ed = moved
     go   gone

Both present and past participles 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      a. the whistling wind
   b. the girls, laughing    b. the wind, whistling
   c. laughing, the girls    c. 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 participial phrases and have student complete the sentence.

   Ex:  Running over the hill,

This will help student see the function of participles.

ANSWERS:

1. Using
2. Living
3. Building
4. Diving
5. Completing
6. Whistling
7. Smelling
8. Running

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

SPS, Bk. 2, p. 87
SIL II, p. 87
LDL III, pp. 75-78
PGW, p. 72
II.D. Avoidance of double negative

A double negative occurs when two negative expressions are used to express a negative idea. Double negatives are incorrect. Just like in math, two negatives equal a positive.

Ex: can't do nothing = can do everything

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Review negative expressions with student: no, not, n't, neither, nor, no one, nobody, nothing, hardly, scarcely, barely, only, etc. Be sure student recognizes a negative when he sees it. This will enable student to avoid adding a second negative (double negative), to a sentence already containing one negative.

2. If necessary, review contracted forms with student:

   couldn't aren't
   won't isn't
   shouldn't didn't
   etc.

ANSWERS:

1. any
2. any
3. had
4. could
5. any
6. had
7. Most
8. could

1. He can do nothing until he finds his fetish. OR: He cannot do anything until he finds his fetish.
2. Before the winter solstice, the Zunis do not build any fires. OR: Before the winter solstice, the Zunis build no fires.
3. When she saw her wickiup burning, the woman could only cry helplessly. OR: The young man could find neither his bow nor his arrow.
4. The young man could find neither his bow nor his arrow. OR: The young man could find neither his bow nor his arrow.
5. Supposedly, the Utes did not make any of the silver belts they wore. OR: Supposedly, the Utes made none of the silver belts they wore.
6. The medicine man was so old he could scarcely walk.
7. There aren't any movie theatres on the Quechan Reservation. OR: There are no movie theatres on the Quechan Reservation.
8. During the long cold winter, the hunters could hardly find enough game to feed their families.
II.D. Avoidance of double negative

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 60
SIL II, p. 108
LOL, Bk. 1, p. 84-85
UNIT II POST-TEST: SENTENCE STRUCTURE

1. (Make sure it has a subject and predicate)
   Ex: He walked to town.

2. (Make sure student adds a predicate)
   Ex: The wind whistling in the pines made a lot of noise.

3. The Anasazi lived in southern Utah 700 years ago; since then, the area has not been inhabited.

4. Hopis; make
5. mantles; sit
6. group; has
7. pieces; are
8. Taking
9. Held
10. couldn't should be scratched out
11. no should be scratched out
12. Last week, the snow fell so often that we could hardly leave our hogan.
UNIT III
III. PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

A. Characteristics of paragraph writing:

Unity means that a paragraph is about one main idea.
Clarity means that ideas are logical and flow smoothly.
Topic sentence is the sentence that expresses the central idea of the paragraph.
Supporting sentences are those sentences which provide proof or explain why the topic sentence is true.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Have student memorize these characteristics of good paragraph writing.

2. 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 or main idea, then the rules have been learned.

3. Use sentences above and have student add supporting sentences.

4. Using examples from #2a and b above, ask student to add a sentence that does not support the topic sentence.

ANSWERS:

1. supporting sentences
2. clarity
3. unity
4. topic sentence

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

EE, pp. 40-41, 43, 53
III.B.1. Dialogue in narrative writing

Dialogue refers to a written conversation between two or more persons, using their exact words.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Have students work in pairs. Provide copies of newspaper articles. Have them rewrite article changing narration into dialogue. Students should include at least five pieces of dialogue. Remind them to punctuate quotations correctly and to begin a new paragraph each time the speaker changes.

2. 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.
   d. 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. Bear
2. Fox
3. Fox said, "Bear, sit in the water and stick your long tail out."
4. Fox told Bear, "I will go with you in the winter to catch a lot of fish."

Story:

Check to see that student has done the following:
1) used at least two characters;
2) punctuated correctly;
3) begun a new paragraph whenever a new character speaks;
4) written a clear and unified story.
III:B.1. Dialogue in narrative writing

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

EE, pp. 42, 43
SVR-2500, pp. 2-11, 12-25, 26-39
BL-SSS "G"
III.B.2. Sequencing in narrative writing

Sequencing of events in narrative writing refers to the order in which things occur.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Select a 6 0 sentence paragraph from a text or book and retyping each sentence separately. Cut into strips and place in envelope. Students are to arrange sentences in correct sequential order.

2. 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
- comb hair
- get dressed
- comb hair

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

ANSWERS:

1. Bear asked Fox how he (Fox) caught all those fish.
3. Bear reminded Fox of his (Fox's) promise (and went to the river to catch fish).
4. He jerked his tail off and left it in the ice.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

EE, pp. 42, 43
SVR-2500, pp. 2-11, 12-25, 26-39
BL-SSS "G", units 1-25
III.C. Deductive method of paragraph writing

Deductive paragraph writing moves from the general to the specific. It starts with a general statement and then gives specifics to show how or why the general statement is true.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Oral exercises in classification are helpful in showing students the "general to specific" development of the paragraph.

   Ex: Cars: Ford, Chevy, Toyota, Datsun, etc.

   Importance of getting a GED: job, personal satisfaction, skills

2. Emphasize that the topic sentence (general idea) may be developed by several kinds of specifics: details, examples, illustrations, reasons, facts.

3. Select sample paragraphs from texts and have students identify the general (topic sentence) idea and then pick out the specifics (supporting sentences).

4. Remind students when they identify the general idea, they identify the title (many times).

ANSWERS:

1. b
3. a) Sentries did not perform their duties well.
   b) Leaders fought for control of the group.
4. The lack of harmony was a real problem for the bands. The roaming Apache hunting bands did not always get along (topic sentence)

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

EE, p. 42
III.D.1. Use of examples in expository writing

An example is a type of fact. It may name names, persons, places, events. Paragraphs developed by examples contain sentences which detail specific instances to explain or illustrate the topic sentence.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Name some nouns such as material, cars, trees, and ask students to supply examples of each.

Ex: material--wool, cotton, nylon, leather, silk, etc.
cars--Toyota, Datsun, Chevrolet, Dodge, Ford, etc.

2. Ask students to name:
   a. five things that smell good
   b. five things that make them happy

3. Any exercises which help students learn the importance of using specific details are beneficial.

4. If student is sharp, you may tell him that examples in a paragraph are often arranged in a particular order of importance: either least to most or most to least. Show student orally that examples won't all carry the same weight.

ANSWERS:

1. The Apache novice was under certain holy restrictions.
2. Any four of the following:
   a) He was not allowed to eat warm food.
   b) He was not allowed to eat the stomach of an animal.
   c) He could not gaze upward while he was on a raid.
   d) He could not speak to warriors except to answer questions or when spoken to.
   e) He had to stay awake until told he could lie down.
3. For example, In addition, Furthermore, Finally, Thus.
4. Thus, the novice who hoped to become a warrior had to learn to obey and endure hardships.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BBSW, pp. 83-88
PGW, p. 135
III.D.2. Order of importance in expository writing

Order of importance refers to the way you arrange the details in a paragraph. The most common arrangement is from least to most important. This means you will save the most important details for last. Thus, the strongest detail remains in the reader's mind.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Since order of importance is most recognizable in argumentative or persuasive writing, you might want to give students a topic which will require reasons for its support (There should be stiffer penalties for drunk drivers; Everyone should get a GED.). Have students orally give reasons. Then, arrange reasons in order of importance (do this orally, too).

2. Remind students to look for key words, such as first, second, also, most important.

ANSWERS:

1. B
2. But, most important, carry plenty of water with you.
3. Going hiking in Arizona requires that you be prepared. No.
4. Wear comfortable clothing and sturdy hiking shoes.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

BBSW, pp. 83-88
PGW, p. 135
UNIT III POST-TEST: PARAGRAPH DEVELOPMENT

1. Supporting sentences
2. clarity
3. Unity
4. topic sentence
5. b
6. b
7. Any 3 of these:
   a. They trade rugs and silver to the Utes.
   b. They get beef from Apaches, corn and fruit from Hopis.
   c. They get ceremonial objects from the Rio Grande Pueblos.
   d. Lagunas and Hopis sell peaches and melons on Navajoland.
8. Thus, the Navajos systematically exchange goods with other tribes for what they need.
9. He asked the Sun God to help him, since he was being roughly handled.
10. He must give a warning with his rattle.
11. Sun God
12. Rattlesnake wondered, "Who will be my next victim? I want to teach Rabbit a lesson."
UNIT IV
IV. PUNCTUATION

A.1. Use of comma in a compound sentence

A compound sentence includes two (independent) clauses joined by a conjunction, such as and, or, but, nor. A comma always is placed before the conjunction to separate the two parts of sentence.

Ex: The baby cried all night, but the mother paid no attention to it.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Show student that a compound sentence contains two separate potential sentences, and that something is needed to join them. Student has already learned about conjunctions, so should have little trouble picking out conjunctions in these sentences. However, if student has forgotten, remind him what a conjunction is and give examples.

2. If student has difficulty placing the comma, ask student to start reading the sentence out loud and stop when he/she comes to end of the first thought. Emphasize this is where the comma goes. Have student put his finger over the conjunction and read the two parts out loud to see that there are really two parts to the sentence.

3. At this level, student shouldn't have much trouble, and it's good to get student to start writing. Ask student to write a compound sentence with each of these sentence conjunctions: and, but, for, or. First make sure they've written a compound sentence, then tell them to insert the comma.

4. Ask students to write five sentences with no punctuation (two of these five sentences should be compound sentences). Exchange papers and correctly punctuate. This exercise can be used with all punctuation skills.

ANSWERS:

1. ...United States, but...
2. ...plain, for...
3. ...design, and...
4. ...Hopi, yet...
5. ..."hobowakan," but...
6. ...south, while...
7. ...foresight, or...
8. ...River, and...
IV.A.1. Use of comma in a compound sentence

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 91-92
IE, pp. 125
SIL II, p. 61
LDL 4, pp. 39-41
SIL II, pp. 137-138
PGLS, pp. 213-215
IV.A.2. Comma used with appositive

A comma is used to set off phrases (a group of words) that are inserted between the subject and the verb and tell you more about the sentence. Such phrases are called appositives. Appositives are not essential to the sentence in that you still have a complete sentence if you eliminate the appositive. Commas are placed before and after the appositive.

Ex: Joan, the girl next door, is a Navajo. (Joan is a Navajo.)

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. It shouldn't be too difficult to teach this concept. Write three or four sentences for student about someone in the class or someone that you both know, using appositives. Point out that commas precede and follow the appositive. Student should then have no trouble identifying the appositive.

2. If student has difficulty, have him or her recite sentence out loud. Ask student to find the non-essential part of the sentence. Then have student repeat sentence omitting the appositive so student can see that sentence still makes sense. This will be especially useful in doing the second exercise, in which student must insert commas and find the appositive.

ANSWERS:

1. the chief Hopi kachina
2. the Chief kachina’s lieutenant
3. the first kachina to appear at the winter solstice
4. a female kachina
5. a large flat piece of wood painted with vivid colors and sacred symbols
6. the good-natured trader at the trading post
7. the bean-planting ceremony
8. my mother’s uncle

1. hogan, a very old style of hogan,
2. “ki,” a Papago adobe dwelling,
3. arbor, a structure built of cottonwood and covered with earth,
4. tipi, a type of cone-shaped dwelling used by Plains Indians,
5. wickiup, a dome-shaped earthen structure with a cone-shaped top,
6. Cocopahs, a southern Arizona tribe,
7. home, a work of art,
8. Hiwas, which are the Havasupai's homes,
IV.A.2. Comma used with appositive

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

IE, pp. 129-133
LDL II, pp. 72-77
LDL 4, pp. 34-38, 39-41
BBSW II, pp. 54-55
SIL II, pp. 137-138
SIL II, p. 61
IV.A.3. Use of comma with introductory phrases

A comma is used after a lengthy opening prepositional phrase. It is used for clarity and marks the place where you pause as you read it. Sometimes there are several prepositional phrases in a row. Look at this example:

In the middle of the lake, the boat bobbed up and down.

A short prepositional phrase at the beginning of the sentence doesn't require a comma.

Example: At noon we left for the party.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. If student has difficulty distinguishing the introductory phrase from the main clause in the sentence, have student put his finger over the part he thinks is the opening phrase and read the rest out loud. Does it make sense by itself as a sentence? If so, place the comma just before it. If not, have student find the subject of the clause and go from there.

2. Have student identify the prepositions. Have student pick out all the prepositional phrases. There are often two or three per sentence.

3. Give student a handful of prepositional phrases and have student finish the sentence. Make sure student places subject after phrase. This will instill in student's mind the kind of sentence requiring a comma after the introductory phrase.

   In the middle of the morning,
   During last night's ball game,
   About four weeks ago,

4. Be sure student is able to select subject and verb in main clause. Remind student of the meaning of a complete thought.

ANSWERS:

1. In the desert of southern Arizona,
2. On her third birthday,
3. During the 1100's and 1200's,
4. Far from any city in the middle of a vast land,
5. At Cliff Palace in the 1100's,
6. Many years ago,
7. On a high butte on First Mesa,
8. Near the famous "Enchanted Mesa,"
IV.A.3. Use of comma with introductory phrases

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SIL II, pp. 137-138
BBSW II, pp. 23-25
LDL II, pp. 72-77
LDL 4, pp. 34-38, 39-41
BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 91-92
SIL II, p. 61
IV.B.1. Use of semicolon in compound sentence without conjunction

A semicolon is needed to separate the two parts of a compound sentence if there is no conjunction. Otherwise you'd have a run-on sentence.

Ex: We can't go tonight; we have to stay home and study.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. At this point student should have little trouble with this concept. Student should have been introduced to it about level 5. If student has difficulty, explain that there are really two sentences in each item. Ask student to find the two sentences in #1. It's easiest to do this by reading aloud. Show student that each part of the compound sentence has its own subject and verb. Have student identify subject in two or three of the sentences.

2. Explain that the point of the semicolon is to join two closely-related sentences. You wouldn't use a semicolon in the following example:

We were tired and hungry, so we had lunch at the Hopi Cultural Center. Later that day, we went to Walpi to buy pottery.

3. Re-emphasize that if both groups of words are sentences, use a semicolon; otherwise, use a comma.

ANSWERS:

1. mud; later,
2. geometric; women
3. design; it
4. Hopiland; only
5. Papagos; they
6. pottery, her
7. accomplished; she
8. child; she

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 93
SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 138-139
SIL II, p. 138
LDL, pp. 49-55
PGLS, pp. 220-222
LOL, Bk. 2, p. 42-43
IV.B.2. Use of semicolon with sentence connectors

Sentence connectors, such as in fact, on the other hand, are used to join two related sentences. The sentence connector introduces the second half of the sentence and is in some way an illustration or contradiction of the first half of the sentence. Always place a semicolon between the two halves of the sentence (before the sentence connector) and a comma after the sentence connector.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Because this rule is very formulaic, the student shouldn't have much difficulty. All the connectors come in the middle of the sentence, and the student need only punctuate correctly. But to instill this idea is difficult, for student will probably leave out the necessary punctuation if writing on her own. This is one of the most common errors made by everyone. Thus, for more practice, it's suggested you write a few more sentences and have student punctuate. You might try writing the first half of the sentence and letting student devise the second half, though at this level student might find that frustrating.

2. If student has trouble, have student read out loud the two parts of the sentence as you cover the sentence connector. Point out that these two parts stand as sentences on their own. Do this for a couple of the items, and student should have no trouble completing the rest.

ANSWERS:

1. feared; in fact,
2. punished; for example,
3. Christian; nevertheless,
4. days; on the contrary,
5. themselves; therefore,
6. provided; that is,
7. illness; therefore,
8. Pimas; furthermore,

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 138-139
SIL II, pp. 138-139
LID II, pp. 29-32
PGLS, pp. 220-222
LOL, Bk. 2, p. 41-43
IV.C.1. Use of colon to introduce list of items

The most common use of a colon is to introduce a list of items. A colon means "as follows"; the things listed after the colon explain or enumerate the information given before the colon.

Look in your book for the following parts: table of contents, glossary, and index.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. A colon is easy to use because it is only used in two ways, either with figures (8:30; 33:10), which we aren't going into here, or in a list of items. But a few things must be memorized: no capital is used after the colon (unless the word is a proper noun); commas are used to separate the items in the list following the colon (unless the items are very long, in which case semicolons are used; but don't confuse student with this unnecessary information); a list of items following a comma may be placed directly after the colon on successive lines on a page; and finally, a colon is only used when the phrase before it ends with a noun, pronoun, or adverb—a colon is not used if the last word in the phrase is a verb or preposition. You need not tell student this last, as our exercises will always require the use of colons.

2. Student should not have much trouble, but if so, have student look for groups of things and list the items mentioned. Then have student read through to where he naturally pauses before beginning the list; this is where the colon goes.

3. Make sure student places a comma after each of the items in the series (the final comma in each list, before the word and, is optional). Student has been doing this since grade 3 or 4.

4. Have student look around room at objects or think of things in his/her house, then write sentences in which these objects are listed as a group following a colon.

Ex: Some of the things in my room are as follows: bed, desk, flute, music stand, clothes, radio.

ANSWERS:

1. rain, mountain, cloud, lightning, whirlwinds, thunder.
2. Martinez, Margaret Tatoya, Rose Gonzales.
3. The thunderbird, which represents the forces of nature traveling through the sky, and the waves.
IV.C.1. Use of colon to introduce list of items

ANSWERS:

5. Southwest: Mogollon, Hohokam, Anasazi, Sinagua,
6. things: unity, clarity, an interesting topic sentence,
7. pipe: the calumet, the hobowakan,
8. items: pouches, war shields, moccasins, saddlebags.

Note: the last comma in these sentences is optional.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 93
SPS, Bk. 2, p. 139
SIL II, p. 139
LDL 4, pp. 56-57
IV.D.1. Use of quotation marks in titles

Quotation marks are placed around the titles of short works of literature: poems, short stories, essays, articles, chapters in a book.

Have you read "Prayer to the Pacific?"

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This should not be difficult for student as long as he can recognize a title. We've tried to make it easy for him by inserting words such as "the essay called" or "the article entitled," so that even if he has never heard of the poems/stories, he is clued in by context to where the titles begin.

2. For further practice, ask student these questions. Have him write down his answer.
   a) What's your favorite poem (or song)?
   b) What's the name of an article in the paper this morning? (Student can look one up if need be).
   c) What's the name of one chapter of your textbook?
   d) Find a short story in your supplementary text and write down its title.

ANSWERS:

1. "On Civil Disobedience,"
2. "Voting Rights: Are They Really Everyone's?"
3. "Between."
4. "Medicines and Injuries."
5. "The Ku Bird."
6. "How Children Learn to Speak."
7. "Coyote and the Porcupine"
8. "Coyote and the Cottontail."

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 100
LDL, p. 72
LOL, Bk. 2, pp. 44-46
IV.E.1. Use of apostrophe in dates, contractions, and possessives

An apostrophe is used a) to show ownership (Verna's room); b) to contract two words into one word, used most often in conversation (she'll for she will); c) with numbers in certain situations: August of '83; three five's; eight o'clock.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Student should have little trouble with contractions, dates, or numbers. If student has difficulty with contractions, pick out a few and ask student which words are being contracted. The most likely problem would be misplacement of one apostrophe in possessives. In this exercise, we have included only singular possessives. So if student does have trouble, you need only give her the rule regarding singular possessives.

2. For further practice on contractions, write a list of words that can be contracted and have student write contracted form:

   she will  we are
   he has    they will
   I am      can not
   does not  should not

3. For further practice on possessives, write a list of phrases and have student place the apostrophes:

   Susans car           Brendas exams
   Joes hogan          all the boys skates
   the Begays truck    Annas job

4. You can reverse #2 and write the contracted form and have student unravel it (though remember some contractions have two original forms). Or, two students could do this exercise, one calling out the words and the other writing them down.

5. Although we haven't included plural possessives, student should learn the rules at this level. Give student the rules. Then, put a list of plural possessives on the board and have student insert apostrophes.

   Ex: The girls dresses       The Indians issues
       The Hopis concerns     The mens dreams
IV.E.1. Use of apostrophe in dates, contractions, and possessives

ANSWERS:

1. '82
2. I've
3. haven't
4. can't
5. $50's
6. '81
7. semester's
8. I'll
9. sister's
10. it's
11. I'd
12. sister's
13. I'll
14. Bob's
15. he's
16. that's

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

EE, pp. 35-36
BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 94-97
SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 140-141
IE, pp. 96-98, 103-106
LDL, pp. 64-69
SIL II, pp. 140-141
IV.E.2. Use of apostrophe with joint ownership

Apostrophes are also used to show joint ownership:

Anna and Jake's Hogan.

When two or more people own the same thing, make only the last noun possessive. If two or more people own separate things, make all nouns possessive and pluralize the owned objects:

Jim's and Darrell's cars.

If one of the joint owners is referred to in pronoun form, place the noun first and pluralize it, then the pronoun. This is true whether ownership is of one or separate items:

Yolanda's and my room

Yolanda's and my rooms

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. In this case, the difficulty is simply in memorizing the rules. There aren't any tricks, so there's not a problem in deciding when to use an apostrophe. As we have already made the nouns possessive, student simply has to put apostrophe in the right place.

2. For further practice, have student write down things he/she owns, members of student's family owns, or other classmates own. This will give student important practice in making possessives, a common error among people and especially difficult for second-language speakers.

ANSWERS:

1. Bill's
2. Jake's and Tim's
3. Yolanda's
4. Susan's
5. Harry's
6. June's and Stanley's
7. Harvey's
8. Barbara's
9. uncle's; Sandersons'
10. Tucson's; Phoenix's
11. Wilsons'; Betsy's
12. Multine's; man's

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
IV.F.1. Underlining in titles of books and periodicals

All full-length literary works need to be underlined. This includes newspapers, newsletters, magazines, books, and movies.

Last week I read The Navajo by Ruth Underhill.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. This exercise is not difficult and mainly entails student memorizing the rule. Identification of the publications should be relatively easy as they are either referred to specifically as a book, etc., or are common enough to be known by nearly every adult. Make sure student underlines whole title, not just some of the words.

2. For further practice and to get student to apply what he's just learned, have him write the answers in complete sentences to the following questions:
   a) What books have you read this year? Name one or two.
   b) Do you usually read a particular newspaper? Which one is it?
   c) Do you get any magazines at home?
   d) What's the title of a book you'd like to read?
   e) What's the name of a movie you've seen recently?
   f) Can you think of the name of a newsletter you've looked at recently?

ANSWERS:

1. A Pima Remembers
2. Custer Died for Your Sins
3. Arizona Daily Star; Arizona Republic
4. Children of the People
5. Sun Tracks
6. National Geographic
7. The Paiute People
8. Pueblo Gods and Myths
9. Star Wars, The Empire Strikes Back, and Return of the Jedi
10. Macbeth

Answers will vary:
12. Have you seen the movie about Billy Mills called Running Brave?

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
IV.0.1. Use of hyphen in two-word adjective before noun

A two-word adjective coming before a noun is hyphenated (as in this sentence). Do not hyphenate the phrase if it comes after a noun.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Give student several examples to get him/her used to seeing two-word adjectives before nouns.

- present-day society
- well-known cacique
- broken-down wickiup
- well-read student
- part-time job
- pot-holed road

Ask student to underline noun first. Show student that both words modify the noun and together give a meaningful description of the noun. Then, write 6 more phrases on the board or paper and this time leave out the hyphens. Have student find the noun first (no problem by now, as it's always the last word), then hyphenate the adjective.

2. For further practice ask student to write 3 or 4 phrases himself and hyphenate them. Do not ask him to generate any more than this or he may get frustrated.

ANSWERS:

1. best-known
2. open-faced
3. disease-infected
4. medicine-producing
5. sun-drenched
6. Yuman-speaking
7. Present-day
8. water-streaked

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 98
IV.G.2. Use of hyphen with prefixes and suffixes

Some prefixes and suffixes require the use of a hyphen before the main part of the word. This is usually true when the base word stands alone as a word. For example, revoke contains the prefix re and the root word voke. Voke itself is not a word, so re is affixed to it and not hyphenated. On the other hand, all-star team is hyphenated because star, the base word, is a word unto itself.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. In this exercise, the words needing hyphens are already separated, so student need only insert hyphen where necessary. He doesn't need to separate any words. Tell student that prefixes like ex, anti, self, and all are usually hyphenated. Suffixes such as elect are usually hyphenated.

2. Have student find the nouns which are being described by the hyphenated adjectives. In some cases a noun follows these adjectives. In the other cases, student must be able to recognize the prefix that requires a hyphen. Then have student punctuate correctly.

3. For application of this rule, write down four words with hyphens such as the examples given in exercise and have student write a sentence using each of these terms.

ANSWERS:

1. all-star
2. self-imposed
3. non-Indian
4. ex-president; president-elect
5. ex-Arizona
6. self-esteem; self-confidence
7. Senator-elect
8. self-proclaimed

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

BSG, Bk. 2, p. 98
UNIT V
V. CAPITALIZATION

A. Use of capitals in abbreviations, titles, organizations, places, languages, races, nationalities, religions

All proper nouns must be capitalized. This includes names of places and geographical areas, languages, races, and nationalities, religions, organizations, the titles of written works or other art works, and abbreviations of proper nouns.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Give student one example of each situation requiring a capital.

   places -- Rocky Mountains
   languages -- Navajo
   races -- American Indian
   nationality -- Chinese
   religion -- Buddhism
   organizations -- the Dept. of Education
   written works -- Custer Died For Your Sins
   art works -- the Mona Lisa
   abbreviations -- ACLU
   geographical areas -- North

   Remind student also that the first word of every sentence needs to be capitalized. Explain that all words larger than 3 letters in a title must be capitalized (Rocky Mountains), not just the first word. Small prepositions, articles, conjunctions, however, are not capitalized (Department of Education).

2. Student will usually capitalize too many words rather than too few. Some students will capitalize every important-looking noun. To break student of this habit, explain that when they see an article-in front of the noun, it's usually to speak of the noun in a general way and does not require a capital. (See #1 and #2, for example, where pueblo is not capitalized when by itself.) Divinity, religion, community, official, etc. are other words in the items that are not capitalized.

3. Have student write a series of nouns that come to his/her mind:

   river
   mesa
   man
   teacher
   car

   71
V.A. Use of capitals in abbreviations, titles, organizations, places, languages, races, nationalities, religions

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

3. Make sure student hasn't capitalized these. Then have student write down a particular river, mesa, etc.

- Colorado River
- Enchanted Mesa
- Arizona State
- Mr. Antone
- Doug Emory
- Chevrolet

Make sure student has capitalized all words in the proper noun requiring capitalization.

ANSWERS:

1. Isleta Pueblo; New Mexico
2. Isleta; Rio Grande Pueblo; Spanish
3. The; Paiutes; Numic
4. Eastern Apaches; Jicarilla Apache Reservation; Mescalero Apache Reservation
5. Masau; Hopi
6. I; Indian; Black Elk Speaks, Custer Died for Your Sins, and Growing Up on the Reservation
7. In; Franciscans; San Estivan on Acoma Pueblo
8. People; Laguna Pueblo; Keresan; San Juan; Tewa
9. Some; Indians; Christianity
10. My; Phoenix Indian Center; Bonnie Lee
11. Both Acoma and Oraibi; U.S.
12. Dr. Cather; B.I.A.

Answers will vary:

1. the Navajo Reservation
2. the Wallstreet Journal
3. Quechan
4. James Keachhale
5. Carmel, California
6. Valley of the Horse
7. Buddhism
8. the Basket Dance

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:

- BSG, Bk. 2, pp. 105-108
- IE, pp. 142-144
- SPS, Bk. 2, pp. 150-157
- LDL 4, pp. 1-7
- EE, pp. 56-59
- SIL II, pp. 150-160
V.B. Use of capitals in poetry

The first word of each line in a poem is capitalized unless the author, by leaving small-case letters, has expressly shown that he/she wishes no capitals to be used.

TEACHING SUGGESTIONS:

1. Tell student rule and this should present no difficulty. A lengthy example is given before the poem student will capitalize. Remind student that proper nouns, such as a name, are capitalized, and tell student to note that the title of poem is capitalized as well as the book from which it is taken.

2. An exercise for two students: have one student find a poem (preferably an Indian poem) in a book in the library or classroom (or from home). That student will read the poem out loud to another student, who will write it down and then capitalize it correctly. Poem should not be more than 8-10 lines long, otherwise this exercise could seem tedious.

3. Better yet, have student write her/his own poem and capitalize it, but only if student has a proclivity for this.

ANSWERS:

Earth Magician...
  Behold...
       Round...
  Behold...
Earth Magician...
  Head...

H...
  Head...
Earth Magician...
  Earth Magician...
Makes...
Into

(Note: there are 20 places to capitalize in this poem; including the title.)

~Pima Creation Song~

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS:
1. bread, nevertheless
2. ears; moreover
3. following;
4. mother-in-law;
5. "Dances of the Zuni Pueblo,"
7. ninety-eights
8. brother's; didn't
9. they've; Bernie's
10. Benny's and Jake's
11. Navajo
12. times; the Pima men wore breech cloths,
13. roll,
14. Mu-yao, the Hopi moon-god
15. Alosa, the Hopi god of reproduction of man, animals and plants
16. Soyoko, the ogre woman
17. magic
18. month
19. breechcloth
20. grow
21. arrows
22. Intercom
23. Book of the Hopi
24. well-worn
25. sleep-inducing
26. all-powerful
27. governor-elect
28. Two; Arizona; Hopi Reservation; Havasupai Reservation
29. Senator Jim Jacobs; Methodist
30. The; Zuni; "All These to Me May You Grant."
31. Southwestern Languages; Tewa; Rio Grande; Arizona; Pima and Cocopah
32. Executive Director Steve Darden; Flagstaff Indian Center