

Focus on Grammar 5 | Unit Teaching Notes

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PART **1** **Present, Past and Future**

UNIT

1

Present Time

THE DIGITAL WORLD

UNIT

2

Past Time

INTERCULTURAL MARRIAGE

UNIT

3

Future Time

TRAVEL

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 1**OVERVIEW****GRAMMAR Present Time**

Unit 1 focuses on the meanings and uses of four aspects of the present time frame and the contrast among them: the simple present, present progressive, present perfect, and present perfect progressive.

- Use the simple present to show actions, events, or states that are true in general or happen habitually. Also use the simple present to narrate events that happen in sequence.
- Use the present progressive to show actions or events in progress at the moment but that are not yet complete.
- Use the present perfect and the present perfect progressive to connect the past with the present and show actions and states that began in the past and continue through the present.
- Use the present perfect to describe completed actions with a connection to the present.
- This unit also reviews the distinction between action and non-action verbs and explains their use in the present progressive. Some non-action verbs that are commonly used in the present progressive are highlighted.
- Action verbs, also called active verbs, describe actions. Typically, adverbs are used to describe action verbs. Non-action or stative verbs describe states such as appearance, emotion, mental state, perception, possession, and desire. Non-action verbs are most commonly used in the simple form rather than the progressive form. When used to describe states, non-action verbs are usually accompanied by adjectives.
- There are some non-action verbs that can express either states or actions, which gives the verb a different meaning depending on its intended use. Both adjectives and adverbs can be used with these non-action verbs, depending on their meaning.

THEME The Digital World

Unit 1 focuses on language that is used to discuss various elements of modern technology and their application to personal communication.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 1 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 1 Review, and Unit 1 Review Test.

Read (pages 4–5)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. Does the author think digital communication and modern technology have a positive or negative effect on our lives? (Overall he thinks the influence is positive, with some negative effects.)

2. Who are the people that the author uses as examples to support his point of view? (his daughter, son, wife, and himself)
3. What is the primary form of communication that each person uses? (daughter Allison—social networking sites; son Nick—texting; wife Elena—email; author—blogging)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 6–7)

- Have students look over the first two charts. Write these questions on the board and then have students work in groups to discuss them. Then discuss the answers as a class.
 - How many time periods (e.g., past, present, or future) are represented in these two charts? (*only one—the present*)
 - According to the charts, how many different ways are there to talk about this time period? What are they? (*four—simple present, present progressive, present perfect, and present perfect progressive*)
 - Which two ways do we use to talk about this time period in general or right now? (*simple present and present progressive*)
 - Which two ways do we use to talk about a time in the past until now? (*present perfect and present perfect progressive*)
 - What form does each of these have? (*simple present—base form of verb + -s or -es for third-person singular; present progressive—be + base form of verb + -ing; present perfect—have + past participle; present perfect progressive—have been + base form of verb + -ing*)
- Have students look at the next chart, “Action and Non-Action Uses.” Have students name the action verbs and non-action verbs in the chart. Write them on the board in two separate lists. (Action verbs: *drive, take*; Non-action: *know, want*) Ask: “How are these verbs different?” (*Action verbs describe actions, but non-action verbs describe states such as appearance, possession, and mental states.*) Elicit additional examples of each type of verb. Write them on the board. Ask: “Which kind of verb can be used in progressive forms?” (action verbs)
- Have students read the next chart, “Some Verbs: Action + Non-Action Uses.” Explain that some verbs have an action meaning and a non-action meaning. Have students read the example sentences aloud. Call on students to explain how the meaning changes in each pair of sentences.
- Have students read the last two charts. Explain that you can use adverbs with action verbs but not with non-action verbs. Similarly, adjectives usually go after certain non-action verbs (e.g., *look, taste, feel*) rather than with action verbs.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 7–9)

Note 1 Simple Present

- Divide the class into three groups.
- Have a student from the first group read the example with the simple present showing a general truth. Then have the group look through the opening reading for other examples of general truths.

- Have a student from the second group read the example with the simple present showing habitual actions. Then have the group look through the opening reading for other examples of habitual actions.
- Have a student from the third group read the example with the simple present showing events in a sequence. Then have the group look through the opening reading for other examples of events in a sequence.
- Circulate as students are working and provide help as needed. Call on students from each group to say which use they were looking for some of the examples they found.

Note 2 Present Progressive

- Have a student read the note aloud.
- Set up a competitive activity. Establish a time limit (1 to 3 minutes) and have students work in groups or pairs to reread the opening text and find examples of the present progressive used to show actions in progress at the moment. The group that finds the most correct examples wins.

Note 3 Present Perfect and Present Perfect Progressive

- Using the same procedure described in Note 2, have students look for examples of the present perfect or present perfect progressive.
- Call on groups to read aloud the examples they found. Ask them why each example is in the present perfect or present perfect progressive, and whether the tense could be changed without changing the meaning.

Note 4 Action Verbs

- Have students read the note and the examples. Make sure they understand the difference in meaning between the last two example sentences.
- Put students in pairs and have them write similar example sentences in simple and progressive form. (Example: I speak three languages: Spanish, English, and French. Right now I'm speaking English.) Call on pairs to share their sentences.

Note 5 Non-Action Verbs

- Write the six headings in Note 5 on the board: Appearance, Emotions, Mental States, Perceptions, Possession, and Want.
- Elicit non-action verbs for each category and write them on the board. (Examples: appearance—resemble; emotions—dislike; mental states—think; perceptions—see; possession—belong; want—prefer).
- Point out that one of the most common non-action verbs is *be*. For example: *He is a nice fellow*. Ask students: “Do you think *be* could also be used to express an action?” If students answer *yes*, have students give an example sentence. For example: *Today he's not being nice*. In this example, *be* is similar to *behaving* so it can be used in the present progressive.
- Have students look at the third section of Note 5, where they will see the examples using *be* that you have just given. Have each group look over the list of verbs again. If they think the

verbs can be used in the present progressive, have them try to come up with a synonym for the verb. For example: *She has a new house.* (owns or possesses) and *She's having a baby* (giving birth to).

Note 6 Adverbs and Adjectives

- In pairs, have students choose two or three verbs from each category in Note 5 that can be both non-action or action verbs.
- Have groups write sentences with each of these verbs, adding adjectives or adverbs as appropriate. For example: *She looked great!* (adjective) *She looked quickly at the letter.* (adverb)
- Call on students from each pair to share their sentences with the class.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES

READING, WRITING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING

- Have students choose a topic from the unit:
 - staying connected through technology
 - the advantages or disadvantages of a particular electronic device or communication medium, such as texting or email
 - identity theft
- Have students who chose the same topic work in groups. Then have each student find and read an article about the topic. Have them bring to class enough copies of the article for the group. The groups then read and discuss the articles.
- Have each student write two or three paragraphs about the chosen topic. They can use any of the texts in the unit as a model for their writing. The opening reading on pages 4–5, the text in Exercise 2 on page 10, the corrected text in Exercise 5 on page 12, and the text in Exercise 9 on page 15 all provide good models for students to use. Remind them to focus on the use of present tense verbs in their writing and encourage them to incorporate all four of the target structures in their writing. Remind them to be mindful of the form and use of non-action verbs.

READING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING

- Bring in (or have students bring in) short articles from newspapers, magazines, or websites about the various topics included in this unit. Have enough articles for every two or three students. Have students work in pairs or groups to identify examples of this unit's target structures.
- Have pairs or groups work together to prepare a short oral presentation to the class about the article. Remind them that they can use notes for their presentations, but they should not read word for word or copy sentences directly from the article. Remind them to use target structures from this unit in their presentations. Circulate as students are working and help as needed.
- Have each pair or group present to the class. If you have a very large class, you may want pairs or groups to give their oral presentations to each other.

UNIT 2

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Past Time

Unit 2 focuses on the meanings and uses of a variety of past forms and how these forms can work alone and together to convey a range of meanings regarding past time: the simple past, the past progressive, the present perfect, *used to* / *would* + *base form*, past perfect, past perfect progressive, and the “future in the past.”

- The simple past expresses an action, event, or state completed at a general or specific time in the past. The simple past is the definite past.
- The past progressive expresses an action that was in progress or not completed at a time in the past.
- The present perfect expresses an action, event, or state completed at an indefinite time in the past. The present perfect is the indefinite past. Remember that the present perfect also connects the past and the present.
- *Used to* / *would* + *base form* express a habitual action, event, or state that was true in the past but is no longer true.
- The past perfect shows an action, event, or state that happened before a certain time in the past. Use the past perfect with the simple past to show which of two past actions, events, or states happened first.
- The past perfect progressive expresses an action that was in progress before another past event.
- Use *was* / *were going to* / *would* + *base form* to describe an action, event, or state that was planned or expected before now. This is sometimes called the “future in the past.”

THEME Intercultural Marriage

Unit 2 focuses on language that is used to talk about intercultural marriage.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 2 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 2 Review, and Unit 2 Review Test.

READ (pages 18–19)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. How are Hector and Jessica different? (Hector’s parents were born in Mexico and the family didn’t have a lot of money. Jessica’s family was wealthy and came from New England. Hector had to work to be able to go to college. Jessica did not have to work.)
 2. When did their relationship start to change? (When Hector wanted to buy a house.)
 3. Why did the relationship change? (Hector worked a lot in order to be able to afford the house and he didn’t spend a lot of time with Jessica.)

4. Why was Jessica uncomfortable around Hector's family? (At family gatherings, everyone talked all at once and she felt shut out.)
5. What is important in an intercultural marriage? (For spouses to understand and acknowledge differences in cultural values between each other and be respectful.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 20–21)

- Have students read the first three grammar charts. Ask students:
 - Which structures are used to express a definite time in the past? (the simple past and past progressive)
 - What time frame is the present perfect used to express? (indefinite time in the past)
 - What two structures are used to talk about habitual or repeated past time? (*used to* / *would* + *base form*)
- Have students work in pairs to identify other examples of these structures in the opening reading and go over them as a class.
- Have students read the next grammar chart. Write the two example sentences on the board and underline the target structures:
 - He had met her before the wedding.
 - He had been planning the wedding for months.
- Point to the first sentence and ask: "Is the wedding in the past, present, or future?" (*the past*) "Which was first: he met her, or they had the wedding?" (*he met her*)
- Point to the second sentence and ask: "Did the wedding happen yet?" (*yes*) "Was he planning before or after the wedding?" (*before*)
- Have students work in pairs to identify other examples of these structures in the opening text. Go over them as a class.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 21–23)

Note 1 Simple Past

- Point out the examples of general and specific time and elicit more examples of each.
- If needed, refer students to Appendix 1 on pages 411–412, which provides a list of irregular verbs.

Note 2 Past Progressive

- Write this example on the board:
Jessica and Hector were studying in a biology lab when they met.
- Have students label the verb forms.
- Remind students that the restrictions regarding non-action verbs in the progressive discussed in Unit 1 apply to the past progressive as well as the present progressive. If needed, refer students to Appendices 2 and 3 on page 413 for more information.

- Have students share stories about what they (or people they know) were doing when they met their best friend. Then, erase the verbs and elicit other examples.

Note 3 Present Perfect

- To clarify the contrast in meaning between the simple past and the present perfect, have students work in pairs to write five to eight *Have you ever . . . ?* questions. Have two pairs work together to ask and answer their questions. When the answer is yes, the question *When?* can be asked, prompting a response in the simple past with a specific time stated or implied. Call on students to share their questions and answers with the class.
- Remind the class that the present perfect shows a connection between the past and the present. Point out the example sentence in the note: *Hector and Jessica have been married for five years.*
- Have students make similar sentences. If they are married or engaged, they can say how long they have been married or engaged. Otherwise, they can make similar sentences with *know*. For example, you might say to the class: *I have known all of you for three weeks.*
- You can also point out that *Did you eat dinner yet?*, while not considered “correct,” is commonly used these days. In combination with the words *yet*, *already*, and *just*, the simple past is becoming increasingly more common as a substitute for the present perfect in informal speech.

Note 4 Used to and Would

- To clarify the difference in usage between *used to* and *would* write on the board:
I used to _____.
I would _____.
- Have students use the words on the board to make sentences with these cues: *have a guitar, be a good student, live in the city*. Ask students: “Why do these phrases all require *used to*?” (*The verbs express past possession, state, or location.*) Ask students: “Can *used to* be used with active verbs as well?” (Yes.)
- Write on the board:
Luis used to play the guitar.
- Then ask: “Does he still play the guitar?” (No.)
- Then, write on the board:
Tania would practice the piano for hours when she was young.
- Ask: “Does she still practice the piano?” (*Maybe; we don’t know.*) Point out that in order to use *would*, we generally include a time reference such as *when she was young* above, whereas *used to* can stand alone.

Note 5 Past Perfect

- Illustrate the use of the past perfect by listing your actions on a particular day in chronological order. For example: At 6:30, I got up. I took a shower and I had breakfast. I also walked the dog and read the newspaper. Then, I left for work at 8:15.

- Show students how the usage changes when you use *by* or *by the time*. Explain that this is a point in the past, so all actions before it will use the past perfect. For example: *By 8:30 a.m., I had gotten up, taken a shower, eaten breakfast, walked the dog, read the newspaper, and left for work.* Or: *By the time I left for work, I had gotten up, taken a shower, eaten breakfast, walked the dog, and read the newspaper.*
- Have students make a similar list of actions on a particular day. Then have them discuss the events in small groups. Encourage them to use the past perfect. Circulate as students talk and give help as needed.

Note 6 Past Perfect Progressive

- Have students read the note and the example sentence aloud. Ask students: “When did Jessica attend college: before she met Hector or when she met Hector?” (*before*)
- Have students use the past perfect to describe amazing things about their childhood in groups. The events can be true or imaginary. Be sure they include a specific time reference. For example: *By the time I was four, I had been playing the piano professionally for three years. By the time I was twelve, I had been making movies for six years.*

Note 7 Future in the Past

- The term “future in the past” may be a bit difficult for students to understand. Explain that it simply refers to states and actions planned or expected in the past. Remind students that *be going to* is used to show future intention.
- Model some sentences using the target structures in Note 7. For example: *When I was in high school, I knew I was going to be a teacher. I also knew I wouldn’t begin my career in the United States. I knew that after college I would probably live in a foreign country for a while.*
- Have students write several sentences about “future in the past” plans or goals. Then have them share their sentences in pairs.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

- Bring in pictures of married people in your family and describe their courtship and/or marriage to the class.
- Have students think of couples they know well (e.g., their parents, their grandparents, themselves) and prepare some notes describing their courtship and marriage. Have them bring in a photo of the couple if possible.
- Have students share their stories in small groups. Encourage them to use a variety of past-time forms. Tell them that *would + base form* should be especially useful here. Have each group select one story to tell the whole class.

WRITING AND SPEAKING

- Construct a timeline of significant events or a significant time period in your life. Write it on the board or prepare it as a handout.
- Using the timeline, talk about the various events using the target structures in this unit. For example:

By the time I was six, I had lived in three different countries and spoke two languages. My father worked for the government, and my parents had been living in Germany for two years when I was born. Before I was born, my parents used to travel a lot around Europe. They had been to France, Spain, and Portugal, and thought they would go to Belgium next. Then I arrived. They never got to Belgium! When I was a year old . . .

- Have students construct a similar timeline of significant events or a significant time period in their lives. Have them work in pairs to practice talking about the events or time period using the target structures in this unit. Then have two pairs work together and tell each other about the events or time period.

UNIT 3

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Future Time

Unit 3 focuses on the meanings and uses of a variety of tenses and aspects that are used to express future time. There are four aspects of the future time frame: simple future, future progressive, future perfect, and future perfect progressive. In addition, the simple present and present progressive may also be used to express the future.

- Use the simple future —*will* or *be going to* + *the base form* of a verb— to express what you think will happen in the future. To express a future action decided on in the moment, use *will*, not *be going to*. We most commonly use the phrase *be going to* when we talk about a planned or already developing future situation.
- Use the future progressive to talk about an action that will be in progress at a certain time in the future. You can use *will be* or *going to be* + *the base form* of a verb + *-ing* to form the future progressive.
- You can also use the simple present to talk about a future action, state, or event that is part of a schedule. You can use the present progressive to talk about a future action or event that has already been arranged.
- To talk about two separate actions in the future, use *will* or *be going to* in the independent clause and the simple present in the dependent clause.
- Use the future perfect or the future perfect progressive to talk about an action, state, or event that will happen or will be happening before a certain time in the future.

THEME Travel

Unit 3 focuses on language that is used to discuss future plans and suggestions for travel.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 3 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 3 Review, and Unit 3 Review Test.

READ (pages 35–36)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:

1. Why is the author of the article a good source for travel tips? (She is the *Times* travel editor.)
2. What are the five travel topics that the author gives tips about in this article? (Jet lag, tours, accommodations, money and valuables, and language and culture.)
3. What is the primary purpose of this article? (To offer tips to people who are planning a trip in the future.)

Note: You may want to point out that the answers to the first and third questions require students to make inferences—an important reading comprehension skill. When we make inferences,

we use what we already know along with information in a text to draw a conclusion about something that is not stated explicitly. In the first question, the text tells us that the author is a travel editor for the *Times*. Based on prior knowledge of what a travel editor does, we infer that the author would be a good source of information about travel tips.

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 38)

- Write these questions on the board:
 - How many different forms can we use to express the future? (*six*)
 - What are they? (*simple future, future progressive, simple present, present progressive, future perfect, and future perfect progressive*)
 - Which two of these forms can be used to express a different time frame? What time frame can they express? (*The simple present and present progressive can be used to express the present time frame.*)
- Have students look over the grammar charts. Then have them work in pairs to discuss the questions.
- Go over the answers as a class.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 38–39)

Note 1 *Be Going to and Will*

- Divide the class into three groups. Have one group read the first part of Note 1 and the example sentences. Have the second group look at the second part of Note 1 and the example sentences. Have the last group look at the third section of Note 1.
- Have each of the groups look through the opening reading for other examples of the use of *will* or *be going to*. Circulate as students are working and provide help as needed.
- Have students from each of the groups work together. Have them share information about the use of *will* and *be going to* that their original groups focused on and the examples they found in the opening reading.

Note 2 *Actions in Progress in the Future*

- Have a student read Note 2 aloud.
- Write the last example sentence on the board: Next week at this time we'll be climbing Kilimanjaro.
- Change the information in the sentence so it's true for you. (Example: Next week at this time I'll be having lunch with my friend.) Call on a few students to say similar sentences about themselves.

Note 3 *Future Scheduled Events*

- Have students read Note 3 aloud. Point out that simple present can refer to a future event that is part of a schedule or timetable. Brainstorm some examples of things that fall under this category. (Examples: flights, buses, trains, classes, meetings, appointments, etc.)
- Have students look at the example sentences. For example, ask: "What events are part of a schedule?" (a departure, a plane's arrival)

- Have students list things they are scheduled to do in the next week. Then have them describe these events in pairs using the simple present. (Example: I have biology class tomorrow at three o'clock.)

Note 4 Future Plans

- Go over Note 4 as a class. Have students identify examples in the opening reading that show use of the present progressive to talk about a future action or event that has already been arranged.
- Point out that this use of present progressive is similar to the use of the simple present explained in Note 3.

Note 5 Two Separate Actions in the Future

- On the board, illustrate that when two future actions are described in two clauses, one independent and one dependent, the one in the dependent clause shows the earlier of the two actions and is expressed in the simple present. Show this by writing the following sentences on the board:

1	2
We will get to Italy. Then we will rent a car.	
When we get to Italy, we will rent / are going to rent a car.	

- Write these sentences on the board:
 As soon as class is over, I'm going to go shopping.
 When I get home, I'll make a list.
 I'm going to watch a movie after I finish dinner.
- First have students identify the sequence of actions by writing 1 over the first and 2 over the second one. Then have them generate more examples, replacing the underlined words with their own ideas.

Note 6 Actions Before a Time in the Future

- To make the concept of the future perfect more clear, it may help to start with a simple example. Ask students what time today's class started, what time it is now, and what time the class ends. Then, write on the board:
 We started class at [start time]. It is now [current time]. Class will end at [ending time].
 So far we have been in class for _____ minutes.
 By [ending time], we will have been in class for _____ minutes.
- Elicit the correct number of minutes for each sentence and write them in the blanks. Then have students read the completed sentences aloud. Point out that class is not over, but the last sentence describes what things will be like when class ends.
- Have students read the explanation and examples in Note 6. For each example sentence, ask: "When is the speaker saying this?" (*Before their trip ends; before the end of the summer; before they finish their trip.*). "What is the sentence describing?" (*What things will be like when the trip or the summer ends.*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**LISTENING, READING, AND SPEAKING**

- To provide practice for students to make the distinction between using *will* for unplanned actions and *be going to* to express a planned or developing situation, play “Let’s Have a Party!” Explain that you’re planning a party, and start by offering to do something to organize it. For example: *I’ll bring some fruit and cheese.* Then ask a student: “What will you bring?” That student says what he or she will bring and asks another student: “What will you bring?” Emphasize that the use of *will* here represents each person spontaneously expressing what he or she will bring. As students say what they’ll bring, write the items on the board, along with each student’s name or initials.
- Have students recall what each person is bringing. Stress that since the action is now preplanned, the future with *be going to* should be used. Point out that the present progressive would also be appropriate. Model the first statement and then have students ask and answer questions about what they’re going to bring. For example:

SONG HEE: Tomiko is going to bring napkins. Raoul, what is Olga going to bring?

RAOUL: Olga is bringing paper plates. Felipe, what’s Song Hee going to bring?

FELIPE: Song Hee is going to bring the music. Chen, what’s Sui going to bring?

WRITING, READING, SPEAKING, AND LISTENING

- Have each student write four to five tips about travel in his or her own country, using the opening reading as a model. Encourage students to use target structures from the unit.
- Post the tips around the classroom. Then have students walk around the class and read them.
- Have students discuss the tips in pairs.

PART **2** **Modals and Other Auxiliaries**

UNIT

4

Modals to Express Degrees of Necessity

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

UNIT

5

Modals to Express Degrees of Certainty

MYSTERIES

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 4

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Modals to Express Degrees of Necessity

Unit 4 focuses on the meanings and uses of modals that are used to express varying degrees of necessity.

- Modals are auxiliary verbs and have only one form for first, second, and third person.
- Use simple modals (*modal + base form of verb*) to show degrees of necessity in the present and future.
- Use perfect modals (*modal + have + past participle of verb*) to show degrees of necessity in the past.
- Modals show speakers' attitudes: obligations, advice, expectations, and suggestions.
- Some expressions have meanings that are similar to modals:
 - Have to* and *have got to* are similar to *must*.
 - Be supposed to* is similar to *should*.
 - Be allowed to* is similar to *may*.
- Use *must*, *have to*, and *have got to* in order to show strong necessity. Use *must* in more formal language to express a strong obligation that cannot be avoided. Use of *have to* is appropriate in all forms and situations, formal or informal. Use *have got to* in conversation and informal writing; *don't have to* expresses the negative of *have got to*. Use *will have to* in order to express future necessity. Use *had to + base form of the verb* to express past necessity.
- Use *must not* in order to talk about something that is prohibited. Use *didn't have to + base form of the verb* to talk about something that was not necessary in the past. Although *must* and *have to* are similar in meaning, *must not* and *don't have to* have very different meanings.
- Use *should* or *ought to* in order to offer advice. They usually mean that something is a good idea or the right thing to do. *Should not* rather than *ought to* is used in questions and negatives. Use *should have* or *ought to have* to express advice about the past. *Should have* and *ought to have* suggest that something did not happen, while *shouldn't have* and *ought not to have* suggest that it did.
- Use *had better (not)* to give a warning that something negative will happen if advice isn't followed.
- Use *be supposed to* in order to show an expectation. You can use *be to + base form* in formal English to express a strong expectation.
- Use *could* or *might* to make suggestions about the present or future that are not too strong. Use *could have* or *might have* to talk about a missed opportunity in the past.

THEME Cultural Differences

Unit 4 focuses on language that is used to discuss suggested, required, or prohibited customs in other cultures.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 4 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 4 Review, and Unit 4 Review Test.

READ (pages 52–53)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What did the author do as a result of feeling uncomfortable about aspects of the evening with his Japanese colleague and wife? (He asked his friend Junichi about it because he had lived in the United States and Japan.)
 2. What were some of the sociocultural errors that the author and his wife, Helen, made when they went to a restaurant with Masayuki and Yukiko? (They didn't take their shoes off when they sat down on pillows. The author speared a piece of meat with his chopstick and then passed it to Helen. Helen used one of her chopsticks to point at a bowl of food. He poured soy sauce all over his rice. He blew his nose at the table. He left a tip for the waiter.)
 3. How did the author know that the evening hadn't gone smoothly? (Masayuki grimaced a bit when the author used his chopstick to spear a piece of meat and when Helen used one of her chopsticks to point at a bowl of food. Yukiko seemed a bit shocked when the author poured soy sauce all over his rice. Masayuki and Yukiko looked surprised when the author blew his nose. Masayuki looked troubled when the author asked if he could split the bill with Masayuki.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 55)

- Since this unit partially focuses on review and consolidation, focus on uses of modals that are likely to be new to your class.
- Have students work in four groups. Assign each group a section of the grammar chart: Obligation (Necessity); Advice; Expectation; and Suggestion/No Obligation (No Necessity). Have each group write out the negative forms and affirmative forms of each of the modals in the chart, as well as an example of the modal from the opening reading.
- Then, have students form new groups of four. In each group there should be at least one student who has a completed chart for each of the different usages. Have each student in the group share the information from his or her completed chart. Call on students from each group to share information with the class.
- Review subject-verb agreement with the class. Ask:
 - Should the modal should change when the subject changes? (*No. For example, both you and he are followed by should.*)
 - Which of the other modals are like this? (*must, ought to, could, might, can*)
 - For which modals does this rule not apply? (*have to, have got to, and be supposed to*)
- Make sure students notice the verb forms following the modals and elicit from them that the base form is used after simple modals and the past participle is used after perfect modals.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 55–58)**Note 1 Definition of Modals**

- Do a listening exercise in which students differentiate between the simple and perfect forms of *should*, *could*, and *might*. Write on the board (or have students write in two columns on a sheet of paper):

Present	Past
should	should have

- Have students listen and point to the one they hear (or have them respond on paper, placing a check under the appropriate column) as you say a series of sentences at normal speed. (Examples: *We should invite him. We should have invited him. We should have called her. I could write them. I could have written them.*)
- Remind students that the formation of the perfect modal requires the past participle, which is often irregular. Elicit a few examples (e.g., *should have* [write] *written* and *might have* [come] *come*).

Note 2 Modal-like Expressions

- Have students read the modal-like expressions and the example sentences. Have them practice saying each variation of the sentence. For the first set of example sentences, write on the board:
 - You must finish everything on your plate.
 - You have to finish everything on your plate.
 - You have got to finish everything on your plate.
- Explain that the meaning of these three sentences is basically the same, but there are small differences that will be discussed in the notes below.

Note 3 Strong Necessity

- Ask: “Which expression is most often used to express strong necessity?” (*have to*) “Which expression is used in conversation and informal writing?” (*have got to*)
- Point out that *must* is very rarely used in speech to express necessity but is more commonly seen in signs. (Example: *Employees must wash hands before returning to work.*)

Note 4 Prohibition and Lack of Necessity

- Write sentences on the board using the modals and have students identify the meaning by using the equivalent expressions. For example:

You must leave now.	
You have to leave now.	= It is necessary that you ...
You must not leave now.	= It is necessary that you not ...
You don't have to leave now.	= It is not necessary that you ...
You didn't have to leave then.	= It was not necessary that you ...

Note 5 Advice

- Point out that *should* is more commonly used than *ought to*, particularly in past forms.
- Explain that *shall* used to be used as a form of *will*. North Americans still occasionally use *shall* for the future, but when they do, they are being very formal or trying to sound funny or different.

Note 6 Warnings

- Point out the forms of *had better* and that it is sometimes used in the past: *You'd better not have scratched my car.* (You're in trouble if you did.) The question form is also worth mentioning: *Hadn't we better get going soon?*
- Explain to students that they need to be careful in using *had better*. It is a strong expression and can seem rude or impolite if not used correctly. It is usually used by people who have authority over others or with people they know very well.

Note 7 Expectations

- Point out the difference between *have to* and *supposed to*. For example: *You have to apply for a license to drive.* (It's a requirement.) *You're supposed to obey the speed limit.* (This is the expectation and the law, but many people don't obey it.)
- Explain to students that *be to + base form* is a very strong expression and can seem rude or impolite in both speech and writing. It is usually used to express strong rules or by people in a position of authority over others.

Note 8 Suggestions

- Tell students that these polite forms will be very useful to them. You can also point out that *could have* and *might have*, referring to past opportunity, are close in meaning.

Pronunciation Note

- Have students listen to the examples and repeat the model.
- Write the following examples on the board. Have students practice saying the reduced forms of the modals:
 - We have to turn off our phones. (*We hafta turn off our phones.*)
 - I should have left earlier. (*I should've left earlier.*)
 - I could have asked for help. (*I could've asked for help.*)
 - He could have played yesterday. (*He coulda played yesterday.*)
 - She might have had to work late. (*She mighta had to work late.*)
 - They might have understood. (*They might've understood.*)
 - We were supposed to pay online. (*We were sposta pay online.*)
 - You had better not make any mistakes. (*You better not make any mistakes.*)
 - You ought to be more careful. (*You oughta be more careful.*)
 - I've got to go. (*I've gotta go.*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING AND WRITING**

- Point out to students that any behavior can be misinterpreted across cultures. Even positive actions such as expressing appreciation can lead to misunderstanding. For example, in some countries, if you say “Thank you” a lot as Americans typically do, you can be seen as cold, distant, or superior. Instead, you say nice things about the person who did the kindness rather than thanking the person for the kindness.
- Have students work in small groups. Give each group a scenario. For example:
 - A classmate invites you to dinner.
 - A friend gives you a book for your birthday.
 - Someone offers to show you the sights of the city.
 - Your teacher shows you how to do something.
- Have groups discuss how people in these situations show appreciation in their cultures. Then have students write short dialogues for role-play and have them act out the scenarios for the class.

READING, WRITING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING

- Do a search on the Internet (or have pairs or groups of students do the search) on cross-cultural etiquette and cultural awareness. Print out (part of) a test that reflects cultural awareness.
- Have students take the test to find out how much they know about other cultures. Have students work in small groups to comment on the test and discuss what people *must/should/are supposed to / are (not) allowed to* do in other cultures. Encourage students to use the test as the basis for a discussion of related experiences they might have had.
- As students share their experiences, have them encourage their classmates to give their opinion by saying what they think the person *should/ought to have done* or *could/might have done* in the situations described.

UNIT 5

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Modals to Express Degrees of Certainty

Unit 5 focuses on the meanings and uses of modals and modal-like expressions that express varying degrees of certainty.

- When we use modals and modal-like expressions to express certainty, we speculate based on logic and facts. These structures can be used with both simple and progressive forms.
- Use *must*, *have to*, and *have got to* + *base form* to express near certainty about the present. Use *can't*, *couldn't*, and *must not* + *base form* to express negative speculation. *Must not* is slightly less certain and is generally not used in the contracted form. For questions, use *could* or *couldn't*.
- Use *may*, *might*, and *could* + *base form* to express less certain speculation about the present. For negative speculation, use *may not* or *might not* + *base form*. *May not* is never contracted, and the contracted form of *might not* is rare. For questions, use *could* or *might*.
- Use *must have* and *had to have* + *past participle* to express near certainty about the past. For negative speculation about the past, use *can't* or *couldn't have* + *past participle* to express impossibility. Use *must not have* + *past participle* when you are less certain. For questions, use *can have* or *could have*.
- When you are speculating about the past and are less certain (about 50 percent), use *may have*, *might have*, or *could have* + *past participle*. Remember that *could have* + *past participle* has two meanings: possibility or missed opportunity. For negative speculation about the past, use *may not have* or *might not have* + *past participle*. For questions, use *might have* or *could have* + *past participle*.
- For speculation about the future, use *should* or *ought to* + *base form* to express near certainty. Use *may*, *might*, or *could* + *base form* to express less certainty about the future. For negative speculation about the future, use *may* or *might* + *not / never* + *base form*.

THEME Mysteries

Unit 5 focuses on language that is used to talk about mysterious events, myths, and legends of the past.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 5 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 5 Review, and Unit 5 Review Test.

READ (pages 69–70)

- You may want to point out unfamiliar vocabulary. Write the words on the board and ask students what they think the words mean. Discuss the meanings as a class. For example:

<i>fragment</i>	a small piece that has broken off or that comes from something larger
<i>pottery</i>	objects made out of baked clay

candidate a person, group, or idea that is a good choice for something

hemisphere one of the halves of the earth

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. According to the reading, who are the best-known candidates for the title of “discoverers” of the New World? (The Vikings.)
 2. What evidence is offered that the Vikings found the New World? (Viking records and artifacts.)
 3. What evidence is offered that the Irish reached North America? (A written account, religious artifacts, and stone carvings found in Virginia.)
 4. Who were the real discoverers of America? (The Native Americans who migrated across the Bering Strait more than 10,000 years ago.)
- In what sense did Columbus “discover” America? (He started two-way communication between the Old and New Worlds.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 71)

- Students will most likely be familiar with the forms and sentence patterns of modals, so in general their attention will be more on meaning than on form in this unit. However, one aspect of form and meaning regarding these modals that is quite challenging is that some modals are used only in affirmative statements. In addition, for some modals, the negative form does not mean the opposite of the affirmative form. Students will need to learn which modals to use to form negatives and questions that convey the desired meaning.
- Have students study the charts and look for examples where the affirmative and negative form are both used and have the expected, opposite meanings. (Answers: *must* / *must not*, *may* / *may not* for present and future, *might* / *might not* for present and future, *must have* / *must not have*, *may have* / *may not have*, *might have* / *might not have* for past)
- Have them look for examples where the negative form of the modal does not have the opposite meaning. (Answers: *has (got) to*, *can't*, *couldn't*, *could* for present and future, *had to have*, *can't have*, *couldn't have*, *could have*) Write these modals on the board.
- For each modal on the board, elicit the modal with the opposite meaning. Draw lines on the board to connect pairs of modals with opposite meanings.
 - has (got to)—can't / couldn't / must not
 - could (present)—may not / might not
 - had to have—can't have / couldn't have / must not have
 - could have—may not have / might not have
 - could (future)—may not / might not

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 72–73)

Note 1 Different Degrees of Certainty

- Your students will probably already have some ideas about using modals to show certainty.

- Leave the diagram on the board for reference as you discuss the rest of the Grammar Notes.

Note 2 Almost Certain about the Present

- Have students read the note. Ask students: “Where do *have to* and *have got to* go in the diagram on the board?” (with *must*, close to 100%)
- Ask students: “How are *have to*, *have got to*, and *must* different?” If they generalize what they have already learned about *must*, they may think that *must* is formal and more restricted in speech than *have to* or *have got to*. Point out that, on the contrary, when *must* is used for probability, it is quite common in informal speech. In fact, it is probably the most usual way to express that something is almost certainly true. On the other hand, *have got to* is decidedly informal and is therefore somewhat less useful than the other two.
- Ask students how they would express the opposite of *It must be true*. They will probably say, *It must not be true*. Ask if they can think of other ways. (*It can't be true*.) Ask which of these shows stronger certainty. (*It can't be true*.)

Note 3 Less Certain about the Present

- You may want to point out that to express possibility, *may* and *might* are used more frequently than *could* in affirmative statements.
- In questions, *could* is more commonly used than *might*.
- Ask students: “Which of these modals can be used with *not*?” (*may* and *might*) “Can *may* or *might* be contracted?” (*no*)

Note 4 Almost Certain about the Past

- Point out that *must have + past participle* and *had to have + past participle* are similar in meaning, but *had to have* shows a greater certainty. For example:
 - *John must have gone home*. (I'm almost certain that he did.)
 - *John had to have gone home*. (It's almost impossible that he didn't.)

Note 5 Less Certain about the Past

- Students will need some practice with these past modals. Go over Note 5, model the examples, and have students repeat.
- Provide examples of the two meanings of *could have + past participle*:
 - *Mary could have left early*. (It's possible that she left early.)
 - *Mary could have left early*. (She didn't leave early, but it was possible to do so.)

Note 6 Almost Certain about the Future

- Review the “certainty scale” with students. Have them place *should* and *ought to* on it.
- Point out that the negative form of *should* and *ought to* are not used to speculate about the future. Instead, students can use non-modal expressions like *probably won't*.

Note 7 Less Certain about the Future

- To contrast *should* and *ought to* with *may*, *might*, and *could*, have students work in pairs to decide which modals they would use in the following sentences:

1. It's four o'clock. Their train _____ be here in a few minutes. (*should, ought to*)
2. A: What are you going to wear to the party?
B: I don't know. I _____ wear my blue suit. (*may, might*)
3. A: When will we see you again?
B: I _____ be back on the East Coast next spring. There's a conference I'm planning to go to in April. (*should, ought to*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**LISTENING AND SPEAKING**

- **Note:** The lives of important figures are often surrounded by myths and legends. When George Washington was a little boy and used his new hatchet to cut down a cherry tree, his angry father confronted him with the evidence. Little George, realizing he had done wrong and understanding that he would be severely punished, said, "I cannot tell a lie. I did it with my hatchet." Many American school children have heard and believe this story. Yet it is totally false.
- Have students discuss similar legends in small groups. Have them say whether they think each is true and explain why it is important, even if it is not true.
- Have each group share one of the legends they discussed with the class.

LISTENING, SPEAKING AND READING

- Bring in several newspaper articles with headlines that lend themselves to discussion and speculation. Cut out the headlines to separate them from the articles.
- Have students work in small groups. Give each group a headline, and have students make speculations about what could be happening, what could have happened, and what could happen next. Encourage the use of a variety of modals to express degrees of certainty.
- Give students the articles that match their headlines so they can confirm their guesses. Follow up by having students write the headline on the board and report to the class about their guesses and what actually happened.

WRITING, READING, SPEAKING AND LISTENING

- Have students bring in a photo that was taken at an event with family or friends.
- Have pairs exchange photos. Tell students the task is to look at the photo and speculate about the event it represents. Their speculations should include the past, present, and future.
- Have students write about the photo using various modals of certainty to express their speculations. Have students read what their partners wrote about their photos and then tell each other true details of the event.

PART **3** **The Future**

UNIT

6

Passives: Part 1

CRIME

UNIT

7

Passives: Part 2

LEGENDS AND MYTHS

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 6**OVERVIEW****GRAMMAR Passives: Part 1**

Unit 6 focuses on the forma, meanings, and uses of the passive voice and the passive causative.

- We say that the subject of a passive voice sentence is acted upon because the object in an active voice sentence most commonly becomes the subject in the passive voice. The subject of an active sentence becomes the agent or disappears in a passive sentence. Only transitive verbs, those that can be followed by an object, can have a passive form.
- Passive sentences can occur in past, present, or future form. They are formed with *be + past participle*. To make a passive sentence negative, place *not* after the first verb word. Use the present and past progressive passive to show that an action is not finished at a certain time.
- Use the passive voice (a) when you don't know who performed the action or it is not important to know who performed the action, (b) when you want to avoid mentioning the agent, or (c) when you want to focus on the receiver or the result rather than the agent.
- Use a *by* phrase with the passive voice (a) to introduce new information about the agent, to give someone credit for something, or (c) when the agent is surprising. Omit the *by* phrase if you feel it is unnecessary or undesirable to mention the agent.
- An indirect object may sometimes be the subject of a passive sentence.
- We often use modals and modal-like auxiliaries in the passive voice. To form the present passive with a modal, use the modal + *be + past participle*. To form the past passive with a modal, use the modal + *have been + past participle*.
- Use *have got*, *had better*, *had to*, *must*, *ought to*, and *should* in passive sentences to express advisability, necessity, and obligation. Use *can* and *could* to express present and past ability. Use *will* and *be going to* in order to talk about future events. Use *can't*, *could*, *may*, and *might* to talk about possibility or impossibility in the future.
- The *get*-passive is formed with *get*, and is more informal than the passive with *be*. It is used in conversation and informal writing. The *get*-passive can be used only with action verbs.
- The passive causative is formed with *have* or *get + object + past participle*. There is little difference in meaning between these two forms. The passive causative is used in past, present, and future and with modals. Use the passive causative to talk about services or activities that people arrange for someone to do. Although the passive causative can occur with a *by* phrase, this phrase is often omitted. Use a *by* phrase only when it is necessary to mention the agent.

THEME Crime

Unit 6 focuses on language that is used to talk about different aspects of crimes and about unsolved criminal mysteries.

Go to www.MyEnglishLab.com for the Unit 6 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 6 Review, and Unit 6 Review Test.

READ (pages 86–87)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. Cooper threatened to blow up the plane unless he received three things. What were they? (\$200,000, four parachutes, and a plane that would fly to Mexico.)
 2. What did the bills look like after eight and a half years of being buried in the ground? (They had decayed so much that only the picture and serial numbers were visible.)
 3. Why do people think Cooper could not have survived the jump? (a combination of the weather conditions and the impact of his fall: the temperature was too cold—7 degrees below zero—and he wore no survival gear.)
 4. Why did Cooper become a legend? (His story has been told in books, articles, and a movie, and it is believed that he got away with the crime.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 89)

- Have students look at the first two sections of the chart that show the transformation of active voice to passive voice. Have students explain the change in verb forms for the two example sentences. (Example: Cooper hijacked the plane—*The verb is simple past.* The plane was hijacked (by Cooper)—*The verb becomes simple past be + past participle.*)
- Write this sentence on the board:

Someone makes a movie about Cooper and this mysterious crime.
- Have students work in pairs or small groups to examine the rest of the grammar charts. Have them look at the above sentence and change it from active voice to each of the passive forms shown in the charts. For example:
 - A movie is made about Cooper and this mysterious crime.
 - A movie is being made about Cooper and his mysterious crime.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 90–93)

Note 1 Passive Voice vs. Active Voice

- You may want to review transitive and intransitive verbs. Point out that in a passive-voice sentence, it is the object from the active-voice sentence that becomes the subject. Therefore, if a verb is intransitive and cannot take an object, a transformation to the passive voice is impossible.

Note 2 Forms of the Passive

- Emphasize that all passive-voice sentences (except the passive causative and passives with *get*) include some form of *be*. Then have students look back at the example sentences in the grammar charts (except the last one), circle any forms of *be*, and then identify them. (Example: *The plane was hijacked by Cooper*— *was* is the form of *be* in the simple past.)
- Have students identify the tense and aspect of the verbs used in the examples. Elicit transformations of a few of them into the active voice using *they*. Have students identify the tense and aspect, making sure that they see the parallel. For example: Cooper has not been caught. (*present perfect*) They *have* not *caught* Cooper. (*present perfect*)
- Have students work in pairs to practice transforming active sentences into passive ones. Have them look through the reading for ideas. (Example: *Cooper ordered the flight attendant to go to the cockpit.* = *The flight attendant was ordered to go to the cockpit by Cooper.*)

Note 3 Uses of the Passive

- Point out that in most cases, the active voice is considered stronger than the passive, and it is generally preferred. However, there are occasions when the passive is needed.
- Go over the three categories listed in the note. Perhaps the most interesting of these is the second: to avoid mentioning the performer when it is inappropriate to do so. (Example: *We were told not to use the photocopy machine for personal use.* — The speaker doesn't want to say who told them this.)

Note 4 The Passive with a *By* Phrase

- Students may find Note 4 contradictory. If so, ask them which of the uses of the passive pointed out in Note 3 apply here. (c) Point out that *by* phrases occur quite naturally in many contexts: books or plays *written by* an author, music *sung / written / composed by* someone, paintings *painted by* an artist, inventions *invented by* a person, and so on.
- In small groups, have students make two lists. One list is names of inventions, paintings, book titles, song titles, and so on. The other list is the *by* phrase that goes with each item on the name list. Have groups cut the names and the *by* phrases into individual strips, mix them up, and place them in an envelope. Have groups exchange envelopes, place the strips on a flat surface, and then match the title items with the appropriate *by* phrases. (Examples: *The light bulb was invented by Thomas Edison.* *Don Quixote was written by Cervantes.*)

Note 5 Direct and Indirect Objects as Passive Subjects

- Review the distinction between direct and indirect objects. Tell students that a direct object receives the action of the verb. Have students read the first example sentence (*The police arrested the suspect.*). Ask: “Who did the police arrest?” (*They arrested the suspect.*) Explain that for this reason, *suspect* is the direct object of the verb. Explain that an indirect object shows to whom / what or for whom / what the action occurred. Have students read the second example sentence (*The FBI gave Cooper the money.*). Ask: “What did the FBI give?” (*the money*) “To whom did they give the money?” (*Cooper*) “What is the direct object?” (*money*) “What is the indirect object?” (*Cooper*)

- Place an object on each of several students' desks when students are out of the room. When they return, have students make sentences in the active voice and identify the parts of the sentence:

	<i>indirect</i>	<i>direct</i>
<i>subject</i>	<i>object</i>	<i>object</i>

Someone gave Maria a set of keys.

	<i>indirect</i>	<i>direct</i>
<i>subject</i>	<i>object</i>	<i>object</i>

Someone gave Jaime a cell phone.

- Then have students transform each sentence into two types of passive-voice sentences. For example:

Maria was given a set of keys.

Jaime was given a cell phone.

A set of keys was given to Maria.

A cell phone was given to Jaime.

- Make sure students notice where those sentence parts went from the first set of sentences to the second set. (Maria, *the indirect object*, became *the subject* in the first sentence. A set of keys, *the direct object*, became *the subject* in the second one.)

Note 6 Passives with Modals

- Have students work in small groups to test which modals can be used in each of the example sentences in the note. Write these categories on the board: advisability, obligation, necessity, ability, certainty, possibility / impossibility.
- Have each group choose a different example sentence from the note. Have them rewrite the sentence to express each of the categories on the board. For example:
 - The criminal should be arrested. (advisability)
 - The criminal must be arrested. (obligation, necessity)
 - The criminal has got to be arrested. (obligation, necessity)
 - The criminal had better be arrested. (obligation, necessity)
 - The criminal can be arrested. (ability)
 - The criminal might (or may) be arrested. (possibility)
 - The criminal is going to be arrested. (future certainty)
- Have students write some of their sentences on the board. As a class, decide which ones could be expressed in the past and write those forms.

Note 7 Get-passive vs. Be-passive

- Point out that the *get*-passive is often used to emphasize action and to suggest that someone or something is subjected to another force.
- Do a quick oral drill, calling on different students to substitute the appropriate form of *get* for *be* in the example sentences in Note 6. For example: *The criminal got arrested.*

Note 8 Forms of the Passive Causative

- Point out that passive causatives express the idea that someone causes something to happen. The example “You should have your car serviced” is similar in meaning to “Someone should service your car.” Have students change the remaining examples to sentences with active verbs. (*Someone just dry-cleaned my suit. Someone washed the windows. Someone tunes up my car twice a year. Someone is going to cut her hair.*)

Note 9 Uses of the Passive Causative

- Conduct a drill with the example sentences in Notes 8 and 9. Sit in a circle with students. Begin by substituting *get* for *have*. Address one student, saying, for example: *Tomiko, you should get your car serviced.* Tomiko addresses another student with her sentence: *José, I just had my car serviced. You should get your car washed.* Continue around the circle, alternating between *get* and *have*.
- When students finish this round, continue the drill, this time transforming the sentences to reflect a different time period. For example: *We had the windows washed* becomes *We are going to have the windows washed.*
- Have students work in pairs or small groups to personalize the practice by asking each other questions such as the following:
 - S1: Where do you get your car repaired?
 - S2: I get it repaired at a garage near my office. Do you cut your own hair or have it cut?
 - S1: I don't have it cut. I cut it myself.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES

READING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING

- Have students do an Internet search for unsolved mysteries. Have each student choose one mystery to research and make notes about. Some well-known unsolved mysteries are “The Babushka Lady,” “The Voynich Manuscript,” and “The Taos Hum.”
- Have students work in pairs to tell each other about their mysteries. Remind students to focus on use of the passive voice in their conversations.

WRITING, READING, SPEAKING AND LISTENING

- Have students use Exercise 6 on Student Book page 98 as a model to write a short narrative about an unpredictable day of their own, either real or imagined. Remind them to focus on the passive and the passive causative in their writing.
- Have students work in pairs, exchange papers, and correct each other's work using the Editing Checklist on page 103. Have students share their feedback with each other orally and revise their narratives.
- Have students form new pairs and read their revised papers to each other. Encourage them to ask questions about the events of the narrative and then guess whether it was real or imagined.

UNIT 7

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Passives: Part 2

Unit 7 focuses on the forms, meanings and uses of the stative passive and the passive in clauses with *it* and phrases with *to*.

- Stative passives are common in English. They can be used to describe states or situations. Unlike other passive-voice sentences, most stative passives do not have a corresponding active-voice sentence and usually do not include a *by* phrase. In the stative passive, there is normally no action taking place.
- The stative passive is formed with *be* and a past participle. The past participle functions as an adjective and is often followed by a prepositional phrase.
- Passive constructions are commonly used to report ideas, beliefs, and opinions. They often occur in the form *it + be + past participle + that* clause. This type of passive sentence does have a corresponding active-voice sentence. These structures can be used only with verbs that can be followed by a *that* clause. A *by* phrase in these types of passives is optional.
- Another passive construction that is used to report ideas, beliefs, or opinions is subject + *be + past participle + to* phrase.
- Passives with *that* clauses or *to* phrases (infinitive phrases) are often used in academic discourse and reporting the news. They provide a more objective impression by creating “distance” between the author and the idea.

THEME Legends and Myths

Unit 7 focuses on language that is used to talk about legends and myths in different societies.

Go to www.MyEnglishLab.com for the Unit 7 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 7 Review, and Unit 7 Review Test.

READ (pages 105–106)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:

1. Where do the Nacirema live? (between Mexico and Canada)
2. What do the Nacirema spend a great deal of time on? (the appearance and health of their bodies)
3. What are some things the Nacirema do to preserve their bodies and appearance? (They have a “shrine room” where they use magical creams and use sticks with paste on their teeth.)
4. What is the author really writing about? (the importance of appearance and health in American culture; “Nacirema” is “American” spelled backward.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 108)

- Divide students into four groups and assign each group one of the grammar charts. (For larger classes, divide the class into more groups and assign each chart to more than one group).
- Have groups read the chart and the examples. Then have them find more examples of the structure in the opening reading on Student Book pages 105–106.
- Call on students from each group to write their examples on the board.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 109–110)**Note 1 Stative Passive**

- Say a few passive sentences and have students say if they are examples of the stative passive. (Examples: A lot of coffee is grown in South America—not stative passive. The house is located near the beach—stative passive.)
- Point out the examples of stative passives found in this note.
- Have students work in small groups to describe their hometowns and/or countries using these stative passives.

Note 2 Opinion/Belief Passives

- Do a simple substitution drill to help students become comfortable with the *it + be + past participle + that* construction. Write this sentence on the board:
It is assumed that this culture is very old.
- Erase *assumed* and have a student write a replacement verb into the sentence. For example:
It is thought that this culture is very old.
This student selects the next student, who substitutes a third verb, and so on, until all the verbs listed in the note have been used.
- Have students look at the examples in the note and notice the way the passive sentence that they practiced has been transformed into an active one (*Scholars assume . . .*). Have them similarly transform the other example sentences into active ones.

Note 3 Opinion/Belief Passives + To Phrase

- Have students look at the first two examples and notice how the first sentence has been transformed from the active into the passive voice in the second sentence. Have them do the same for the other examples in the note, using *people* as a subject.
- Point out the note about the use of *consider*. Ask: “Are there any examples of the passive in this note where *consider* could be used in place of the existing verb?” (*all of them*) Ask: “Are there any sentences where the infinitive phrase could be dropped after *consider*?” (*He is considered [to be] the author.*)
- Point out the note about the need to follow *regard* by *as*. Have students substitute *regard* in as many of the examples in Note 3 as possible and write the resulting sentences. (*He is regarded as the author. Native Americans are regarded as the real discoverers.*)

Note 4 Passives in Academic Discourse and the News

- If students need more practice using passives with *that* clauses or infinitive phrases, have them transform the example sentences into different passive constructions.
- **Note:** You may want to point out that knowing when to use passive constructions is as important as knowing how to form them and the information presented in this note about achieving formality and distance through the use of these particular grammatical forms will be valuable to students in their academic work. You might also want to point out that an element of good writing is sentence variety. Even in situations that call for the use of the passive, students will need to vary their writing to include active sentences as well; in fact, as a rule they will want to use considerably more active than passive sentences in their writing.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**LISTENING AND SPEAKING**

- Have students work in small groups to discuss the following questions:
 - What was the author's purpose in writing the opening reading on Student Book pages 105–106? How do you know?
 - What evidence does the author provide to support his or her criticism of American ideas about appearance and health? Do you agree or disagree with the author's criticism? Why or why not?
- Have groups share their ideas with the class.

LISTENING, SPEAKING, WRITING, AND READING

- Bring in information about the Nazca lines in Peru from different sources—for example, books about archaeological mysteries, encyclopedias, travel magazines, or websites.
- Have students work in small groups. Hand out the material and have students read about this mystery of pre-Colombian archaeology. Have students discuss what they read and express their views about the Nazca lines.
- Have each group share information with the class. Remind students to use the passive to describe situations and report opinions.

PART **4** **Gerunds and Infinitives**

UNIT

8

Gerunds
FRIENDSHIP

UNIT

9

Infinitives
PROCRASTINATION

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 8**OVERVIEW****GRAMMAR Gerunds**

Unit 8 focuses on the meanings and uses of gerunds.

- A gerund is a noun made from a verb by adding *-ing* to the base form of the verb. Gerunds and gerund phrases perform the same functions as nouns: subjects, objects, or complements in sentences. Gerunds can also be objects of prepositions. To make a negative statement with a gerund, add *not* before the gerund.
- Gerunds function as objects after many verbs and verb phrases in English. Some of these are *avoid*, *consider*, *enjoy*, *keep*, and *mind*.
- In writing and formal speaking, use a possessive noun or pronoun before a gerund to show possession. In informal speech, it is acceptable to use a noun or object pronoun before a gerund to show possession.
- Gerunds can occur in simple or past form. We use simple gerunds to make generalizations. To form a past gerund, use *having* + a *past participle*. Past gerunds indicate an action that occurred before the main verb of the sentence. Past gerunds are also used to emphasize a difference in time between two actions.
- Gerunds can also occur in the passive form. For present passive gerunds, use *being* + *past participle*. For past passive gerunds, use *having been* + *past participle*.

THEME Friendship

Unit 8 focuses on language that is used to talk about friendship and the various types of friendships one experiences in life.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 8 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 8 Review, and Unit 8 Review Test.

READ (pages 124–125)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. Why doesn't the author like the traditional description of friends as either true or false? (He recognizes at least five types.)
 2. What are the author's six types of friends? (convenience friends, special-interest friends, online friends, part-of-a-couple friends, "best" friends)
 3. What kinds of friends usually do only one kind of thing together? (special-interest friends)
 4. Who are Amanda and Gretta? (the author's wife and the wife of a friend)
 5. Who is Ken? (one of the author's two "best" friends)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 127)

- Have students work in seven groups to examine the grammar charts. Have each group look at one section of the charts.
- Have students come up with a rule for forming the gerund in the section of the chart they are examining and find an example sentence of that type in the opening reading (or their own example)
- Have students in each group explain their section to the class.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 128–129)

Note 1 Form and Function of Gerunds

- To be sure students can recognize gerunds, put the following sentences on the board:
 1. I go swimming three times a week.
 2. I have been swimming since I was 4.
 3. Swimming is great exercise.
 4. There are swimming classes for adults and children.
 5. Swimming alone at night, I got scared all of a sudden.
 6. I'm good at swimming long distances.
 7. Nobody is swimming right now.
- Have students identify the sentences with a gerund. (1, 3, 6)

Note 2 Gerunds as Subjects and Subject Complements

- Have students make lists of their hobbies and what they like to do in their free time.
- Put sentences on the board about your hobbies and free-time activities. For example:
 - Jogging is great exercise.
 - Playing the guitar relaxes me.
 - Having parties gives me time to spend with my friends.
 - Playing with my dog makes me happy.
- Tell students to make similar sentences about their hobbies and free-time activities.

Note 3 Gerunds as Objects and Object Complements

- Have pairs work together to find out from each other what they enjoy doing and how much time they spend in an average week or month practicing or doing what they like. Then have them ask each other about things they don't mind doing or avoid doing.
- Write the following verbs on the board: *enjoy, spend time, practice, don't mind, avoid*.
- Have the students in each pair report to the class about their partners. Have them use the verbs on the board as they report.

Note 4 Gerunds as Objects of Prepositions

- Have students work in pairs to make up new sentences using the verb and preposition combinations shown in the examples.
- Have students from each pair share some of their sentences with the class.

Note 5 Possessive Gerunds

- Do a quick oral drill, eliciting substitutions for the nouns, pronouns, and gerunds in the example. For example: Pete's dominating... (Maria's dominating..., her dominating..., their dominating..., their controlling...)
- Elicit a few personal examples from the class using the same sentence frame or a variation.

Note 6 Simple and Past Gerunds

- Have students break down the second example sentence into two sentences and label them to show the sequence:
 1. I met Jane in my first week of college.
 2. This helped me throughout my college career.
- Write the example sentence on the board (*Having met Jane...*). Then write the following sentence frame on the board:

Having _____ helped me _____.

Give students one to two minutes to write as many sentences using the frame as they can. Then have students share their sentences.

Note 7 Passive Gerunds

- To practice gerunds in passive constructions, you may want to write structures such as the following on the board and elicit others from the students, encouraging them to use other verbs:

I hate / dislike being...

I hate getting...

I like / enjoy being...

I like getting...
- If you want to give students some practice with the past passive, write a frame such as the following on the board:

Having been (past participle) is one of the best things that ever happened to me.

Then elicit sentences in which they talk about their personal experiences.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**WRITING AND READING**

- Have students write sentences expressing their own views about friendship. You may want to use the following prompts and have students complete them:

A good friend should be grateful for _____.

Appreciating _____ is very important.

It is worth _____.

_____ with a friend is very enjoyable.

Not _____ is a big mistake.

A good friend looks forward to _____.

It's important not to get angry at _____.

A good friend doesn't mind _____.

- Have students work in pairs to share their sentences. Then post students' papers around the room and give students time to read them. Have students discuss the sentences in small groups.

READING, SPEAKING AND LISTENING

- Have students bring in a favorite short story about friendship. Have them exchange and read each other's stories.
- Make up some discussion guide questions using the grammar in this unit. Then have pairs discuss their stories with each other.
- You may want to have some students tell the class about the stories they read and share a lesson they learned about friendship from reading the story

UNIT 9

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Infinitives

Unit 9 focuses on the meanings and uses of infinitives in the simple, past, and passive forms.

- An infinitive is *to* + the *base form* of the verb. Infinitives often have the same functions as nouns. They can act as subjects, objects, or object complements. To make an infinitive negative, place *not* before *to*.
- Certain verbs are followed only by infinitives. Some verbs are followed by a noun or pronoun + an infinitive. Still other verbs are followed by an optional noun or pronoun + an *infinitive*, depending on the meaning of the verb.
- Certain adjectives can be followed by infinitives. These adjectives usually describe people rather than things. Some of these adjectives are *afraid, amazed, excited, fortunate, glad, happy, important, likely, proud, reluctant, sorry, and willing*.
- When a noun is followed by an infinitive, the infinitive gives information about the noun. A noun + infinitive often expresses advisability or necessity.
- Some verbs can be followed only by infinitives and others only by gerunds. There are some verbs that can be followed by either an infinitive or a gerund. Sometimes there is no change in meaning between the use of an infinitive or a gerund, but at other times there is a significant change in meaning.
- The words *too* and *enough* often occur before infinitives. The use of *too* implies a negative result.
- Infinitives occur in simple, past, and passive forms. Use a simple infinitive to indicate an action in the same general time frame as the action in the main verb. Use a past infinitive to show an action that occurred before the action of the main verb. Passive infinitives can be either present or past forms. Use a past passive infinitive to indicate an action that occurred before the action of the main verb.

THEME Procrastination

Unit 9 focuses on language that is used to talk about putting things off until a later time.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 9 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 9 Review, and Unit 9 Review Test.

READ (pages 140–141)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What is the difference between *procrastinate* and *postpone*? (*Postpone* means to reschedule for a later time. *Procrastinate* means to avoid doing something. *Postpone* has a neutral sense. *Procrastinate* has a negative connotation.)

2. According to the author, what is the reason for procrastination? (Fear of failure.)
3. What three principles does Dr. Stevens recommend for his clients who want to stop procrastinating? (Never put things off, do not avoid painful or difficult things, and *carpe diem*—do not put off living.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 143–144)

- Have students work in nine groups and assign one section of each chart to each group.
- Have students study their section of the chart and then write one or two more example sentences that use the structure they are examining.
- Have students from each group write their example sentences on the board and explain their section of the chart. Discuss the examples as a class.
- If you have a class that has fewer than 18 students, have students work in groups and assign each group an appropriate number of sections of the chart to examine.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 144–147)

Note 1 Form and Function of Infinitives

- Have students read the explanation and the example sentences. Read the first two and last two example sentences aloud and have students repeat. For each example, ask: “What is the infinitive? Is it a subject, object, or complement?”
- Point out the *it* + infinitive example sentences and have students read them aloud. Brainstorm other adjectives students could use to replace *advisable* and *important* in the examples. Have students say the sentences again and substitute these adjectives.
- The elliptical use of *to* is a very useful structure. Write the following conversation on the board and have students practice it in pairs. Then have them think of other questions that can be answered with the elliptical use of *to*.

A: Are you going to the party?
 B: I’m planning to.
 A: Why did you take a second job?
 B: I had to. I’ve got a lot of expenses.
- Have students look at the opening reading on pages 140–141 and find examples of infinitives as subjects, as objects, as complements, and in *it* + infinitive structures.

Note 2 Verbs + Infinitives and Gerunds

- Have students read the explanation and example sentences. Have students say the examples aloud, then have them say the examples again and substitute other verbs from the appropriate list. (Example: They managed to find new jobs. They decided to find new jobs.)
- Read the example sentences in the last section of the note. Have students work in pairs to explain in their own words how the meaning changes when an infinitive is used instead of a gerund.
- Have students look at the additional verbs in Appendices 14 and 15 on pages 417–418.

Note 3 Verbs + Nouns + Infinitives

- Have students make one list of the verbs that require a noun or pronoun before the infinitive. Then have them write a list of the verbs after which an object is optional.
- Have students work in pairs. Student A, looking at his or her lists, gives Student B, who is not looking at the lists, a verb, and Student B makes a sentence. If it is a verb that does not require a pronoun / noun object, Student B says, “optional.” Student A tells Student B if he or she is right. Then have them reverse roles and repeat the activity.

Note 4 Adjectives + Infinitives

- Have students look at the example sentences. For each example, ask: “Which of the common adjectives followed by infinitives listed in the note could replace the ones in the examples?”
- Have students read Appendix 20 on page 419.
- Do a whole-class oral substitution drill. Have students sit in a circle. Write the example sentence from the Appendix on the board. Call on a student to change the sentence with an adjective from the list. For example: *I was amazed to hear about that.* Continue around the circle, having each student change the sentence with a different adjective from the list.

Note 5 Nouns + Infinitives

- Have students read the explanation and the examples. Brainstorm other nouns and infinitives that often go together. Write them on the board. (Examples: *a good person to know, a nice / mean thing to say, an important skill to have, a good time to visit*)
- Write the example sentences and others on the board, replacing the nouns with blanks. For example:

_____ is a good place to spend a vacation.

_____ is a good trait to have.

_____ is a good person to know.

_____ is the best time to visit my hometown.

When you're in (place), _____ is the thing to do.

- Have students work in pairs to complete the sentences with their own ideas and opinions. Call on a few pairs to share their sentences with the class.

Note 6 Too + Enough + Infinitives

- Go over the examples and elicit sentences from the class using the same patterns. For fun you might suggest students talk about what they think about English or gerunds and infinitives in particular. For example:

English is too _____ to _____.

There are too many _____ to _____.

We learned enough to understand the basics of gerunds and infinitives.

There's not enough time (for us) to learn it all.

Note 7 Simple, Past, and Passive Infinitives

- Have students practice past and passive infinitives by adding past participles and completing sentences such as the following:

When I started high school I expected to have . . .

The paper is supposed to be . . .

By the time people are twenty-one years old, they are expected to have . . .

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**LISTENING, SPEAKING, AND WRITING**

- Bring in the movie *Dead Poets Society*. Have students watch the part of the film in which Professor John Keating (Robin Williams) encourages his students to live their lives to the fullest and says, among other things, “*Carpe diem*, lads! Seize the day. Make your lives extraordinary!”
- Have students discuss Professor Keating’s advice. On the board, write the following questions (or prepare them as a handout):
 1. What does Professor Keating advise his students to do?
 2. What does he advise them not to do?
 3. What are some good reasons to “seize the day”?
 4. How do the students react?
 5. Are Professor Keating’s ideas too revolutionary for them to understand? Are they reluctant or willing to follow his advice? Why?
 6. Do you think Professor Keating expects to be admired by his students? What motivates him to talk to his students the way he does?
- Have students work in groups to discuss the questions and then discuss them as a class.
- You may want to have students use the questions as a guide to writing a paragraph about the movie scene they watched. Remind students that they should pay particular attention to their use of infinitives. Have them correct their work using the Editing Checklist on page 156.

SPEAKING AND LISTENING

- Write the following questions on the board:
 1. Do you think most people procrastinate?
 2. Do you tend to procrastinate?
 3. What kinds of things do you generally put off doing?
 4. What are some of the reasons you (or people you know) procrastinate?
 5. What are the consequences?
 6. Did your (or someone else’s) procrastination ever lead to something good? What was it?
 7. Did it ever have a very dramatic consequence? What was it?
- Have students work in groups to discuss the questions on the handout.

PART **5** **Nouns**

UNIT
10 **Count and Non-Count Nouns**
HEALTH

UNIT
11 **Definite and Indefinite Articles**
DISAPPEARING SPECIES

UNIT
12 **Quantifiers**
STUDY SKILLS

UNIT
13 **Modification of Nouns**
EXPECTATIONS

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 10**OVERVIEW****GRAMMAR Count and Non-Count Nouns**

Unit 10 focuses on the meanings and uses of count and non-count nouns

- Nouns name persons, places, and things. There are two types of nouns: common and proper. Proper nouns name particular persons, places, or things that are usually unique. In writing they are capitalized. Common nouns refer to persons, places, or things in general and are not the names of particular individuals, places, or things.
- The two types of common nouns are count and non-count. Count nouns refer to things that you can count separately. They can be singular or plural. Non-count nouns refer to things that you cannot count separately. They usually have no plural form. We normally use a singular verb with a non-count noun and a singular pronoun to refer to it.
- There are several categories of non-count nouns: abstractions, diseases, food and drink, natural phenomena, particles, and other things.
- Many nouns have both count and non-count meanings. Examples: *experience, fish, history, space, talk*.
- We can make certain non-count nouns countable by adding a phrase that describes their form, limit, or the container in which they are found. We use these phrases to be more specific or emphatic.
- Many non-count nouns are given a countable meaning by using the plural form to mean kind, type, or variety. For example: *Many tasty cheeses are produced in France*.
- Some non-count nouns end in -s, such as *news* or *physics*. Some count nouns have irregular plural forms.
- People and police are plural count nouns and need a plural verb.

THEME Health

Unit 10 focuses on language that is used to discuss factors that relate to health and wellness.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 10 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 10 Review, and Unit 10 Review Test.

READ (pages 160–161)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What does Dr. Brand say about fast food? (It's OK in moderation. It's full of salt, sugar, cholesterol, and calories.)
 2. What are some ways to avoid the dangers of being in the sun? (wear sunblock and a brimmed hat)

3. What does Dr. Brand tell Martina about her husband? (He's overweight and needs to start exercising and losing weight.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 163)

- Write these questions on the board (or prepare them as a handout):
 - What are the two types of nouns found in the first section of the chart? (*common and proper*)
 - What types of words precede count nouns? (*articles or numbers*) What are some examples of these types of words? (*a, an, the, one, two*)
 - What are some examples of non-count nouns? (*rice, nutrition*)
 - What are some examples of nouns that can have both count and non-count meanings? (*hair, chicken, time, coffee, cheese, light*)
 - What are some examples of phrases that are used to make non-count nouns countable? (*a piece of, a game of, a spoonful of, a loaf of, a pound of, a package of*)
- Have students work in pairs or groups to answer the questions using the grammar charts. For the last three questions, have students provide additional examples of their own. Call on students to share their answers with the class.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 164–166)

Note 1 Definitions of Nouns

- Point out that some nouns that are considered proper and capitalized in English are not capitalized in some other languages.
- For example, in Spanish and French, days of the week, months of the year, names of languages, nationalities, and religions are not capitalized. On the other hand, some languages capitalize words that are not considered proper nouns in English. For example, in German, the first letter of all nouns is capitalized.

Note 2 Types of Common Nouns

- Have students read the explanation and example sentences. Point out the boldfaced nouns in each sentence. For each noun, ask students: “Can you count this separately?”
- Write additional common nouns on the board (for example, *information, idea, problem, time*). Ask if they are count or non-count.

Note 3 Categories of Non-Count Nouns

- Give students a few minutes to read the categories and examples. Explain any unfamiliar vocabulary items.
- Have students work in small groups and assign each group two or three categories. Have them add five more non-count nouns to each category. If needed, refer students to Appendix 5 on page 415 for a list of non-count nouns.
- Call on students to share their categories and examples with the class.

Note 4 Count and Non-Count Meanings of Nouns

- Ask a question with a non-count noun that can also have a countable meaning (Example: “*Do you drink coffee?*”). Then ask: “What is a common way of asking for three orders of coffee?” (*Three coffees.*)
- Point out that in countable use, a given noun can usually be singular or plural.
- Elicit examples of non-count nouns that can also have a countable meaning. (Examples: *television, radio, chance, business, philosophy, film, theater.*) Have students try to make sentences that express the count and non-count meanings of these nouns.
- Have students brainstorm a list of others and write them on the board. (*Food, soup, and fruit* are just a few.)

Note 5 Making Non-Count Nouns Countable with Phrases

- Students will probably need practice with the use of non-count nouns in a count sense. First, model the phrases in the right column. Then have students repeat them after you.
- Have students work in pairs or groups to think of other words they can make countable by preceding them with these phrases:
 - a piece of (*fruit, fish, cake, information, advice*)
 - a grain of (*sand, salt, truth*)
 - a cup of (*coffee, tea, milk, sugar, flour*)
 - a pound of (*meat, cheese, rice*)
- Have groups continue to work together to think of other common phrases that are used to make non-count nouns countable and provide examples of the nouns with which they are used. Then call on students to share their ideas with the class.

Note 6 Irregular Nouns

- Elicit examples of other nouns ending in -s that are usually singular (Example: *linguistics, economics*).
- Give students example sentences using *criterion, phenomenon, and nucleus* in both the singular and plural.
- If needed, refer students to Appendix 4 on page 414 for a list of irregular noun plurals.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**LISTENING AND SPEAKING**

- Write this familiar American saying on the board: *You can't be too rich or too thin.* Explain to students that this is a common saying in the United States, but more and more Americans are becoming obese.
- Have students form teams of three or four. Pairs of teams will debate the benefits of different eating habits. One team will argue for the benefits of eating right and staying thin, stressing the physical, social, and economic benefits of being thin (e.g., health, attractiveness, economic benefit, longer life). The other team will argue for the benefits of people eating whatever they want, including convenience and junk food. These benefits can be psychological, practical (e.g., time), cultural, or economic.

- Give each team ample time to discuss the benefits for which they are arguing. Then have the pairs of teams have a debate for the class. Have class members vote for the team that they find most convincing, and have students share their reasons for voting the way they did.

READING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING

- Bring in (or have students bring in) cookbooks or recipes from different sources.
- Have students work in small groups. Give each student a cookbook or a recipe. Have students choose a recipe to read and then list the ingredients in two columns, *Count Nouns* and *Non-Count Nouns*. Encourage students to use a dictionary to look up words they might not know.
- Have students put a check in front of all the ingredients they like. Have students discuss whether they would like to try the dish and support their answer by saying which ingredients they like and which they don't. Tell students they can also suggest replacing some of the ingredients with others they like better.

LISTENING, SPEAKING, AND WRITING

- Write this example on the board:
- There was so much snow on the road that we had to stop at a gas station. There we ate some cake, drank a cup of hot coffee, and filled the tank with gasoline. We had our skiing equipment in the trunk, and we couldn't wait to get to the ski resort!
- Have students work in pairs and write three simple stories (50 to 60 words) using non-count nouns. Point out that each story should contain at least five non-count nouns in uncountable or countable use. If needed, refer students to Appendices 5 and 6 on page 415 as they work, and encourage them to be creative.
- Have pairs work together to share their stories and decide on one to read to the class.

UNIT 11

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Definite and Indefinite Articles

Unit 11 focuses on the meanings and uses of definite and indefinite articles.

- Nouns that refer to unspecified people, places, or things are called *indefinite* nouns. Use the indefinite articles *a* and *an* before indefinite singular count nouns.
- Nouns are often indefinite the first time they are mentioned, but usually become definite at the next mention.
- Use no article (referred to as zero article) with indefinite plural count nouns, indefinite non-count nouns, names of people, names of most countries, and habitual places such as *home* or *work*.
- Generic nouns talk about things in general and represent all members of a class or category of persons, places, or things. There are three common ways to use nouns generically: indefinite article + count noun; zero article + plural count nouns; zero article + non-count noun. You can also use the definite article + an adjective to make a generic statement.
- A noun is definite when both speaker and listener know which person, place, or thing is talked about. Use the definite article *the* with non-count and singular and plural count nouns that are definite for you and your listener.
- Use the definite article with things that are unique. Sometimes an adjective can make a noun represent something unique.
- Use the definite article generically to talk about inventions, musical instruments, living things, and the parts of the body.
- The definite article can be used to talk about public places such as *the bank* or *the post office*. It is also used with geographical regions or features (*the Pacific Ocean*, *the Grand Canyon*). It can also be used with the names of certain countries such as *the Netherlands* or *the United States* or with the names of ships such as *the Titanic*.

THEME Disappearing Species

Unit 11 focuses on language that is used to talk about endangered species and the causes of the problem.

Go to www.MyEnglishLab.com for the Unit 11 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 11 Review, and Unit 11 Review Test.

READ (pages 178–179)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What percent of the world's animals are in danger of extinction? (40)
 2. Did the auroch, the passenger pigeon, and the western black rhinoceros all become extinct in the 20th century? (no)

3. How are animals in danger of extinction categorized? (critically threatened, endangered, and vulnerable)
4. Which animals that had been in danger of extinction are no longer as threatened? (the whooping cranes of Canada and the US and the humpback whale)
5. What is the main cause of animal extinction? (human activity)
6. What can humans do to reduce the threat to animals? (reduce our use of meat and dairy products; focus on renewable energy; change our shopping habits; support laws that restrict development; support efforts to protect the rain forest, wetlands, coral reefs, and grasslands)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 180–181)

- Have students work in groups of three. Assign each group one of the three different sections of the grammar chart to look at. Have them come up with specific examples from the reading that apply to the section of the chart they are studying.
- Have students reform groups of three so that each new group has one person who has looked at a different section of the chart. Have students share information and examples with each other.
- Circulate as students are working. Provide assistance and clarification as needed.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 181–183)

Notes 1–2 Indefinite and Definite Nouns & Indefinite Article A/An

- The key to understanding the difference between the definite and indefinite article is the idea of what *definite* means. Similar objects of different colors and sizes (colored pencils, markers, apples) can be used to demonstrate this concept clearly. Place a number of these items on a table. Make sure that you have more than one of certain colors.
- Give students a command such as: *Take a red pencil.* On the board write:
Take a _____ pencil.
Ask students which colors they can use the articles *a* or *an*. (*They should identify the colors for which there is more than one item.*) Now write:
Take the _____ pencil.
Again, ask students which colors they can use the article *the*. (*They should identify the colors for which there is only one item.*)
- The concept of a noun becoming definite after the first mention is also nicely demonstrated with the use of countable classroom objects such as books, pens, erasers, crayons, or pads of paper. Place groups of items on a table, with more than one each of various colors.
- Give students commands such as: *Pick up a yellow pencil and a red pencil. Give the yellow pencil to Francisco, and give the red pencil to Viktor.*
- Give students an opportunity to practice giving and responding to the commands with each other.

Note 3 Zero Article

- Have students form five different groups and assign each group one of the five categories given for the zero article. Have each group write more example sentences for the category. You may want to point out a few more “habitual locations” such as church, downtown, or prison since there are a limited number of these.
- Write the categories on the board and have students from each group write some of their sentences under the appropriate heading.

Note 4 Definite Article *The*

- Set up groups of countable objects such as books, pens, pencils, or erasers on a table.
- Have a student take an object and then put it down. Have another student describe the action as you write on the board:

Ivan took a yellow pencil and put it down.

On the board, write:

_____ pencil that Tran took is yellow.

- Elicit *the* from the students. Repeat this procedure with several other students. Have the class watch carefully so that pairs can later describe who took what. For example:

S1: Maria took a book.

S2: The book she took is blue.

- To reinforce the concept of unique nouns, have students brainstorm a list of other unique things in groups (for example, the sky, the moon, the earth, the ozone layer, the atmosphere, the world, the environment).
- Then have students work in groups to brainstorm a list of other nouns for public places, geographical features, and the names of countries preceded by the (for example, the mall, the Indian Ocean, the United Kingdom).

Note 5 Generic Nouns + Articles

- Have students label the examples in Note 5 as category a, b, c, d, or e. Have students form work in pairs. Assign each pair a different category of generic noun. Have them write more examples for the category.
- Reform the class in groups of five, with pairs splitting up into different groups. Have students tell each other the sentences they wrote for their category. You may want to point out that plural count nouns (b) and non-count nouns (e) are the most common types of generic nouns in English.
- Brainstorm with the class other types of generic sentences with the + adjective.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**READING, WRITING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING**

- Bring in pamphlets (or have students bring them) from different kinds of animal rights organizations. Alternatively, search organizations on the Internet and print out information.

- Have students work in groups and give each group material about three organizations. Have students read the material. Have them discuss the aims of the organizations and talk about whether they would like to join or contribute to any of them. Encourage students to support their views with specific reasons.
- Have each group choose one of the organizations and write a brief report about it. Remind them to pay particular attention to the use of articles as they write. The report should include the name and purpose of the organization and its core beliefs. Have groups exchange reports and correct each other's work using the Editing Checklist on page 192. Then have each group report to the class on the organization they wrote about. Discourage students from reading the reports they wrote. Have them use their reports as a guide instead.

READING, WRITING, SPEAKING, AND LISTENING

- Have students use the information in the text about poaching in Exercise 5 on page 187 as the basis for an informal debate about the protection of endangered species.
- Divide the class into two groups. Assign one group to be in favor of the protection of endangered species and one group to be against. Choose two or three students to be debate judges.
- Have each group research information to support their argument. Have the debate judges research both sides of the debate so that they are prepared for the arguments.
- Have each group select an individual to present the group's findings. Encourage the selected students to deliver their presentation from notes rather than reading text that they have written.
- Allow time for rebuttal of the other side's argument.
- When all arguments have been presented, judges discuss which side gave the better argument. They then announce the winner and the reasons for their choice.

UNIT 12

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Quantifiers

Unit 12 focuses on the meanings and uses of the present progressive and the simple present as well as the similarities and differences between the two tenses.

- The present progressive describes an action that is happening right now or in the extended present time.
- The simple present describes an action that happens regularly.

THEME Study Skills

Unit 12 focuses on language used to talk about study skills and how to improve them.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 12 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 12 Review, and Unit 12 Review Test.

READ (pages 194–195)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. If you have a class that meets five hours a week, how many hours outside of class should you expect to study for that class? (10)
 2. What is the difference between a time-orientation and a task-orientation study schedule? (For a time-orientation schedule, you list the number of hours you will devote to each subject. For a task-orientation schedule, you outline the number of tasks you have to accomplish each week.)
 3. What are the characteristics of a good study partner? (Someone who has the same goal and who is prepared and serious about his or her work.)
 4. What is “the right study environment”? (The place that allows you to put in quality study time.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 197)

- Divide the class into enough groups so that each group has a different section of the chart to examine.
- Write these questions on the board:
 - What is the meaning of each of the quantifiers in the section you are looking at?
 - What types of nouns are the quantifiers used with: count, non-count, or both?
- Have groups read their assigned section of the chart and discuss the question. Have students from each group share answers with the class.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 198–201)**Note 1 Definition of Quantifiers**

- Point out that the following quantifiers are not used alone when answering a question; they need to be followed by a pronoun: *each of them*, *every one* (e.g., *How many of the bills did you pay? Every one.*). The following quantifiers can stand alone if *of* is dropped: *a couple*, *a great deal*, *a lot*, *lots*, *plenty* (e.g., *I found some scarves on sale and bought a couple.*). *No* becomes *none* (e.g., *How much time is left? None.*).

Note 2 Quantifiers + Nouns

- Point out that many quantifiers can be used with both count and non-count nouns. Some are limited to one or the other. Ask students: “Which quantifiers can be used for count nouns only? Which for non-count?” Then write these sentence frames on the board:

He looked carefully at _____ coin.

The travelers have _____ cash.

She had _____ bills on her desk.

- Have students work in pairs to choose quantifiers to complete the sentences. Then have pairs share their ideas with the class.

Note 3 Amount, Number

- Say the example sentences with *number* and *amount* and have students repeat them. You may want to point out to students that this is a point that many native speakers of English have trouble with.

Note 4 A Few, Few, A Little, Little, A Bitt

- Write these sentences on the board:

They have a few problems. They have few problems.

They have a little money. They have little money.

- Ask students how omitting *a* changes the meaning of the sentence. (*In the first set of sentences a few implies that they have some problems. The second sentence is more positive. It implies that they have almost no problems. In the second set of sentences, the first sentence is more positive. It implies that they have some money. The second sentence implies that they have almost no money.*)

Note 5 Much, Many, A Great Many, A Lot, Lots, A Great Deal

- Have students work in pairs to replace the nouns in each example sentence with others that are grammatically correct. For example, the first sentence, *I don't have much free time*, can be changed to *I don't have much money*. However, it cannot be changed to *I don't have much friends*. Call on students to share their sentences with the class.
- Draw students' attention to the point about the use of *much* in affirmative statements. Brainstorm other quantifiers that can be used in these sentences instead of *much*. (Examples: *a great deal of*, *a large amount of*, *some*)

Note 6 Some, Any

- Point out that although *some* and *any* are both used in questions, *any* is neutral, while *some* conveys a more positive expectation. It is thus usually more polite to make offers with *some*.
- Have students work in pairs to write four sentences: an affirmative statement, a negative statement, an offer, and a negative question.
- Call on several students to put their sentences on the board, leaving a blank for *some* and *any*. Have these students elicit the appropriate quantifier from the class and write it in the blank.

Note 7 Quantifiers in Phrases with of

- To make the point clear, it may be helpful to give students more examples. Write a few sentences on the board. Elicit which ones take *most of* and which take *most* and why. For example:

American college students take out loans. (*Most* because *American college students* is a general group.)

The college students I know have a lot of debt. (*Most of*, because *the college students I know* is a specific group.)

People are concerned about the educational system. (*Most*, because *people* is a general group.)

The people in our class work very hard. (*Most of*, because *the people in our class* is a specific group.)

- Draw students' attention to the use of *the* in Sentences 2 and 4. Point out that if you use *of* after a quantifier, the next word should be *the* or another determiner such as *my*, *your*, *his*, etc.
- Have students work in groups to write more sentences with *most* / *most of*, *many* / *many of*, *few* / *few of*, and *all* / *all of*. Call on students from each of the groups to share their sentences with the class.

Pronunciation Note

- Have students listen to the examples and repeat the model.
- Write the following examples on the board. Have students practice saying them using *a* in place of *of*:

I need a couple of hours. (*I need a couple a hours.*)

We don't have a lot of time. (*We don't have a lotta time.*)

You need lots of money. (*You need lotsa money.*)

They got plenty of help. (*They got plentya help.*)

We stayed for a number of hours. (*We stayed for a numbera hours.*)

You should see the amount of food they eat. (*You should see the amounta food they eat.*)

She needs a bit of practice. (*She needs a bitta practice.*)

I did most of the work. (*I did mosta the work.*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**WRITING, READING, SPEAKING AND LISTENING**

- Have students use Exercise 2 on Student Book page 202 as a model to write about their English-language studies. Encourage them to write about their progress and the class(es) they are taking.
- Have students work in pairs, exchange papers, and correct each other's work using the Editing Checklist on page 209. Have students share their feedback with each other orally and revise their narratives.
- Have students form new pairs and read their revised papers to each other. Encourage them to discuss the similarities and differences in the content of what they wrote. That is to say, how has their progress in English and their experience in their class(es) been similar and/or different?

READING, SPEAKING AND LISTENING

- Bring in (or have students bring in) information about colleges in the area.
- Have students work in small groups. Have each group choose one of the colleges and discuss why they would or would not like to go there. Remind them to use quantifiers in their discussion. You may want to write these examples on the board:

I think I'd like Wynnefield College because there are a lot of clubs and volunteer opportunities. There are also a number of study abroad programs.

I wouldn't like George Community College because most of the classes are held at night. Also, there are only a few courses in my major.

UNIT 13

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Modification of Nouns

Unit 13 focuses on the meanings and uses of noun, adjective, and compound modifiers as well as order of adjectives.

- Nouns can be modified by both adjectives and other nouns. These modifiers usually come before the noun they modify. When both an adjective and a noun modifier are used, the noun modifier is placed closer to the modified word.
- Participial adjectives are present and past participles that are used to modify nouns. A participial that ends in *-ing* describes someone or something that causes a feeling. A participial that ends in *-ed* describes someone who experiences a feeling.
- When a noun has more than one modifier, the modifiers generally occur in a fixed order. This order may be changed according to the emphasis a speaker or writer wants to give an adjective. Avoid using more than three adjective modifiers before a noun.
- When a noun has two or more modifiers in the same category, separate them by a comma. If the modifiers are in different categories, do not separate them with a comma.
- There are four common kinds of compound modifiers, or modifiers of more than one word. They are: number + noun; noun + present participle; noun + *past participle*; and adjective + *past participle*. When compound modifiers precede a noun, they are generally hyphenated.
- Plural nouns used as modifiers become singular when they come before the noun.
- Avoid using more than two noun modifiers together because it can be confusing.

THEME Expectations

Unit 13 focuses on language that is used to talk about unrealized expectations and unexpected outcomes.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 13 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 13 Review, and Unit 13 Review Test.

READ (pages 211–212)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:

1. How were the expectations different for the two Olympic events Tina Maze participated in? (She was expected to win the first race but she came in fourth. She was not expected to do well in the second race but ended up taking a gold medal in it.)

2. What expectations did the author have of the movie *Her* before going to see it, and did the movie live up to the author's expectations? (The author expected to like the movie but didn't.)
3. What is "the mystery of expectations"? (Events often have surprising outcomes that turn out much more positively than we had expected. Or they do not turn out as we feel they will or should.)
4. According to the psychology instructor, what has the power to control outcomes? (The mind.)
5. What is the professor's recommendation about expectations? (It is better to hope for things than to expect them.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 214)

- Write this sentence on the board and label it as shown:

compound modifier
adj noun noun adj pres participle adj
 They rave about its **superb color photography** and its **strange-looking, otherworldly** creatures.

- Use this sentence to generate new ones. Erase one word at a time and have students supply a new word of the same category. You might wind up with something like this: *extraordinary black-and-white cinematography and its odd-looking, extraterrestrial beings.*
- Have students compose group sentences following the Order of Adjective Modifiers chart. The first few times have them start and end with the phrases in the chart, changing only the adjectives.
- Have students look at the third chart. Ask: "Why are there three different ways to order the adjectives on the right but only one on the left?" (*The order with different modifier categories is fixed, while the order with the same categories is flexible.*)
- Have students look at the last chart. Point out the past and present participles in the compound modifiers. Have students generate a few other compound modifiers following the examples in the chart.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 214–216)

Note 1 Type of Modifiers

- Elicit noun and adjective modifiers that students can use instead of the ones in the example. (Examples: *Yao Ming is a great Chinese basketball player. David Beckham is a handsome English soccer player.*)
- *Milk chocolate* and *chocolate milk* illustrate the importance of word order in English. When the words are reversed, the meaning changes. If needed, give students other examples of this, such as *house pet*, *country home*, *piano player*, and *family dog*.
- Have students work in pairs for a minute or two to generate as many examples as they can think of in which a noun modifies another noun. (Examples: *soccer player*, *window seat*, *flower pot*, *vegetable seed*, *fruit basket*, *piano student*, *tennis teacher*)

Note 2 Adjective Modifiers

- It may take students some time to understand the principle that *-ing* causes a feeling and *-ed* experiences a feeling.
- Write these sentences on the board but draw a blank line for the adjective:
The news was _____.
We were _____ by the news.
- Have students supply the correct participial forms of these words: *amaze*, *surprise*, *interest*, *frighten*, *astonish*.

Note 3 Order of Modifiers

- As you go over the categories, elicit more examples of each from students. Point out that the “opinion” category also includes qualities such as *intelligent*, *funny*, *generous*, and so on.
- Have students work in pairs or small groups to create the longest descriptions they can think of. You can start them off with something like: *A beautiful, expensive antique, hand-finished 12-foot oak library table...*
- Point out that there are other participials that don’t involve causing or experiencing feelings. For example: *boiled* / *boiling*, *rolled* / *rolling*, *carved* / *carving*, *written* / *writing*, *processed* / *processing*. They can be placed in various locations but are usually located between colors and origins. For example: *We bought a knife with a large, beautiful carved wooden handle.*

Note 4 Modifiers in the Same Category

- Point out that another option for two modifiers in the same category is to combine them with *and* if the words have a similar function. For example: *The dog is old and tired*. If they are contrastive, use *but*. For example: *The dog is old but energetic*.
- The comma reflects a pause between the adjectives when speaking. Read the example sentences in Note 4 aloud and have students repeat, pausing at the comma.

Note 5 Compound Modifiers

- To help students understand how compound adjectives are formed, provide sentences based on the examples in Note 5 and point out how they have been converted to modifiers that precede the noun. For example:
The building where I work has ten stories. (*It’s a ten-story building.*)
That film won a prize. (*It’s a prize-winning film.*)
The problem relates to crime. (*It’s a crime-related problem.*)
In the movie, the actor plays the part of a pirate with long hair and one arm. (*The actor plays the part of a long-haired, one-armed pirate in the movie.*)
Her daughter is 10 years old. (*She has a 10-year-old daughter.*)
- Write these examples on the board: It’s a bag that weighs 40 pounds. (It’s a _____.)
That diet reduces your weight. (It’s a _____.)
The government controls that program. (It’s a _____.)

That dog has long hair and three legs. (It's a _____.)

His house is 100 years old. (It's a _____.)

- Have students work in small groups to change the sentences into sentences with compound modifiers. Go over the answers as a class.

Note 6 Number of Modifiers

- Create a number of sentences with stacked noun modifiers and have students work in pairs to unstack them so that no more than two nouns occur in succession. For example, write on the board:

She gave them a parent homework study guide.

- Students can change the sentence on the board into either of the following:

She gave the parents a study guide to use for helping their children do homework.

She gave the parents a study guide to help them help their children with homework.

Pronunciation Note

- Have students listen to the examples and repeat the model.
- Write the following examples on the board. Have students place commas between modifiers in the same category:
 1. The film is a serious profound heartwarming treatment of an important issue.
 2. We have some delicious cheese-and-pepperoni sandwiches.
 3. That ugly grotesque decrepit building should be torn down.
 4. The trip we took was an expensive silly miserable waste of time.
 5. She's going to wear her new red silk dress.
 6. We bought a beautiful new hybrid car.
 7. My intelligent gracious 25-year-old daughter just got married.
 8. Our little old fox terrier is a delight to have in the family.
- Have students repeat the sentence after you listen to the examples and repeat the model.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

- Have students work in groups to consider these questions about the Olympics:
 1. What is it about the Olympics that makes them so special and different from all other sports events?
 2. Why do you think that people who are not usually interested in sports watch the Olympics?
- Have groups talk about an Olympic moment that was exciting for them. What person or event was the most thrilling? Why?

READING, SPEAKING, LISTENING, AND WRITING

- Bring in (or have students bring in) a wide variety of magazine advertisements for different kinds of products. Make sure half of the advertisements contain modifiers. The other half should be pictures only.
- Have students work in small groups and give each group two or three advertisements with text. Have students discuss them, identifying the adjective, noun, and/or compound modifiers that are used to describe the advertised products.
- Give each group one or two of the ads without text. Have the group work together to write text that describes the product in the pictures. Have each group make a poster with their ads and text and post them around the room.

PART **6** **Adjective Clauses**

UNIT
14 **Adjective Clauses: Introduction**
PERSONALITY

UNIT
15 **Adjective Clauses and Phrases**
CULTURE SHOCK

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 14**OVERVIEW****GRAMMAR Adjective Clauses: Introduction**

Unit 14 focuses on the meanings and uses adjective clauses. It addresses placement of adjective clauses, relative pronouns as subjects and objects, *whose* + noun to indicate possession, and *where* and *when* in adjective clauses. Identifying and non-identifying adjective clauses are also presented and explained.

- Sentences with adjective clauses combine two sentences. The adjective clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun in the main clause of the sentence. Adjective clauses can occur after or inside of a main clause. Adjective clauses often begin with relative pronouns such as *who*, *whom*, *which*, or *that*. Adjective clauses can also begin with *whose*, *when*, or *where*. The word that begins the adjective clause usually comes after the noun or pronoun that the clause modifies.
- Use *who*, *which*, or *that* as the subjects of verbs in adjective clauses. *Who* and *that* refer to people. *Which* and *that* refer to things. *That* is less formal than *who* or *which*.
- The verb in the adjective clause agrees with the noun or pronoun that the clause modifies. Be careful not to use double subjects in adjective clauses.
- Use *who*, *whom*, or *that* as objects of verbs in adjective clauses. *Whom* is formal; *who* and *that* are less formal and are used in conversation and informal writing. To refer to things, use *which* or *that* as objects of verbs in adjective clauses. *Which* is more formal.
- If the relative pronoun is an object, you can sometimes omit it in speech and informal writing.
- The verb of an adjective clause agrees with the subject of the clause, not the object.
- Use *whose* to introduce an adjective clause that indicates possession. An adjective clause with *whose* can modify people or things. *Whose* cannot be omitted.
- Use *where* to modify a noun of place. Use an adjective clause with *where* only if you can restate the location with the word *there*.
- Use *when* or *that* to begin an adjective clause that modifies a noun of time. *When* and *that* can be omitted in less formal language.
- An adjective clause that distinguishes one person or thing from another is an *identifying* adjective clause. It is not enclosed in commas. If the adjective clause adds extra information but does not make a distinction between people or things, it is *non-identifying*. It is enclosed in commas. Object relative pronouns can be omitted only from identifying adjective clauses. Don't use *that* as a relative pronoun in a non-identifying clause.
- You can use *which* to refer to an entire previous idea in speech or informal writing. In formal writing, use a noun at the beginning of a *which* clause.

THEME Personality

Unit 14 focuses on language that is used to talk about various types of personality traits.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 14 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 14 Review, and Unit 14 Review Test.

READ (pages 228–230)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What was believed to be true in the 1950s about Type A and Type B personalities? (It was believed that people with Type A personalities were more likely than Type B personalities to suffer from heart disease.)
 2. How many different personality types does the article discuss? (four)
 3. What are the types? What is a characteristic of each one? (Type A: competitive and have no-nonsense approach to life; Type B: socializers who love the spotlight; Type C: lovers of details and data; Type D: like routine and tend not to enjoy adventure.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 231–232)

- Divide the class into five groups and assign each group a section of the chart to examine. If you have a large class, more than one group might examine the same section.
- Have each group write a grammar rule for their section and give two examples that illustrate the rule: one from the chart and one from the opening reading or of the group's own invention.
- Have each group write their rules and examples on the board. Leave these rules and examples posted as you work through the Grammar Notes.
- **Note:** The rules that students will write are essentially the rules explained in the Grammar Notes on Student Book pages 232–235.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 232–235)

Note 1 Definition of Adjective Clauses

- Have students find an example of an adjective clause from the opening reading on Student Book pages 228–230. Then have them tell you the two sentences that are combined in the example. (Example: *The hosts have a new party game that involves comparing each person to a flower.* = *The hosts have a new party game. The game involves comparing each person to a flower.*)
- Then have students find adjective clauses that begin with *who*, *whom*, *which*, *that*, *whose*, *when*, or *where*. For each example, ask students: "Is the adjective clause after the main clause or inside it?"

Note 2 Subjects in Adjective Clauses

- Have students say the examples again, this time substituting another relative pronoun that is possible. (Examples: *The Ings are the people that bought the house.* *Sam is the man who lives next door to me.* *Math is the subject that is the easiest for me.*)

Note 3 Objects in Adjective Clauses

- Have students read the example sentences in this note and in Note 2. Ask: “How are the sentences different?” (In Note 2, the relative pronouns are the subjects of the verbs in the adjective clause, but in Note 3 they are objects.)
- Read the example sentences with *who* and *whom* aloud. Have students repeat, substituting *whom* for *who* and vice versa. Ask: “Can you use *whom* as the subject of an adjective clause?” (No.)
- Have students read the information about omitting the relative pronoun. Choose an example sentence from the note that can have its relative pronoun omitted and read it aloud. Have students repeat twice, first with the relative pronoun then without it. (Example: Mr. Pitkin was the person *who* I mentioned. Mr. Pitkin was the person I mentioned.)

Note 4 Whose in Adjective Clauses

- Write the third example sentence on the board:
Harvey, whose house we’re renting, is a lawyer.
Have students give you the two sentences that are combined in this sentence. (*Harvey is a lawyer. We’re renting his house.*)
- Write this sentence on the board:
An extrovert is basically a person whose energies are activated by being with others.
Have students break the sentence into two sentences. (= *An extrovert is basically a person. His or her energies are activated by being with others.*)

Note 5 Where in Adjective Clauses

- Have students read the note. Draw their attention to the *Be Careful!* note. You may want to give more examples to help students understand this point. Write sentences such as the following on the board and have students break them into two sentences using *there* at the end of the second sentence:
This is the place where I live. (*This is the place. I live there.*)
We passed the restaurant where we had our wedding. (*We passed the restaurant. We had our wedding there.*)
- Have students read the note about *which* or *that* + preposition. Say sentences that use *which* / *that* + preposition and have students change them into *where* sentences. (Example: *This is the park that we play soccer at.* = *This is the park where we play soccer.*)

Note 6 When and That in Adjective Clauses

- Read the note and the examples aloud. Elicit other nouns of time that can appear in the structure. (Examples: *day, year, hour, decade, moment, instant*)
- Write on the board:
The day _____ was the happiest day of my life.

- Read the sentence aloud, completing the blank with information that is true for you. (Example: *The day my daughter was born was the happiest day of my life.*) Call on students to give more examples. Write them on the board.

Note 7 Identifying and Nonidentifying Adjective Clauses

- Have students read the first part of the note and the first three example sentences. Elicit how the use of commas changes the meaning of the sentence. (*In the first two sentences, the speaker is identifying the people that the sentence is about—people who embrace risk and change and people who love the spotlight. In the third, it is already understood which person the sentence is about—Maryam.*)
- Have students find more identifying and non-identifying adjective clauses in the opening reading. Have students explain why each one is identifying or non-identifying and how it affects the meaning.

Note 8 Special Use of *Which* in Adjective Clauses

- Have students find sentences with *which* in the opening reading and then say in how many of those sentences *which* refers to an entire previous idea. (2—*Nancy is impatient with detail and routine, which is why she has hired Paul and Mandy to manage her business* and *Type C's are sensitive, which can cause them to have trouble communicating with others.*)

Pronunciation Note

- Have students listen to the examples and repeat the model.
- Write the following examples on the board. Say the sentences and have students add commas as necessary:
 1. The man who is standing outside is my uncle. (*The man, who is standing outside, is my uncle.*)
 2. The tie which has a stain on it needs to be dry-cleaned. (*The tie which has a stain on it needs to be dry-cleaned.*)
 3. The speaker who had amazing images is world famous. (*The speaker, who had amazing images, is world famous.*)
 4. My friend who has a rather odd personality can be hard to get along with. (*My friend who has a rather odd personality can be hard to get along with.*)
 5. The personality test which is given three times a year can be fun to take. (*The personality test, which is given three times a year, can be fun to take.*)
- Have students answer questions about each sentence.
 - How many men are standing outside? (1)
 - How many ties are there? (*more than 1*)
 - How many speakers were there? (1)
 - How many friends does the person have? (*more than 1*)
 - How many personality tests are there? (1)
- Have students practice saying the sentences.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**SPEAKING, LISTENING, AND WRITING**

- Have students work in pairs to discuss whether they are extroverts or introverts and provide reasons and examples.
- Have students in each pair write one or two paragraphs about whether their partner is an introvert or extrovert and why.
- Publish students' writing by making copies of the paragraphs and putting them in a booklet.

READING, WRITING, SPEAKING, AND LISTENING

- Have students search the Internet for various types of personality tests and bring one or two to class.
- Have students take one of the tests.
- Have students form pairs to discuss the results of the test. Remind them to use adjective clauses in their discussions.

READING, WRITING, SPEAKING, AND LISTENING

- Have students work in pairs. Each pair will use a dictionary to find eight nouns with definitions that use adjective clauses. Encourage students to find definitions of interesting words and to make sure the definitions they choose include a variety of relative pronouns.
- Have two pairs work together to take turns reading the definitions aloud and guessing each other's words.

UNIT 15

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Adjective Clauses and Phrases

Unit 15 focuses on the forms, meanings, and uses of adjective clauses used as objects of prepositions, and various patterns that are used in adjective clauses. The unit also addresses reducing adjective clauses to adjective phrases and changing adjective clauses to adjective phrases.

- The relative pronouns *who(m)*, *that*, *which*, and *whose* can all be used as objects of prepositions in adjective clauses. When the preposition is at the beginning of the clause, the language is more formal. A preposition at the end of the clause is informal. When the clause begins with *that*, the preposition cannot be at the beginning.
- After a preposition, we can omit *who(m)*, *that*, and *which*. The preposition then moves to the end of the clause. *Whose* cannot be omitted.
- Some adjective clauses have the *pattern quantifier + of + relative pronoun*. Quantifiers occur only in clauses with *whom*, *which*, and *whose* and can refer to people or things. These types of clauses are formal. If the clause occurs within the main clause, it is enclosed in commas. If the clause is after the main clause, it is preceded by a comma.
- Some adjective clauses have the *pattern noun + of which*. These clauses refer only to things. If the clause occurs within the main clause, it is enclosed in commas. If the clause is after the main clause, it is preceded by a comma.
- We sometimes shorten, or reduce, adjective clauses to adjective phrases, but they have the same meaning. To reduce an adjective clause with a *be* verb, omit the relative pronoun and the *be* verb. Adjective clauses with *be* verbs can be reduced only when *who*, *which*, or *that* is the subject pronoun of the clause. If an adjective clause needs commas, the corresponding phrase also needs commas.
- In an adjective clause with a verb other than *be*, you can often change the clause to a phrase by omitting the relative pronoun and changing the verb to its *-ing* form. You can do this only when *who*, *which*, or *that* is the subject pronoun of the clause.

THEME Culture Shock

Unit 15 focuses on language that is used to talk about culture shock.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 15 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 15 Review, and Unit 15 Review Test.

READ (pages 247–248)

To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:

1. What is culture shock? (a type of disorientation often resulting from a change to a new locale, a new social setting, or a new country)

2. What are the four stages of culture shock? (honeymoon, negotiation, adjustment, mastery)
3. Do people love everything about the new culture in the first phase of culture shock or the last phase? (the first phase)
4. How long does it take before people start adjusting to the new culture? (six to twelve months)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 249–250)

- Write these sentences on the board:

In the administration are Chris Morgan and Lesley Freeman, both of whom assist international students.

The International Student Center, built in 2010, is a place for international students to share experiences.

International student clubs, a good way to meet others, continue to be popular.

Jamal reaches out to Frank Alvarez, the captain of the college soccer team, with whom he develops an enduring friendship.

Jamal recounts events in his life, illustrating how he knew the answers to the questions.

- Have students work in pairs or groups to match the sentences on the board with the chart that shows their structures. (Sentence 1— adjective clause with quantifier; Sentence 2— reducing adjective clauses to adjective phrases; Sentence 3—adjective clause with noun; Sentence 4— adjective clause with preposition; Sentence 5—changing adjective clauses to adjective phrases.)
- Have students work in pairs to select one or two more sentences from the text and identify which of the charts show their structure. Then have pairs share their sentences with the class.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 251–252)

Note 1 Adjective Clauses with Prepositions

- Have students label the example sentences as formal or informal and then work in pairs to compare answers.
- Have them transform the sentences from formal to informal and vice versa, omitting the relative pronoun where possible.
- Write these sentences on the board:
 - New York City nightlife, for which the city is famous, draws a great number of international students to the city.
 - Exciting cities to which many international students go can be expensive.

Ask: “In which one of these it is possible to omit the relative pronoun and move the preposition to the end?” (only the identifying clause) Review identifying and non-identifying clauses if necessary.

Note 2 Adjective Clauses with Quantifiers

- Ask: “Which of the relative pronouns can refer both to people and things?” (*whose*) “Which refers only to people?” (*whom*) “Which refers only to things?” (*which*)
- Write a few sentences with this pattern on the board, some with the clause in the middle and some with the clause at the end, leaving out the commas for students to supply. Then have students expand the sentences into two sentences. For example: *The students in this class, most of whom are present today, are advanced.* (*The students in this class are advanced. Most of them are present today.*)
- Write these sentence frames on the board (or prepare them as a handout):
 - I have two _____, both of whom _____.
 - I have two _____, both of which _____.
 - I have several _____, three of whom _____.
 - I have many _____, none of whom _____.
 - I have lots of _____, some of which _____.
- Have students complete the sentences on the board with true information about themselves. (Example: *I have two brothers, both of whom are living abroad.*)

Note 3 Adjective Clauses with Noun + of which

- Point out that this structure is formal and is generally reserved for writing or formal speaking.
- Have students look at the example sentences and notice the nouns that come before *of*. (example, occurrences). Then ask: “Why is *example* singular? Why is *occurrences* plural?” (*Example* refers to *the Empire State Building*. *Occurrences* refers to *international celebrations*.)

Note 4 Reducing Adjective Clauses to Adjective Phrases

- Ask: “Is any information lost when the adjective clause is shortened to a phrase?” (*No.*)
- Ask: “When can you shorten an adjective clause?” (*when it contains who, which, or that as the subject pronoun + be.*)
- Have students look at the grammar chart titled “Reducing Adjective Clauses to Adjective Phrases.” Have them read the example sentences aloud.

Note 5 Changing Adjective Clauses without a Be Verb

- Have students read the note. Divide the class into pairs and have them explain the rule to each other in their own words.
- Have students look at the grammar chart titled “Changing Adjective Clauses to Adjective Phrases.” Have them read the example sentences aloud.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**LISTENING AND SPEAKING**

- Have students work in small groups to discuss the topic of the opening reading on pages 247–248. They should discuss the following:
 - whether they are presently experiencing culture shock or have experienced it in the past
 - if they are experiencing culture shock, what stage they are at and how they are coping
 - if they have experienced culture shock in the past, what they remember about the experience and how long it took them to reach the mastery stage
 - what advice they would give to newcomers who might experience culture shock
- Have groups share their experiences with the class.

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

- Divide the class into groups so that different countries are represented in each group.
- Each student should present the aspects of his or her culture that others in the group might have a hard time adjusting to if they were to be international students in that particular country.
- Have groups share their ideas with the class.

SPEAKING AND LISTENING

- Bring in (or have students bring in) photos that suggest an event that has just happened or is about to happen. Each photo should include several people.
- Give each student a photo. Then have students work in pairs to describe the people and events to each other. Remind students to use adjective clauses and phrases in their descriptions.
- Call on a few students to show their photos and share their descriptions with the class.

PART **7** **Present and Past**

UNIT
16 **Adverbs: Sentence, Focus, and Negative**
CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

UNIT
17 **Adverb Clauses**
SPORTS

UNIT
18 **Adverb and Adverbial Phrases**
COMPASSION

UNIT
19 **Connectors**
MEMORY

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 16**OVERVIEW****GRAMMAR Adverbs: Sentence, Focus, and Negative**

Unit 16 focuses on the form, meaning, and placement of sentence adverbs, focus adverbs, and negative adverbs.

- Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs. Some adverbs modify whole sentences. These are called sentence or viewpoint adverbs because they express an opinion or view about a whole sentence. Sentence adverbs can be used in various places in a sentence. If the adverb comes first or last in the sentence, separate it from the rest of the sentence by a comma. Within the sentence, an adverb usually comes after *be* or before other verbs and is not set off by commas.
- Simple adverbs do not modify the whole sentence. They modify single words within the sentence. Some adverbs can be simple or sentence adverbs.
- Focus adverbs focus attention on a particular word or phrase and usually precede the word or phrase they are focused on. Changing the position of a focus adverb will often change the meaning of the sentence.
- Negative adverbs include such words as *hardly*, *in no way*, *little*, *neither*, *never*, *not only*, *only*, *rarely*, and *seldom*. When a negative adverb begins a sentence or clause, place the verb or auxiliary before the subject to emphasize the negative meaning.
- *Here* and *there* are adverbs that force inversion of the subject when they occur at the beginning of a sentence and the subject is a noun (rather than a pronoun).

THEME Controversial Issues

Unit 16 focuses on language that is used to discuss controversies.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 16 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 16 Review, and Unit 16 Review Test.

READ (pages 266–267)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What is Jerry Burns' opinion of the military in general? (Service should be voluntary. A lot of evil things have been done by military forces. Maybe we shouldn't even have them.)
 2. Does Burns think that women are too weak to serve? (No, he doesn't think fighting is feminine.)
 3. What does Sarah Lopez think about voluntary military service? (She thinks military service should be required.)

4. What is Lopez's reason for supporting required military service? (It's the only way to ensure fair treatment for all.)
5. Does Sarah Lopez believe that combat is feminine? (Yes.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 269)

- Elicit from students some of the basic facts about adverbs. (*They often end in -ly; they can modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.*) Then point out that this unit provides a more detailed examination of adverbs.
- Have students look at the sentences in the first chart. Ask: "What word does the adverb *clearly* modify in these sentences?" (*In these examples, clearly is a sentence adverb. It modifies the entire sentence rather than a single word.*)
- Have students look at the next two charts. Ask: "Does the placement of adverb in any of the examples change the meaning of these sentences?" (*In the second chart [focus adverbs], in each set of examples, moving the adverb changes the meaning of the initial sentence. The ideas are opposite—or nearly opposite. In the third chart [negative adverbs], the meaning doesn't change.*) Then ask: "What changes in the example sentences in the last chart when the adverb moves?" (*The position of the subject and verb is inverted and an auxiliary verb is added. The meaning does not change, but there is more emphasis on the meaning of the adverb.*)

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 270–271)

Note 1 Sentence Adverbs

- Have students read the note and the examples. Then have students work in groups of four to come up with a clear explanation of the rule in their own words. Call on various groups to share their explanation with the class.
- Have students read the two example sentences that contrast sentence adverbs and simple adverbs. (*Clearly, he is a very good speaker. / He speaks clearly.*) Have students work in groups again to explain the difference in their own words.
- Point out that when *be* follows a modal verb, the adverb comes after the modal (Example: *Nuclear weapons can hopefully be eliminated.*)
- Have students identify whether the adverbs in the opening reading on pages 266–267 are sentence adverbs or simple adverbs.

Note 2 Focus Adverbs

- Have students read the note and the examples. Have students work in groups to explain in their own words how the meaning differs in each pair of example sentences. Call on a few groups to give their explanation.
- Students may need additional practice. Write the following sentence frames on the board and have students practice them in pairs or groups:

Only kids like to eat _____.

Kids only like to eat _____.

Even my grandmother knows how to _____.

My grandmother even knows how to _____.

- Call on a few groups to share their sentences and explain how the meaning is different. Then have groups try to write one or two pairs of sentences in which the position of *even*, *just*, *only*, or *almost* changes the meaning.

Note 3 Negative Adverbs

- Point out that sentences beginning with negative adverbs other than *neither* sound more formal in English.
- Do a quick transformation drill. Say a few sentences with negative adverbs in the middle of the sentence and have students change them so the sentence begins with the negative adverb. (Example: *I never wake up early on Saturdays.* / *Never do I wake up early on Saturdays.*)

Note 4 Other Adverbs

- Divide the class into groups. Have students go over the note and come up with a clear explanation of it and some original sentences that exemplify the point. Circulate as students are working and provide help as needed.
- Call on students from each group to share their explanations and examples.

Pronunciation Note

- Have students listen to the examples and repeat the model.
- Write the following examples on the board. Have students practice saying them using the correct stress:

Even I can do that. (*Even I can do that.*)

I can do even that. (*I can do even **that**.*)

Only children get in for free. (*Only **children** get in for free.*)

Just George can come. (*Just **George** can come.*)

George can just come, but he can't participate. (*George can just **come**, but he can't participate.*)

It cost almost 500 dollars. (*It cost almost **500** dollars.*)

It almost cost 500 dollars. (*It almost **cost** 500 dollars.*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

- Have students work in pairs. Write several controversial topics on individual slips of paper. You can use the ones that have been presented in the unit or have students brainstorm a list of topics they think are controversial.
- Put the slips of paper in a hat or a basket and have each pair draw a topic. Tell students that they are candidates for an important government position, and their success in being elected depends on a debate that will be broadcast on national TV.

- Give pairs ample time to prepare their arguments about the issue. Have students make notes to assist them in their debate. Have teams present their debates to the class. Hold an “election” and have class members vote for the candidates they thought were the most convincing.

READING AND SPEAKING

- Have students work in groups to create a talk show of their own. It can be similar to or different from the one in the opening conversation on Student Book pages 266–267. Have each group decide on a topic and decide who will be the host and the guests. Remind students that guests should have opposing views about the issue.
- Have students write a script. They can use the opening conversation as a model. Remind them to focus on using various types of adverbs in their conversations.
- Have each group present the show to the class. At the end of the show, class members can be callers who ask specific questions of the guests and/or host about their positions on the issue.

UNIT 17

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Adverb Clauses

Unit 17 focuses on the meanings and uses of various types of adverb clauses, as well as their placement and punctuation.

- Adverb clauses are dependent clauses. Unlike independent clauses, they cannot stand alone; they need another clause to be fully understood. Adverb clauses indicate how, when, why, where, or under what conditions things happen. They may also introduce a contrast.
- Adverb clauses begin with subordinating conjunctions, which may be single words or phrases. Adverb clauses may occur before or after an independent clause and sometimes occur within the independent clause.
- Adverb clauses of time indicate when something happens. They are introduced by a variety of words and expressions that signal time.
- Adverb clauses of place indicate where something happens, and adverb clauses of reason indicate why something happens. Adverb clauses of condition indicate under what conditions something happens.
- Adverb clauses of contrast make a contrast with the idea expressed in the independent clause.

THEME Sports

Unit 17 focuses on language that is used to talk about sports, athletes, and sporting events.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 17 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 17 Review, and Unit 17 Review Test.

READ (pages 282–283)

- You may want to point out unfamiliar vocabulary. Write the words on the board and have students say what they think the words mean. Discuss the meanings as a class. For example:

<i>excesses</i>	actions that are socially or morally unacceptable because they are too extreme
<i>javelin throw</i>	an event in which competitors throw a light spear to see who can throw it the farthest
<i>rival</i>	a person, group, or organization that you compete with
<i>endorsement</i>	saying in an advertisement that people should buy a particular product

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What has the author identified as the three excesses in sports today? (Misplaced focus on fame, money, and violence.)
 2. According to the author, why is the focus on breaking records a problem in today's Olympic games? (Because it's difficult to say who a champion is when the difference in their performances is just 1 / 10 of a second.)
 3. Who are the two athletes that the author uses as examples of excesses in money? (LeBron James and Alex Rodriguez.)
 4. According to the author, how do we show we value people? (By what we pay them.)
 5. Why did hockey player Steve Moore have to be hospitalized? (Because another player hit him in the head with his stick.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 285)

- Have the class work in seven different groups and assign each group one chart to examine. Have students look at the example sentences in their assigned charts and say if the sentences are simple, compound, or complex. (*All of the examples sentences are complex: one independent clause and one dependent clause*). Have students identify the dependent clauses in the examples and the one word in each that prevents the clause from standing on its own. (*In every case it is the adverbial word that makes it a dependent clause.*)
- Ask students: "What do you notice about the placement of adverbial clauses in the charts?" (*They can come before or after the main clause.*) Ask: "Does a change in position result in a change in meaning?" (*No.*)

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 286–288)

Note 1 Definition of Adverb Clauses

- Review the definition of clause with the class (a group of words that contains a subject and a verb). Then have students work in groups to come up with a definition of independent clause (a clause that is a complete sentence on its own) and dependent clause (a clause that is not a sentence on its own. It needs another clause to make a complete sentence.)
- Have groups talk about what they remember about these types of sentences: simple sentence (a sentence that consists of one independent clause); compound sentence (a sentence with two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction such as and, but, or or); a complex sentence (a sentence with one independent clause and one dependent clause). Elicit definitions of these sentences from various groups, filling in gaps in the definitions when necessary.
- Ask: "What is another name for independent clause?" (main clause) "What is another name for dependent clause?" (subordinate clause) "In a complex sentence, in which clause is the main idea usually found?" (the independent or main clause)
- Ask: "Why do some of the example sentences have commas while others don't?" (In the ones with commas, the dependent clause comes first.)

- Have students look at each of the example sentences. Have them identify the subordinating conjunction in each.
- Ask: “What happens to the clause when the subordinating conjunction is removed?” (It becomes an independent clause.)

Note 2 Adverb Clauses of Time

- Some of the example sentences deal with future time. Have students look at the verbs in both the main and the subordinate clauses. Ask: “In which clause is the future form used?” (*the main clause*) “What if the order of the clauses is changed?” (*Will is still used only in the main clause.*) “What about *be going to*—can it be used in a dependent clause?” (*No.*)
- Have students work in pairs to take turns saying the example sentences as they are written and then reverse the order of the clauses.
- Ask students: “Are there other subordinating conjunctions that could replace *as soon as* in the first example?” (*when*)

Note 3 Adverb Clauses of Place

- List the subordinating conjunctions in this note on the board and write the following sentences frames:

I’ll sit _____ at the stadium.
 Famous athletes go _____.
 Put the tickets for the game _____.
 We can park the car _____.
- Have students work in groups to complete the sentences with adverb clauses of place. (Examples: *I’ll sit where I have the best view at the stadium. We can park the car wherever there is an open space.*)
- Have groups write one or two sentences for each frame. Call on various groups to share their sentences with the class. Ask: “In which sentences is the adverb clause inside the main clause?” (*the sentences created from the first frame*)

Note 4 Adverb Clauses of Reason

- Point out that in conversation *because* and *since* are more commonly used than *as* to express reason. In writing, however, *as* is used a great deal.
- Go over the examples with *since* and *as* used to express both time and reason. Have students write a few sentences using *since* and *as* each way. Then have students work in pairs, exchange papers with a partner, and identify which of the partner’s sentences have clauses of time and which have clauses of reason. Have students from various pairs share their sentences with the class and have the class identify which type of clause each sentence contains.
- In small groups, have students look at Appendix 22 on page 420 and identify other subordinating conjunctions that express reason. (*because of / due to / on account of the fact that / inasmuch as*) Then have them write sentences using these subordinating conjunctions and share them with the class.

Note 5 Adverb Clauses of Condition

- Write the following sentences on the board. Then ask students which conjunction (*even if* or *only if*) goes with each sentence:

We are taking this trip to the Olympics for sure. _____ we can't get tickets for our favorite events, we are going. (*even if*)

I'll give you my cell number for emergencies. Use it _____ you need to. (*only if*)

- Have students look at the fourth example. Ask: "How can you use *if* in place of *unless* in this sentence and keep the same meaning?" (*If you don't train a great deal, you won't be a champion.*)
- Ask: "In which of the other example sentences could you use *unless*? What changes would you need to make in each sentence to keep the same meaning?" (*You won't improve unless you practice daily. Bi-Yun won't make the team unless another athlete drops out.*)

Note 6 Adverb Clauses of Contrast

- Point out that clauses of contrast that show unexpected results can be seen as the opposite of clauses of reason, which have a predictable cause and effect relationship.
- Write some simple sentences that show an unexpected result. For example: *We stayed up all night to watch the competition. I wasn't tired.* Then have students work in pairs to combine these sentences using adverbial clauses. For example: *Though we stayed up all night to watch the competition, I wasn't tired.* Have students from various pairs write their sentences on the board and go over them as a class.
- Have students look through Appendix 22 on page 420 to find additional subordinating conjunctions that can introduce clauses of contrast. (*in spite of / despite the fact that*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**READING, SPEAKING, AND LISTENING**

- Bring in (or have students bring in) advertisements for sports equipment or any other kind of item that is suitable for people who practice sports. Have students work in small groups. Hand out several advertisements to each group.
- Have students study the advertisements and discuss the message behind each one. Encourage students to use adverb clauses of reason, condition, and contrast as they describe the messages. Write the following examples on the board to prompt students:
 - You will beat your opponent only if you wear [brand].
 - Since our equipment is the best, you won't be able to reach the top without it.
 - Although it's expensive, you can't afford not to have it.
 - If you drink [brand], you will have more energy.
- Follow up by having students share with the class their views about the advertisements and their messages.

SPEAKING, LISTENING, WRITING, AND READING

- Write the following sentences on the board:

It's not whether you win or lose that's important; it's how you play the game.

The only thing that matters is winning. Given the roots of the Olympic games in war, this ancient Greek ideal might make sense.
- Have students work in small groups to decide which of these ideals provides a better guiding principle for modern sports. Then have them write a three- to four- paragraph opinion essay expressing their view. Remind students to focus on using adverb clauses in their writing.
- Have students work in pairs to correct each other's essays using the Editing Checklist.

UNIT 18

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Adverb and Adverbial Phrases

Unit 18 focuses on the form and uses of adverb and adverbial phrases and the reduction of various types of adverb clauses to phrases.

- A *clause* is a group of words with a subject and a verb that expresses time. A *phrase* does not have a subject and a verb that expresses time. A *phrase* often has a present or past participle.
- Some adverb clauses can be shortened to adverb phrases in ways similar to the ways adjective clauses can be shortened: by reducing them or changing them. Negative adverb phrases contain the word *not* or *never* before the participle.
- Adverb clauses can be reduced to adverb phrases when the clause has a form of *be*. Omit the subject and *be*. You can reduce the adverb clause to a phrase only if the subject in both clauses of the sentence refers to the same person or thing. Adverb phrases can come first or second in the sentence. If the original sentence has commas, keep the commas in the reduced sentence.
- Some adverb clauses can be changed to adverb phrases when the clause has no form of *be*. Omit the subject and change the verb to its *-ing* form. You can reduce the adverb clause to a phrase only if the subject in both clauses of the sentence refers to the same person or thing. Keep the subordinating conjunction (*after, before, since, or while*) and the original punctuation.
- Change a simple past or past perfect verb in an adverb clause to the *-ing* form or to *having + past participle* in an adverb phrase.
- *Upon* or *on + -ing* in an adverb phrase usually has the same meaning as *when* in an adverb clause.
- The subordinating conjunction is sometimes omitted in a phrase. A phrase without a subordinating conjunction is called an adverbial phrase. In a time clause, the subordinating conjunction can be omitted when the clause is changed to an adverbial phrase if the meaning remains clear. However, do not omit the subordinating conjunction in a passive construction.
- Adverb clauses of reason can be changed to adverbial phrases, but *because, since, or as* at the beginning of a clause must be omitted in the adverbial phrase.
- A clause with a passive verb can be changed to an adverbial phrase with a past participle. If the subordinating conjunction can be omitted without changing the meaning, delete the subject and any auxiliaries in the passive sentence.

THEME Compassion

Unit 18 focuses on language that is used to describe stories and discuss acts of compassion

Go to www.MyEnglishLab.com for the Unit 18 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 18 Review, and Unit 18 Review Test.

READ (pages 298–299)

- You may want to have students scan the text for the following words and guess at their meanings using context clues. Have them jot down the definitions in their notebooks. Have students share their definitions. Discuss and clarify them as a class:

<i>ruins</i>	the parts of buildings that are left after the rest have been destroyed
<i>shatter</i>	to break suddenly into very small pieces or to make something break this way
<i>outdistance</i>	to run, ride, etc., faster than other people, especially in a race so that you are far ahead
<i>alert</i>	to officially warn someone of a problem or danger, so that he or she can be ready to deal with it
<i>coma</i>	a state in which someone is unconscious for a period of time, usually after a serious accident or illness
<i>transplant</i>	the operation of moving an organ, piece of skin, etc., from one person's body to another
<i>irony</i>	a situation that is unusual or amusing because something strange happens or the opposite of what is expected happens or is true

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. Why did the Greens try to escape from the criminals? (They thought their new car could outrun them.)
 2. Why were the Greens attacked? (The criminals thought they were carrying precious stones.)
 3. Why did Nicholas's parents offer to donate his organs to Italians in need of them? (to return good for evil and so that someone could have the future he lost)
 4. What happened to the Greens after their return to the United States? (They began to receive requests to speak about their son and the importance of organ donation.)
 5. How did they react to these requests? (They realized that they had found their life's work.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 300–301)

- Have students scan the charts for the spaces marked Ø. Ask: "Why are no adverb phrases possible here?" (*because the subjects of the two clauses are not the same*)
- Have students look at each of the charts. Ask: "What are the two types of adverb clauses that are the focus of these charts?" (*adverb clauses of time and reason*) Ask: "What is the main difference between the first chart and the others?" (*The first chart relates to the reduction of active time clauses with be. The rest focus on time clauses with verbs other than be, reason clauses, and clauses with passives—all of these involve more complicated changes to reduce to phrases.*)
- Write the following questions on the board:
 - In reducing or changing adverb clauses to phrases:
 - What words from the clause were omitted in the phrase?
 - What word forms were changed?

- Have students work in four groups. Assign each group one chart to examine and answer the questions for each example sentence. If you have a large class, you may have more than one group working on each section.
- Have students form new groups of four, making sure that there is one person from each of the previous groups in the new groups. Have students in the new groups share their answers to the questions about the chart that they examined.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 301–304)

Note 1 Definition of Adverb Phrases

- Have students read the note. Then ask: “What verb forms do adverb phrases usually include?” (*present participles or past participles*)

Note 2 Reducing Adverb Clauses with *Be*

- Have students read the note. Then ask: “When can adverb clauses be reduced to phrases?” (when the clause has a form of *be* and the subjects in both clauses of the sentence refer to the same person or thing)

Note 3 Changing Adverb Clauses of Time

- Have students look at the examples. Ask: “How are the verbs in these examples different from the ones in the previous examples?” (*They are not forms of be. They are other verbs: visited and saw.*) “How do we change these clause to adverb phrases?” (omit the subject and change the verb to its *-ing* form)
- Write sentences such as the following on the board and have students complete them with information about a real or fictional vacation:
 - After _____, we checked into our hotel.
 - While _____, we made plans for the next day.
 - Before _____, we had lunch in a restaurant.
 - After _____, we went shopping at . . .
 - Before _____, we visited . . .

Note 4 Changing Adverb Clauses with Past-Time Verbs

- Have students read the note. Ask: “What are the two ways to reduce a simple past or past perfect verb in an adverb clause?” (*omit the subject and change the verb to the -ing form or to having + past participle*)
- Say a simple past or past perfect sentence with an adverb time clause with *after* and have students reduce the clause in both ways. (Example: *After I’d woken up, I realized my alarm clock was broken.* / *After waking up, I realized my alarm clock was broken.* / *After having woken up, I realized my alarm clock was broken.*)
- Have students continue the same activity in groups of three. Each student takes turns saying a sentence, changing the clause to an *-ing* phrase, and changing the clause to a phrase with *having + past participle*.

Note 5 Replacing *When* with *On* or *Upon* in Adverb Phrases

- Have students read the note. Explain that adverb clauses with *when* often do not sound correct when reduced to adverb phrases in the normal way described in Notes 1 through 4. A good rule of thumb is to replace *when* with *upon* or *on*.
- Say an example sentence with *when* and have students reduce the clause to a phrase. Example: When he boarded the plane, he immediately fell asleep. (*Upon / On boarding the plane, he immediately fell asleep.*)
- Have students continue practicing this in pairs.

Note 6 Definition of Adverbial Phrases

- You may want to point out that this sort of change is most common when the events in the adverb phrase and the main clause are happening at the same time. Subordinating conjunctions such as *after* and *before* cannot usually be omitted because this will change the meaning.

Note 7 Changing Adverb Clauses of Reason

- Write some sentences on the board and have students reduce the clauses to phrases. For example:

Since the Greens were compassionate people, they chose to donate Nicholas's organs. (*Being compassionate people, the Greens chose to donate Nicholas's organs.*)

As he wasn't willing to stop for the thieves, Mr. Green kept driving. (*Not willing to stop for the thieves, Mr. Green kept driving.*)

Because they had been affected by this tragedy, the Greens wanted to help other people. (*Having been affected by this tragedy, the Greens wanted to help other people.*)

Note 8 Changing Passive Clauses

- Have students work in pairs to generate three or four sentences with adverb clauses that have passive verbs. Have them base their sentences on the reading. (Example: *Because he was hit by a bullet, Nicholas was critically injured.*)
- Then have pairs exchange sentences and reduce the adverb clauses to phrases. (Example: *Hit by a bullet, Nicholas was critically injured.*)
- Go over the *Be Careful!* note and write several sentences with adverb clauses on the board for students to transform into phrases. For example: Before they were affected by this tragedy, the Greens were a happy family. (*Before being affected by this tragedy, the Greens were a happy family.*)
- Then write the following sentence on the board and ask students if it is a possibility:
Affected by this tragedy, the Greens were a happy family. (*No. Deleting the subordinating conjunction and be changes the meaning, and the resulting sentence doesn't make sense.*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**READING, SPEAKING, LISTENING, AND WRITING**

- Bring in stories (or have students bring them in) that deal with love and compassion. They can be fictional stories or fables such as “Androcles and the Lion” or true stories from magazines, newspapers, or organizations that help people in need, such as UNICEF.
- Have students work in groups to read and discuss the stories. Then write the following example on the board:
- Having run away from his master, Androcles made for the woods. On seeing the lion in pain, Androcles grew bold and decided to help.
- Have students look at the grammar charts again. Have them use ideas from the stories to write sentences using adverbial phrases. Have students from various groups share their sentences with the class.

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

- Have students reread the opening reading on pages 298–299. Point out that the outpouring of sorrow, the reactions of shame on the part of Italians, and the Greens’ receiving Italy’s highest honor indicate that organ donation was probably very unusual in Italy at that time.
- Have students discuss the following questions in small groups:
 1. What are the attitudes toward organ donation in your nation or region?
 2. Are you a registered organ donor? Would you be if you were asked? Why or why not?
 3. What are the arguments for and against organ donation in your culture?
 4. How have attitudes toward organ donation changed in your lifetime?

UNIT 19

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Connectors

Unit 19 focuses on the forms, meanings and uses of three types of discourse connectors.

- There are three main types of connectors: coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, and transitions.
- Coordinating conjunctions join two independent clauses. They are usually preceded by a comma. Subordinating conjunctions connect ideas within a sentence. They come at the beginning of subordinate (dependent) clauses. If the subordinate clause comes first in the sentence, it is followed by a comma. Unless it sets up a contrast, a subordinate clause that follows an independent clause is not preceded by a comma.
- Transitions connect ideas between sentences or larger sections of text. Transitions that connect sentences can come at the beginning, end, or within a sentence. At the beginning of a sentence, a transition is preceded by a period or semicolon and followed by a comma. At the end of a sentence, it is preceded by a comma.
- There are five types of transitions that connect sentences. These can show addition, condition, contrast, effect / result, and time.
- Transitions that connect larger blocks of text usually come at the beginning of a sentence and are followed by a comma. They have a variety of uses: to list ideas in order of time or importance, to give examples, to summarize, or to add a conclusion.

THEME Memory

Unit 19 focuses on language that is used to talk about different types of memory and how we can improve our ability to remember.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 19 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 19 Review, and Unit 19 Review Test.

READ (pages 315–316)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What are the two types of memory that the author distinguishes between? (long-term and short-term)
 2. Where do short-term memory operations occur? (The frontal lobes of the brain.)
 3. As we age, how much mass do the frontal lobes lose per decade? (As much as 5 to 10 percent.)
 4. According to the author, what is one way to remember names? (Create a mental picture you can relate to the person, place, or thing you want to recall.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 318–319)

- Have students look at the examples in the first chart. Ask: “Is the meaning expressed by the different sentences the same or different?” (*pretty much the same*) “Why would a speaker or writer choose one form over another?” (*Each form has a slightly different emphasis, allowing the speaker or writer to choose the best one to connect with what came before.*)
- Photocopy the remaining charts individually, but white out various sections of each chart. Then make enough copies for the class. Have students complete the charts in small groups. Then have them check their answers against the charts in their books.

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 319–322)**Note 1 Types of Connectors**

- Have students name as many coordinating conjunctions as possible from memory, and write them on the board. Then have students look at the charts and complete the list. Repeat the process for subordinating conjunctions and transitions.

Note 2 Coordinating and Subordinating Conjunctions

- Remind students that an independent clause has a subject and a verb. Have them identify the subjects and the verbs in the first two example sentences. (*I forget / I write / I heard / you did mean*)
- Since students studied adverb clauses in the previous unit, they should be familiar with subordinating conjunctions and the comma rules. To establish the connection between these and other connectors, have students transform the first two examples in Note 1. Have them change the structure of the first sentence to a complex sentence using a subordinating conjunction. (*Although I try hard, I can never remember new people’s names.*) Then have them change the second sentence to two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction. (*I can’t remember her name, but I can remember her face.*)

Note 3 Definition of Transitions

- You may want to point out that some transitions, such as *however*, can be used comfortably in all sentence positions indicated. Others are more restricted. Tell students that, when in doubt, the initial position is always safe.
- In small groups, have students look at Appendix 23 on page 421. Ask them to identify words that could replace the transition words in the example sentences. Go over their choices as a class.

Note 4 Transitions to Connect Sentences and Independent Clauses

- Write the following on the board in three columns.

Tom bought a book about how to improve your memory.	In addition, ...	... his memory didn't improve.
	Otherwise, ...	... he bought some audio CDs.
	However, ...	... he had a difficult time remembering names.
	As a result, ...	... his memory improved.
	Before that ...	... his anxiety in new situations may have increased.

- Have students connect the sentence at the left with transitions and clauses to create logical sentences. (Example: *Tom bought a book about how to improve your memory. In addition, he bought some audio CDs.*)
- Brainstorm other transitions that could replace the ones in the chart. (Example: *in addition* can be replaced with *additionally, furthermore, plus*, etc.)

Note 5 Transitions to Connect Blocks of Text

- Point out that sentence connectors help us anticipate the kind of information that is coming next when we read or listen. The transitions that connect blocks of text show us the broad outlines of a writer's or speaker's overall plan.
- Have students reread the opening reading on pages 315 and 316, underlining the transitions that connect blocks of text. Then go over these as a class.
- Have students look at Appendix 24 on page 421 in pairs. Ask them to choose transitional words or phrases that can replace those in the text. Discuss those as a class.

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**READING, SPEAKING, LISTENING, AND WRITING**

- Have students conduct an Internet search on tips for improving memory. Have them print out material and bring it to class.
- Have students exchange articles in pairs and underline the connectors. Then have them discuss what they found and identify what type of connector each one is.
- Have students write two paragraphs about one of the methods to improve memory that they discussed. Remind them to use various types of connectors. In the first paragraph, have them explain how the method works. In the second paragraph, have them express their views on the method.

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

- Have students watch relevant parts of the movie *50 First Dates*, a romantic comedy about a veterinarian named Henry Roth (Adam Sandler), who falls in love with Lucy Whitmore (Drew Barrymore). Lucy never remembers that she is dating Henry because she suffers from short-term memory loss, a disorder which causes her to forget everything every night.
- Have students discuss the following questions in small groups:
 - What would you have done if you were Henry?
 - How does Henry's father behave? How does Lucy's father behave?

PART **8** **Present and Past**

UNIT
20 **Noun Clauses: Subjects, Objects and Complements**
BIRTH ORDER

UNIT
21 **Direct and Indirect Speech**
COMMUNICATION AND MISUNDERSTANDING

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 20**OVERVIEW****GRAMMAR Noun Clauses: Subjects, Objects and Complements**

Unit 20 focuses on the meanings and uses of noun clauses as subjects, objects, and complements.

- Noun clauses are dependent clauses that have the same functions as regular nouns. They can be subjects, objects, subject complements, or adjective complements. Noun clauses begin with *that*, *whether*, *if*, or question words.
- *That* introduces certain noun clauses and has no concrete meaning in these cases. It is often omitted when it introduces an object or complements a noun clause, especially in speaking. *That* is never omitted when it introduces a subject noun clause. Subject noun clauses beginning with *that* are formal.
- Unlike the word *that*, the word *what* refers to something definite and serves as the object in the noun clause. It cannot be omitted.
- In subject noun clauses, *the fact that* is sometimes used in place of *that*. In noun clauses that are objects of prepositions, *the fact that* must be used in place of *that*.
- When a question is changed to a noun clause, it is an embedded question. Embedded questions use statement word order. An embedded question is more polite than a direct question. An embedded question can occur within a statement or another question. When an embedded question occurs within a statement, it is followed by a period. When it occurs within a question, it is followed by a question mark.
- *Wh-* question words introduce embedded *wh-* questions. The subject of an embedded *wh-* question takes a singular verb. Do not use *do*, *does*, or *did* in embedded questions.
- Use *if* and *whether* to introduce embedded *yes / no* questions. *If* and *whether* are similar in meaning and are often used interchangeably. Do not use *if* to introduce a subject noun clause. *Whether . . . or not* can replace *whether* in all noun clauses. *If . . . or not* can replace *whether* in all but subject noun clauses.

THEME Birth Order

Unit 20 focuses on language that is used to discuss the topic of birth order and issues that arise in the raising of children.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 20 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 20 Review, and Unit 20 Review Test.

READ (pages 334–336)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What is the birth-order theory? (The order in which children are born plays a significant role in the formation of their personalities and the way they ultimately turn out.)
 2. How are firstborns different from lastborns? (Firstborns tend to be conservative, rule-oriented, and opposed to change. Lastborns are usually more social, agreeable and open to new and even revolutionary ideas.)
 3. To whom are only children more similar, firstborns or lastborns? (Firstborns.)
 4. What other factor besides birth order might determine how a child turns out? (The child's temperament.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 337–338)

- Write these sentences on the board (or prepare them as a handout):
 1. The parents realized that their two sons were very different from each other.
 2. That the older boy was intensely competitive had always bothered them.
 3. Their older son's teacher told them this behavior wasn't unusual for an older sibling
 4. I don't know if they believed the teacher, though, when the teacher said they didn't need anything.
 5. The fact that the older son didn't listen to them was a problem.
 6. Billy was pleased that he had finally risen to the number-one spot in his mother's affections.
 7. All I know is that the parents have a problem.
 8. They are going to do whatever works.
- Have students study the grammar charts in pairs or small groups. Have them look at the previous sentences, underlining the noun clauses and circling the word that begins each noun clause. Then have them identify the function of noun clause(s) in each sentence (*subject*—2, 5; *object*—1, 3, 4, 8; *subject complement*—7; *adjective complement*—6) Have them identify the sentences in which that is optional or has been omitted (*optional*—1, 7; *omitted*—3)

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 338–341)**Note 1 Definition of Noun Clauses**

- If students do not understand how objects and complements differ, read the example sentence *You can see that I am easily amused*. Point out that *see* has an object: *the fact that I am easily amused*. Then read the example sentence *The question is whether people will laugh*. Point out that the verb, *is*, does not take an object. *Whether people will laugh* is the complement; it gives more information about the subject.

- On the board, write:

It's funny that you should say that.

Erase *funny*, eliciting other adjectives from students, each time erasing the old adjective and writing in the new one. Then erase the noun clause and elicit several substitutions for it. For example:

It's interesting (that) you should ask that question.

Note 2 That + Noun Clauses

- Read the example sentences with *that* and (where possible) those with *that* omitted and have students repeat.
- Say (or write on the board) a few sentences with subject and object noun clauses using *that*. Have students tell you if *that* can be omitted.

Note 3 The Fact That + Noun Clauses

- Help students develop fluency with *the fact that*. Have students find example sentences in Notes 1 and 2 where *the fact that* could be used and say these aloud. For example: *The fact that firstborns identify with their parents is apparent. The fact that there are exceptions to the theory is clear. The fact that birth order determines personality is a controversial claim.* Point out that *the fact that* is less formal than the word *that* to introduce the clause.

Note 4 Embedded Questions

- Point out that embedded questions are more polite than direct questions.
- Point out that embedded questions are used for a wide range of purposes—when we really don't know the answer, when we are unsure of the answer, when we want to say something without being very direct about it, and when we want to be polite. For example, when requesting information from a stranger, embedded questions are expected: *Excuse me, do you know / could you tell me / I wonder if you could tell me* (note double embedded question) *where the post office is.*
- Look at the example sentences in Note 4 and have students tell you what the original questions were. Write them on the board.
 - Who is their daughter?
 - Who is she?
- Is she from around here?
 - How many children do they have?
 - Is Roberto an only child?
- On the board, write:
 - I'm not sure. What's today's date?
- Have students combine the sentences to make an embedded question.
 - (I'm not sure what today's date is.)* Ask them what has changed in the question. *(the word order and punctuation)*

Note 5 Wh- Question Words + Noun Clauses

- Draw attention to the punctuation of examples in Note 5. Ask students: “Why is there a question mark after the first one?” (*because the embedded question is embedded in a question*)
- Write some *wh-* questions with *do*, *does*, or *did*. For example: *Where does she live? When does he finish work?* Have students make embedded questions starting with *Do you know*. (*Do you know where she lives? Do you know when he finishes work?*) Once again, ask students what has changed from the original question. (*As with the preceding examples, word order and punctuation changed. In these examples, as the word order is changed, does disappears.*)

Note 6 If and Whether (or Not) + Noun Clauses

- On the board write:
 - Is she from around here? I don’t know.
- Have students make an embedded question. (*I don’t know if / whether she is from around here.*) Ask: “What has changed?” (*word order, punctuation, and the addition of if or whether*)
- Have students work in pairs to look at Note 6 to find the expressions that are used to introduce embedded questions. Have different students write these on the board. (*Do you know, who knows, I have no idea, we’re not sure, we don’t know, it’s hard to know*) Ask if they can think of any others and write them on the board. (Examples: *Could you [please] tell me, do you happen to know, it’s difficult to say / see, I can’t imagine, can you guess, I wonder*)
- Have students practice forming embedded questions in pairs. One student says a *yes/no* question and the other changes it to an embedded question, using the expressions on the board.
- Point out that when *whether* is used, *or not* can appear in two places: *We don’t know whether or not she got the job.* *We don’t know whether she got the job or not.* When *if* is used, the only position for *or not* is at the end of the sentence: *We don’t know if she got the job or not.*
- On the board write:

Whether she received it isn’t known.

Ask: “Can *or not* be added?” (*Yes, but only after whether: Whether or not she received it isn’t known.*)

Note 7 –Ever Words + Noun Clauses

- To help students with the meaning of the *–ever* words, write on the board these sentences:
 1. _____ wants to go should go.
 2. Go _____ direction you want. We can get there either way.
 3. Her parents let her do _____ she wants.
 4. _____ we go will be fun. All the places sound exciting.
 5. _____ you look at the question it is hard to understand.
 6. _____ I do things with the children is fun.
 7. Give the prize to _____ you think should get it.
- Have students complete the sentences with the correct *–ever* words. (1. *Whoever* 2. *whichever* 3. *whatever* 4. *Wherever* 5. *However* 6. *Whenever* 7. *Whomever*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**READING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING**

- Bring in (or have students bring in) information they find online about famous siblings.
- Have students work in groups to discuss the information. Write this useful language for this discussion on the board:

What I find interesting is . . .

What I think is funny is . . .

What is so amazing is . . .

It's fascinating that . . .

What I don't understand about their relationship is . . .

Can you explain what / why . . .

I wonder why . . .

What makes me laugh is . . .

LISTENING AND SPEAKING

- Divide the class into groups according to students' birth order—one group for the eldest in the family, one group for the youngest, one group for the middle children, and one group for only children. (If there is only one only child in the class, have that only child work with the group of eldest children.)
- Have students discuss their relationships with their siblings—for example, whether they are a leader in their family or a follower—and see how many similarities there are in the group's sibling relationships because of their shared birth order. (Only children could discuss their character traits and their relationship with parents and extended family.)
- Groups then report what they discussed and whether the information in the opening reading on pages 334–336 proved correct about them. As the rest of the class listens, they should note down how many noun clauses they hear.

UNIT 21

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR Direct and Indirect Speech

Unit 21 focuses on the forms, meanings, and uses of reporting verbs and direct and indirect speech for questions and statements. It also addresses changes in other types of words that take place when speech is reported.

- We report speech in two ways: direct speech and indirect speech. Direct, or quoted speech, is the exact words a person spoke or thought and is enclosed in quotation marks. Direct speech is often introduced by reporting verbs.
- Indirect speech, or reported speech, is someone's report of what another person said or thought. It is not the exact words of a speaker and not enclosed in quotation marks. Indirect speech reports what a person said in a noun clause or phrase introduced by a reporting verb.
- If a statement is reported, *that* can be used to introduce it. If a question is reported, the noun clause is introduced by *if*, *whether (or not)*, or a *wh-* question word.
- *Say* and *tell* are the most common reporting verbs, and we usually use their simple past forms with both direct and indirect speech.
- We normally use the simple past form of *ask* to report indirect questions. For *yes / no* questions, use *if* or *whether (or not)* to introduce the question and use statement word order. Do not use *do* or *did* in indirect questions, and end them with a period, not a question mark.
- Use question words to introduce indirect *wh-* questions. Use statement word order to report indirect questions about the predicate. Use question word order to report indirect questions about the subject.
- If the reporting verb is in the past, the verb in the noun clause often changes. We sometimes do not change verbs in a noun clause in spoken English, especially if what we are reporting happened a short time ago. If general truths are reported, we often do not change verbs in the noun clause.
- Certain modals often change in indirect speech. Certain other words change as well.

THEME Communication and Misunderstanding

Unit 21 focuses on language that is used to talk about effective communication and potential misunderstandings during communication.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 21 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 21 Review, and Unit 21 Review Test.

READ (pages 352–353)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:

1. What does Ellen Sands say that she wants to talk about? (ways to avoid verbal conflict)

2. What did she see at a restaurant in New York City? (She saw an Asian couple talking to their server.)
3. Why was the couple upset? (because the service was slow)
4. According to Sands, what mistake did the waitress make? (She didn't listen actively and never answered the couple's question.)
5. What is one other way Sands thinks we can avoid conflict? (by stating things positively rather than negatively)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (page 355–356)

- Have students look at the first two charts. Ask: “Can the verb *said* in the first chart be replaced by *told*?” (No.) “Why not?” (*The verb tell is followed by a person. You tell someone something.*)
- Have students look at the charts that show formation of indirect questions. Ask: “In the first set of examples, are the words *if* / *whether* required?” (Yes.) “What about the examples that report *wh*- questions—are the *wh*- question words needed?” (Yes.)
- Elicit that changing direct to indirect speech is essentially forming noun clauses and embedded questions, which was studied in Unit 20.
- Tell students that there are some additional complications with reported speech, and turn their attention to the next two charts. Have pairs of students read aloud the direct and indirect versions of each sentence in the charts. Ask: “What is different in the indirect version?” (*The pronoun changes from I to he. The verb expresses an earlier time.*)
- Look at the last chart. Ask students what other words change. (*pronouns, possessives, this, here, ago, now, today, yesterday, and tomorrow*)

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 356–360)

Note 1 Direct vs. Indirect Speech

- Write the first two example sentences of direct speech on the board without punctuation and invite different students to punctuate them properly. Point out that the final punctuation goes inside the closing quotation marks.

Note 2 Reporting Verbs

- Have students read the explanation and example sentences. Draw students' attention to the usage note and the *Be Careful!* notes that precede and follow it.
- Write some sentences based on the opening reading on the board (or prepare them as a handout). Have students work in pairs to change the sentences from direct to indirect speech using the reporting verbs *say* and *tell*. For example:

“Hello, everyone. My name is Brad Ness,” said the reporter. (*The reporter told everyone that his name was Brad Ness. OR The reporter said that his name was Brad Ness.*)

“The service was very slow,” the man said to the waitress. (*The man told the waitress that the service was very slow. OR The man said that the service was very slow.*)

“The waitress didn’t listen carefully, Brad,” said Ellen Sands. (*Ellen Sands told Brad that the waitress didn’t listen carefully. OR Ellen Sands said that the waitress didn’t listen carefully.*)

- Have students from different pairs share their answers with the class.

Note 3 Reporting Yes/No Questions

- Have students brainstorm a list of *yes/no* questions to ask you. Tell them not to ask questions with time words. Write the questions on the board.
- Have students work in pairs to change the direct questions on the board.
- Then have pairs exchange papers with other pairs to compare indirect questions.

Note 4 Reporting Wh- Questions

- With the class, develop a list of *wh-* question words and write them on the board.
- Have students work in small groups to write one direct question with each word. Have groups exchange questions and transform the direct questions into indirect questions.
- Call on students from each group to share their direct and indirect questions with the class and explain the changes they made. For example:

“Where is Tony?” he asked.

He asked where Tony was.

“What are you eating?” Tom asked Martha.

Tom asked Martha what she was eating.

“When did they leave?” she asked.

She asked when they had left.

Note 5 Changes in Verbs

- Write the following sentences on the board (or prepare them as a handout):

1. “Sit down!” Ms. Nolan said to the class.	Ms. Nolan said to the class sit down.
2. “Don’t sleep in class!” Mr. Bell told a student.	Mr. Bell told a student not to sleep in class.
3. At the party Tom said, “I like Mary.”	At the party Tom said he liked Mary.
4. Tom told me, “I don’t know her number.”	Tom told me he doesn’t know her number.
5. Jack said, “I’m leaving.”	Jack said he is leaving.
6. Jill said, “I’m going home.”	Jill said she was going home.
7. Marco said, “I didn’t do the homework.”	The student said he hadn’t done the homework.
8. “We have had a great time,” Amy said.	Amy said they’d had a great time
- Have students say whether the sentences in indirect speech are correct or incorrect. (Incorrect: 1, 4, 5)

Note 6 Verbs That Don't Change

- Write the following chart on the board or prepare it as a handout.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
"The sun <u>sets</u> earlier here in winter."	Jeong said that the sun <u>sets</u> earlier here in winter.
"I arrived late this morning."	Sara has just told me she <u>arrived</u> late this morning.
"I'm <u>going</u> home."	Tulu <u>says</u> he's <u>going</u> home.
"I'm <u>tired</u> ."	Jared is <u>saying</u> that he's <u>tired</u> .

- Have students discuss in pairs why it is not necessary to change the verbs in each reported statement.

Note 7 Reporting Modals

- Have students work in pairs to compare the examples of direct and indirect speech in Note 7. Have them underline changes in verbs and circle changes in pronouns and other words. Have students from each pair share their answers with the class.
- To give students practice discriminating among modals that change and those that don't change in reported speech, write the following sentence on the board. Then have a student transform it into indirect speech:

Ana said, "We can go out for dinner." (*Ana said they could go out for dinner.*)

- Replace *can* with *could* and elicit the indirect version. (*Ana said they could . . . [no change].*)

Have students work in pairs to write sentences with direct speech for each of the remaining modals in Note 7. Then have pairs exchange sentences and transform the sentences into indirect speech. Have various pairs share their sentences with the class.

Note 8 Other Changes in Indirect Speech

- Have students read the example sentences aloud and note the changes in pairs. Then have two pairs work together to compare their changes.
- Write sentences on the board with words that change in indirect speech. Then have students change the sentences into reported speech. For example:

Tomiko asked, "Have you been to this restaurant?" (*Tomiko asked if I had been to that restaurant.*)

She said, "I ate here three days ago." (*She said she had eaten there three days before.*)

"I told my parents about it yesterday," she explained (*She explained that she had told her parents about it the day before.*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**READING, SPEAKING, AND LISTENING**

- Bring in (or have students bring in) magazine interviews with famous people.
- Have students work in small groups. Give each group an interview to read and discuss. Then have students in each group underline interesting pieces of information and select some things they would like to share with the class. Have each person in the group tell the class at least one piece of information. Point out that for each piece of information, students should report both the question and the answer. Encourage students to use a variety of reporting verbs.

READING, WRITING, SPEAKING, AND LISTENING

- Have students work in pairs to write a conversation similar to the one in Exercise 5 on page 365. Tell them that the conversation can have two or three speakers.
- Have two pairs work together to exchange conversations and write an account of their partners' conversation using indirect speech.
- Have various groups share an original conversation and the account of it with the class.

LISTENING, SPEAKING, WRITING, AND READING

- Bring in (or have students bring in) magazine or personal pictures that lend themselves to discussion and speculation.
- Have students work in groups. Give each group a picture and have them discuss what happened and what the people said to each other. Have them write their ideas as direct speech.
- Have groups exchange pictures and papers and rewrite the sentences using indirect speech.
- Have each group show the picture and tell the class about it using indirect speech. If you have a large class, have two groups share their pictures and ideas with each other.

PART **9** **Conditionals and the Subjunctive**

UNIT
22 **Conditionals; Other Ways to Express Unreality**
ACHIEVEMENTS AND INVENTIONS

UNIT
23 **More Conditions; The Subjunctive**
ADVICE

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the course diagnostic test, Student Book audio, additional practice, and review tests.

UNIT 22**OVERVIEW****GRAMMAR Conditionals; Other Ways to Express Unreality**

Unit 22 focuses on the forms, meanings, and uses of a variety of structures that express real conditions or unreality.

- Conditional sentences describe situations that occur (or do not occur) because of certain conditions. They consist of two clauses: a dependent condition clause and an independent result clause. There are two types of conditionals: real and unreal.
- Real (or factual) conditionals describe situations that occur regularly or are likely or possible in the future. Unreal conditionals describe situations that are untrue, unlikely, or impossible in the past or present. In conditional sentences, the clause can occur in either order without a change in meaning. Either or both clauses can be negative.
- We use present real conditionals to talk about general truths, scientific facts, or habits and repeated events. The simple present is used in both clauses. We can also use the present progressive in the *if* clause. In future time situations, use the simple present or the present progressive in the *if* clause and the future with *will* or *be going to*, *may*, *might*, *can*, or *could* in the result clause.
- Use the present unreal conditionals to talk about unreal, untrue, imagined, or impossible conditions and their results. Use the simple past form of verbs in the *if* clause. If the verb is *be*, use *were* for all persons. In the result clause, use *could*, *might*, or *would* + the base form of the verb.
- Use the past unreal conditional to talk about past unreal, untrue, imagined, or impossible conditions and their unreal results. Use the past perfect in the *if* clause and *could*, *might*, or *would have* + *past participle* in the result clause. We can use past unreal conditionals to express regret about a situation that actually happened in the past.
- Times in the *if* clause and the result clause are sometimes different. Present unreal and past unreal conditionals can be mixed in the same sentence.
- We often use unreal conditionals to express regret or sadness. We can also use *wish* + a noun clause to express sadness or desire for a different situation. *If only* has a meaning similar to that of *wish*. *If only* is followed by a noun clause without *that*.

THEME Achievement and Inventions

Unit 22 focuses on language that is used to talk about how achievements and inventions have impacted people's lives.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 22 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 22 Review, and Unit 22 Review Test.

READ (pages 374–375)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What was the chance occurrence that led to Newton's theory of gravitation? (An apple falling from a tree he was sitting under.)
 2. What might have caused Newton's death? (Toxic levels of mercury in his body from exposing himself to mercury in chemical experiments.)
 3. What is Henry Ford famous for? (Developing an automobile that the average person could afford.)
 4. What did Thomas Edison think was more important, genius or hard work? (Hard work.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 377–378)

- Have students compare the examples in the first two charts (Present and Future Real Conditional; Present Unreal Conditionals). Both talk about present situations. Ask: "Do both use present verb forms?" (*No, the verb forms in the unreal conditionals are past.*)
- Ask: "What about subject-verb agreement in Charts 1 and 2?" (*Subject-verb agreement is normal with the real conditionals. For the present unreal conditional, instead of it was / wasn't, we see it were / weren't, which is actually subjunctive. Students will learn more about the subjunctive in the next unit.*)
- Have students look at the third chart (Past Unreal Conditionals). Ask: "In Chart 3, what verb forms are used?" (*In the if-clause, the past perfect is used. In the result clause, would have + past participle is used.*)
- Have students look at the last chart (Other Ways to Express Unreality). Ask: "In this chart, what verb forms are used for the present and future?" (*simple past, could*) "Which form is used for the past?" (*past perfect*) Ask: "In each sentence, what actually happens?" (*Cars cause pollution. Some people can barely afford to buy gasoline. Cars were gasoline-powered from the beginning.*)

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 378–381)**Note 1 Definition of Conditionals**

- Have students work in pairs to generate three or four more examples of situations or events that occur regularly or that are likely or possible in the future. (Examples: *It is hot in the summer. My train is late.*) Then brainstorm events that are untrue, unlikely, or impossible. (Examples: *I win the lottery. I am president of the United States.*)
- Have students from each pair share their ideas with the class.

Note 2 Present Real Conditionals

- Have students look at the present real conditional examples in Note 2 and point out that either the simple present or the present progressive can be used in the *if* clause.

- Have two students come to the board and change the verbs in *if* clauses of the first two sentences to the present progressive. Have a third student change the verb in the third example to the simple present. Ask: “Do these changes affect the meaning of the sentences?” (*No.*)
- Have students look at the examples that express future time situations. Have various students replace the modals in the result clauses with the other modals listed. Ask: “Do these substitutions change the meaning of the sentences?” (*In some case they do, but only because the modals have different meanings.*)

Note 3 Present Unreal Conditionals

- On the board write this sentence frame: If I _____, I _____.
- Have students tell you what can go into the blanks, and write these words under the blanks on the board:

If I _____,	I _____.
<i>were</i>	<i>could</i>
<i>simple past</i>	<i>might + base form</i>
	<i>would</i>

- Have students think about three things they wish were true, with at least one related to being something and one involving having something. Have them write these as sentences and share them in small groups. For example:

If I were president of the country, I'd / I wouldn't ...

If I had 10,000 extra dollars, I'd ...

If I could talk to one famous person in history, I'd talk to ...

Note 4 Past Unreal Conditionals

- Have students read the note and the examples. Draw students' attention to the *Be Careful!* note. You may want to point out that, in informal speech, many native speakers use *would have* in the *if* clause of past unreal conditionals, but it is still considered incorrect, especially in writing and in formal speech.
- Write the following sentence frame on the board again and have students supply the verb forms. Write them below the blanks:

If I _____,	I _____.
<i>had + past participle</i>	<i>could have</i>
	<i>might have + past participle</i>
	<i>would have</i>

- Have students think about things they wish would have been true or things they regret. Have them write about them in sentences using the frame on the board and share their sentences in groups. For example:

If I had studied English when I was young, I might have gotten my degree by now.

If I had lived 100 years ago, I would have never left my home village.

If I had worked more last summer, I could have bought a new motorcycle.

Note 5 Mixed Conditionals

- Write the following statements on the board. Have students read the sentences aloud and say whether each clause is about a past or future condition or result.

If I hadn't read that book, I wouldn't know the answer. (*past condition; present result*)

If I were rich, I would be in the Bahamas enjoying the sun. (*present condition; present result*)

If I hadn't been there, I wouldn't have gotten hurt. (*past condition; past result*)

If my car weren't at the garage, I would have lent it to you. (*present condition; past result*)

- Have students match the conditional sentences with the types of conditions and results they express. Then have students replace the underlined segments with their own ideas.

Note 6 Wish and Hope + Noun Clause

- Point out that the central meaning of *wish* is a desire that a situation be different from what it is. A wish involves a contrary-to-fact situation.
- Have students write down three general situations (not actions) that they want to be different. Then have them make a *wish* statement about each and share these with a partner. (Example: *I don't get to see my wife much because she works a lot. I wish she had a different job.*)
- Next, have them write a sentence with *wish* + *would* / *could* + *base form* expressing a single future action that would change each situation wished about. (Example: *I wish my wife would look for a better job with fewer hours.*)

Note 7 If Only + Noun Clause

- Have students write down three things: something they want now, something they regret about the past, and something they'd like to change in the future. Have students express their wishes with sentences starting with *if only*. (Examples: *If only I had a car . . . If only I had passed my history test . . . If only we didn't have so much homework . . .*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES**READING AND SPEAKING**

- Have pairs find information online about the lives and creative processes of other great inventors aside from those mentioned in the unit. Assign each pair a different inventor. Examples include: Alessandro Volta (credited with inventing the battery); Louis Braille (developed the Braille system of reading for the blind); Tim Berners Lee (credited with inventing the World Wide Web).
- Have pairs present to the class what they learned about their assigned inventor.
- Then divide the class into groups, putting each member of a pair in a different group. Have a competition to see which group can generate the most conditional sentences about three or four of the inventors. Set an appropriate time limit.

WRITING, READING, SPEAKING AND LISTENING

- Have students use Exercise 9 on Student Book page 389 as a model to write a short narrative about the inventor they researched in the activity above. Remind them to focus on the conditional sentences in their writing.
- Have students work in pairs, exchange papers, and correct each other's work using the Editing Checklist on page 390. Have students share their feedback with each other orally and revise their narratives.
- Have students form new pairs and read their revised papers to each other. Encourage them to ask questions about the events of the narrative and then guess whether it was real or imagined.

UNIT 23

OVERVIEW

GRAMMAR More Conditions; the Subjunctive

Unit 23 focuses on the forms, meanings, and uses of the subjunctive in implied an inverted conditionals and noun clauses.

- Conditions are sometimes implied rather than directly stated in an *if* clause. In a sentence with an implied condition, there is no change in the result clause, but the clause that expresses the condition may be implied through the use of certain words. The condition clause may precede or follow the result clause.
- Unreal conditions with *had*, *should*, and *were* are sometimes expressed by inverting the subject and verb and deleting *if*. There is no change in the result clause. The inverted condition clause can precede or follow the result clause. Inverted conditionals with *should* imply that an action or event is not likely to happen. This is much different from the usual meaning of *should*. Negative inversion is formed by adding *not* after the inverted subject and verb. Do not contract *not* and the verb. Sentences with inverted conditional clauses are more formal than conditionals with *if*.
- Although the use of the subjunctive is somewhat uncommon in English, it is commonly used in present unreal conditions with the use of *were*. *Were* is not used for past situations in conditionals.
- In another form of the subjunctive, we use a noun clause with the base form of the verb. Form the negative by placing *not* before the base form. To form a passive subjunctive, use *be* + the past participle. In passive subjunctives, we can usually omit *that*.
- The subjunctive is used in noun clauses following verbs of advice, necessity, and urgency. Do not use infinitives in subjunctive noun clauses with these types of verbs. However, some of these verbs can be followed by a gerund phrase.
- The subjunctive is also used after adjectives of advice, necessity, and urgency. Subjunctive verbs after these types of adjectives occur in the pattern *it + be + adjective + that* clause. In this type of clause we do not usually omit *that*.

THEME Advice

Unit 23 focuses on language that is used to ask for and give advice.

Go to **www.MyEnglishLab.com** for the Unit 23 Diagnostic Test, additional Grammar in Context practice, Grammar Coach Videos, additional focused practice, communication practice, from Grammar to Writing practice, Unit 23 Review, and Unit 23 Review Test.

READ (pages 392–394)

- To encourage students to read with a purpose, write these questions on the board or make copies of the questions and distribute them to students:
 1. What is the problem that Jason writes to Rosa about? (He's upset because he thinks his college roommate is a slob, and the lack of neatness bothers him.)

2. What are Rosa's suggestions? (Ask Hank if he really likes living this way; show him how to clean up; remind him that Jason has a right to a clean and orderly living space.)
3. What does Rosa say is an important thing? (She says that Hank shouldn't feel criticized.)
4. What does Carla feel like at times? (She feels like she's married to his family members).
5. What are two examples that Carla gives to explain her complaint? (She says that his family members drop in without letting her know they're coming, his sister constantly asks her to do favors for her, and his cousin asks to borrow money but doesn't pay it back.)
6. What does Rosa think will help make Carla and Jim's marriage stronger? (A little bit of extra communication.)

GRAMMAR CHARTS (pages 395–396)

- Have students look at the first chart. Ask: "In general, which are easier to construct, implied or standard conditions?" (*implied conditions*)
- Point out that most of the implied condition structures are very commonly used in conversation except for one. Ask: "Which non-standard condition structure is *not* commonly used in conversation?" (*but for, which is, in fact, quite formal and very rarely used*)
- Have students look at the second chart and describe the difference in form between the inverted conditions and the standard conditions. (*word order, deletion of if*)
- Have students look at the third and fourth charts. Ask: "What do you notice about the form of the verbs in the subjunctive clauses?" (*They're base forms—they don't show agreement with the subject.*)

GRAMMAR NOTES (pages 396–398)

Note 1 Implied Conditions

- Have students work in pairs to use the example sentences in the first grammar chart to practice forming implied conditions. Have one student cover the left column and look only at the right column while the other student reads the standard conditions in the left column. The student looking at the right column re-creates the equivalent sentences using *with, without, but for, if so, if not, and otherwise*. The other partner provides helpful feedback as needed. Then have partners switch roles.
- Elicit other examples from the class. Start with a prompt. (Example: *I'd better balance my checkbook.*) Have students suggest some implied conditions (*if not, otherwise*) and complete the thought. (Example: *If not / Otherwise, I'm likely to bounce some checks.*)

Note 2 Inverted Conditions

- Have students work in pairs. Give students practice with inverted conditions by repeating, with the second grammar chart, the same procedure in Note 1.

Notes 3–4 Form and Function of the Subjunctive & The Subjunctive with Verbs of Advice, Necessity, and Urgency

- Point out that *if I were you* is a particularly useful structure in English. If you feel they need more practice with it, have them work in pairs posing problems and offering advice. For example:

S1: My rent is too high.

S2: If I were you, I'd look for a new apartment.

- Write these sentences on the board (without underlining the words):

1. They insist we be available when they drop in.
2. When I suggest she call first, she becomes angry.
3. I would recommend she talk with her husband.
4. I'd rather Jim not tell his parents how I feel.
5. It's important that Elena not criticize his parents.
6. I'd propose she communicate directly with him.
7. It's not advisable for her to be upset.
8. I'd recommend Jason look into ways to help Hank understand.
9. It's essential that we understand each other's points of view.
10. It's imperative for her to communicate with her husband.

- Have students identify the noun clauses and the verbs they contain. (*All but Sentences 7 and 10 have noun clauses.*) Ask: "What do you notice about the verb form in the noun clauses in each of the sentences?" (*It's the base form.*)
- Leave the sentences on the board for Note 5.

Note 5 The Subjunctive with Adjectives of Advice, Necessity, and Urgency

- Have students look at the sentences again. Ask:
Which sentences have a structure that is different from the other sentences?
(5, 7, 9, and 10)
What is the different structure? (*In these four sentences the main clause has the pattern it + be + adjective.*)
How are Sentences 7 and 10 different from Sentences 5 and 9? (*Sentences 5 and 10 have the alternate pattern it + be + adjective + for + noun or object pronoun + infinitive, which is more informal.*)
- Why does *that* appear in some of these sentences and not others? (*In 5 and 9 it can be omitted, but usually isn't. In 7 and 10 for replaces that and cannot be omitted. In the rest of the sentences that is optional.*)

OUT OF THE BOX ACTIVITIES

READING AND SPEAKING

- Have each student write two letters to an advice columnist seeking advice about two different situations. They can use the opening text as a model.

- Have students give each of their letters to a different classmate. Have students respond to the letters and give their responses to the appropriate student.
- Have students work with a new partner to discuss one of the situations and the advice they received. Make sure students use their own words to describe the situation orally and do not simply exchange papers to read.
- Have students change partners and repeat the process for the second letter.

READING, LISTENING, AND SPEAKING

- Bring in (or have students bring in) a variety of articles that make suggestions, express opinions, or give advice.
- Have students work in small groups to read one of the articles and discuss it. Have students take notes about their discussion and deliver a group report to the class. Encourage students to use the language they learned in this unit. You may also want to write the following sentence frames on the board:

The article suggests (that) _____.

The experts recommend (that) _____.

You might _____; if so, _____.

Should you _____, _____.

Without perseverance, you won't be able to _____.

With a bit of patience, you'll soon be able to _____.

It's important (that) _____.

It's essential (that) _____.

It's advisable (that) _____.