

ELT-28

Teaching Structures in Situations

Milestones in ELT

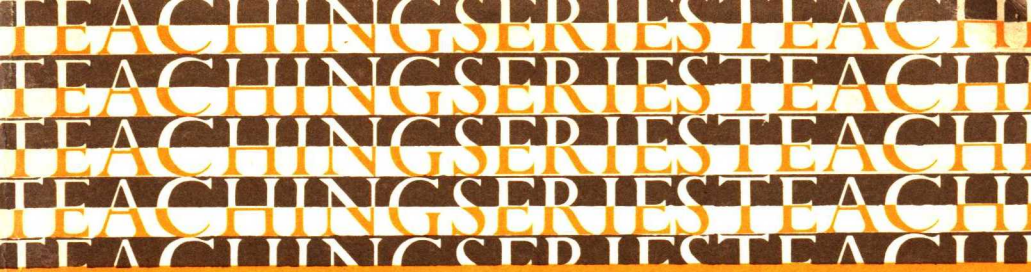
Milestones in ELT

The British Council was established in 1934 and one of our main aims has always been to promote a wider knowledge of the English language. Over the years we have issued many important publications that have set the agenda for ELT professionals, often in partnership with other organisations and institutions.

As part of our 75th anniversary celebrations, we re-launched a selection of these publications online, and more have now been added in connection with our 80th anniversary. Many of the messages and ideas are just as relevant today as they were when first published. We believe they are also useful historical sources through which colleagues can see how our profession has developed over the years.

Teaching Structures in Situations

This title, published in 1967, was intended to be the first in a series of booklets designed to be of practical help to teachers of English as a second language, especially in West Africa. The booklet provides a clear overview of the methodological orthodoxy of the time, situational language teaching. In the introduction, the authors firstly consider how children learn their mother tongue successfully through everyday situations. The chapters then look at: teaching language and meaning through situations in the classroom; substitution drilling; equipment; and how a selection of grammatical forms can be taught and practised using the recommended methodology. The book focuses on the need to present new language to students in ways that attract the attention of all in the class, and that give all students a chance to practise speaking. It also stresses that a fictional situation which has a strong imaginative appeal will enable students to learn the meaning of language far more successfully than through dictionary work alone.

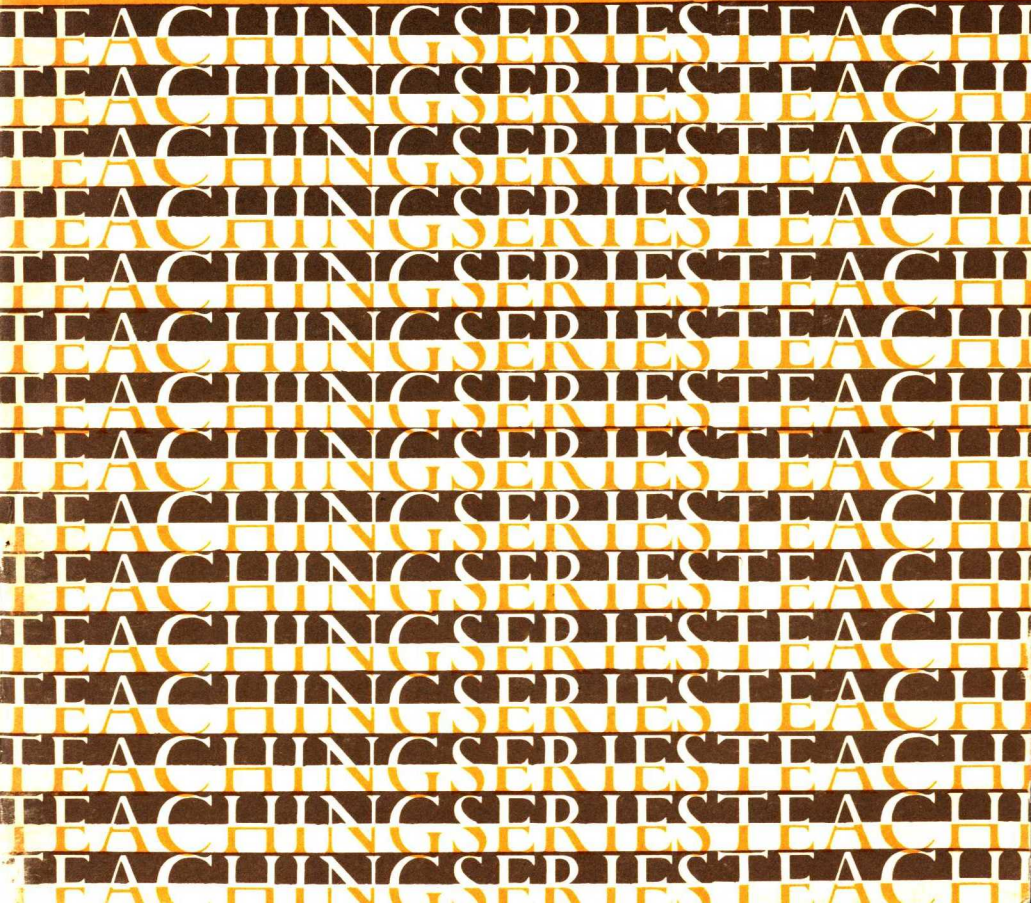


THE BRITISH COUNCIL
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING SERIES

Teaching Structures in Situations

K. W. MOODY & P. H. GIBBS

African Universities Press



BRITISH COUNCIL

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING SERIES

This is the first in a series of booklets for teachers of English. The authors of this series are specialists whose long experience of teaching in this field enables them to appreciate the special problems of the learner of English as a second language. Although the series originated in West Africa, and will be a practical guide to the requirements of West African Examination Council type syllabuses, it will also be of value in other areas where there is a need for active control of the language.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING SERIES

Teaching Structures in Situations

K. W. MOODY & P. H. GIBBS

PUBLISHED IN ASSOCIATION WITH
THE BRITISH COUNCIL



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1 Introduction

- 1.1 Let us think of four children. Each of them is five or six years old, and each of them is starting his first day at school. One is starting school in London, another in Ibadan, another in Kano and the fourth in Enugu.

In London, the teacher says: 'Sit down there.'

In Ibadan, the teacher says: 'Joko n'be.'

In Kano, the teacher says: 'Kasauna kasa.'

In Enugu, the teacher says: 'Nodu na ebea.'

None of these children has ever been told what these words mean, but each of them sits down where he has been told to sit. Nobody is surprised at this, and yet it is rather strange. Nobody has ever said to the child, 'To sit down means to do this', but the child knows what it means. And he knows the meaning so well that he does not have to stop and think about what to do. He just does it. We might even be tempted to say that he does it instinctively. But this would be *very* untrue. What has really happened is that the child has *learnt* the meanings of 'sit down', 'nodu' etc. in some way that has not required any explanation of the meaning. Similarly, of course, French children have learnt the meaning of 'Asseyez-vous', German children know what to do when someone says, 'Setzen Sie sich', and Malay children sit down when they hear 'Duduklah'. They have all learnt what these words mean without receiving any explanation of them. And they have all learnt them extremely well—there is no possibility in any normal circumstances that they would ever forget them. How, then, have they learnt them? They have learnt them through 'situations'.

- 1.2 Our English youngster, then, has learnt English, his mother tongue, through situations. What does this mean? It means this:

a that his infancy has been full of happenings and each time some part of each happening has had its special meanings for him. He kept falling over the step: he banged his head and it hurt; Mother went out for a few minutes: he was filled with anxiety; he wet himself and was uncomfortable. These and many other experiences go on over and over again; and some aspects of them

- are of special meaning to him, even though no words are spoken.
- b* that often somebody has spoken words to fit the important parts of these events ('Nasty step!'; 'Poor head!'; 'Mummy's here.'; 'Let's change him, then.')
- c* that these experiences have happened so often that he has learnt
 - i* to link the words with the part of his experiences which mattered.
 - ii* to say the words himself on other similar occasions.
 - iii* to use the words – and variations on them – on other occasions only partially similar ('Nasty door!'; 'Poor finger!'; 'Mummy's there'; 'Let's bath him, then').

After a few years, he has learnt the meanings of a very large amount of his language. He has learnt the meanings carried by its sounds; by the different arrangements of these sounds into different words; by the way the words are put together in groups; and by the different orders into which these are arranged to mean different things. He has learnt all these meanings almost entirely without explanations. We do not know exactly how he learns all this—and he certainly cannot tell us—but it is quite clear that he has learnt a very great deal in this way.

- 1.3 It is also clear that this is a very efficient way of learning a language. What can a normal child do by the time he is four or five?
- a* He can pronounce easily all the sounds, and say hundreds of words of English.
 - b* He can use these words in many kinds of sentence, with the emphasis, tune and rhythm used by the English people he knows.
 - c* He can understand, but not yet use, hundreds of other English words.
 - d* He has begun to adapt his style to the kind of person he is speaking to, and to the topic he is talking about.
 - e* He is beginning to make suitable choices, according to the situation, between items which have a good deal of meaning in common. (e.g. a child in England would probably say to his mother 'Is that Daddy's shirt you're *ironing*?' when he knows the shirt has been washed, but 'Why are you *pressing* Daddy's trousers?' when his mother is merely using an iron to improve the appearance of the trousers).

And all these skills are virtually automatic—indeed an efficient way of learning!

1.4 The obvious question to ask is whether it is possible to learn a second language in the same way. It is clearly a good way of learning, but is it *possible* to learn more than one language by these processes? It certainly looks as if the answer to this question must be 'No', unless the learner is prepared or able to spend a long time living in a country where the second language is spoken. We can make a list of some of the advantages which a child has in learning his first language, and which he cannot have in learning a second.

- a He *hears* a great deal more of the language. He is surrounded by it most of the time that he is awake.
- b Practically everyone he listens to speaks the language fluently and automatically.
- c Everyone who uses the language in his hearing is a teacher of it. He thus has hundreds of teachers. (Though most of them, of course, do not realise that they are teachers.)
- d The language around him is continually being used *purposefully*. So he gets a great deal of *exposure* to the language, he has a great many teachers who all speak it well, and they usually speak because they have a reason for doing so.

It is certainly true that we cannot hope to reproduce all these conditions when we are teaching a second language. But it does not follow that we cannot make use of the advantages of teaching through *situations*. Among the things we mentioned in section (1.2) were

- a and b Events or surroundings, whose relevant aspects were matched with language.

If these do not crop up naturally, they can often be contrived, realistically, in the classroom

- c The fact that situations combined with language recurred often enough for the youngster to learn his English. This too can be achieved to a large extent in the classroom.

One big difference between learning a first and learning a second language is that the former is an unplanned process and the second is planned. By careful planning we can arrange:

- i that the events and activities we want do take place.
- ii that each of the second language learners gets a great deal of experience of the language in the context of these events (or surroundings) in a *much shorter time* than the first language learners.

For the first of these, we must create the necessary situations. For the second, the use of various forms of 'substitution drill' can provide very quickly the necessary experience of using language items. The aim of the rest of this booklet is to suggest how these two things can be done.

1.5 *Summary*

- 1 Young children learn the meanings of their first languages through situations.
- 2 A situation is a set of circumstances some aspects of which have meaning or interest for the children, and are accompanied by language. We will call these meaningful aspects *significant features*.
- 3 Through situations the young children learn pronunciation, grammatical patterns, vocabulary and other forms of language behaviour.
- 4 Children learning their first language enjoy some important aids which we cannot provide when they learn a second language.
- 5 By planning, however, we can teach meaning through situations; and by using substitution drills we can provide plenty of active experience of the language items in a short time.

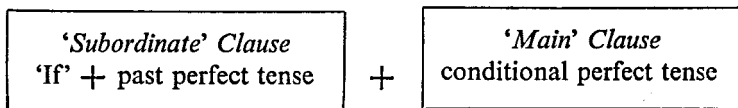
2 Two Examples

2.1 In this chapter we are going to look at two detailed examples of teaching through situations. A situation may be:

- a Quite elaborate, or very simple.
- b 'Real'—i.e. one which we could expect to happen in a classroom in the ordinary course of daily events—or 'artificial'. But 'artificial' is not the same as 'unrealistic' and we shall call a situation created artificially but *realistically* a *contrived situation*. Contrived situations will normally be the most common for language teaching purposes.
- c Carefully prepared beforehand, or contrived on the spur of the moment to deal with a difficulty that has cropped up unexpectedly. We shall call this type an *improvised situation*.

2.2 But first, how can we be sure that each situation, which is to give the language its meaning, is clearly understood by the children we are teaching? Mainly in two ways: They must be able to *see* it, or *hear* it, or both together. Occasionally they may be able to *feel* it, with their fingers, hands and so on, or even *smell* it or *taste* it. So we must show, or demonstrate, to the children the significant features of the situation, *if this is possible*. If demonstration is not possible, we must do our best to make the situation clear by using very simple language which the children have learnt earlier. But we must remember that they will not be able to understand if we describe the meaning of new words and sentences in terms which are not known to them or which are more difficult than what we are trying to teach. Another way to show meaning is by showing the equivalent in the children's first language—what we call translation. This is often the quickest way of dealing with certain vocabulary items, e.g. 'elephant', 'lion', etc., when the word in the mother tongue has only one reference, which is exactly the same as in the second language. But in many other cases, where these conditions do not exist, translation is so difficult and often so misleading that it is better to use the *first* language only as a help to make sure the children know what we want them to do in a particular situation, if this is necessary.

- 2.3 We have recommended in 2.2 above that teaching meaning by situation should be by
- a visual demonstration. This may be without language, in the form of *mime*, or to supplement the piece of language we wish to introduce.
 - b by circumlocutions, using other language devices to show the situation in which the new word or sentence has meaning.
- These two ways of teaching are sometimes loosely called *situational* and *contextual* respectively, and quite often both are used together.
- 2.4 There now follow two examples. The first is an example of a fairly elaborate situation contrived to help the teaching of a difficult example of sentence structure. The example is that of a conditional sentence which is used to refer to something which might have happened in the past, but which did *not* happen. Its structure consists of two elements:



e.g. 'If he had read the paper, he would have seen the news.' Let us now consider what we need to think about in preparing to teach this structure.

- 2.5 First, we have to consider whether there are any variations on this structure. Then we have to consider whether any such variations should be kept out of the teaching until the class has mastered the basic pattern. Then we have to consider the significant features of the situations in which the structure is used. Then we have to think of a suitable situation which we can contrive in the classroom. Let us take each of these points in turn.
- 2.6 *Variations*
- Yes, there are quite a few. For instance, the meaning conveyed can be altered in various ways by the inclusion of negatives. Our basic example, the one we are going to teach, is 'If he had read the paper, he would have seen the news.' Although the verb in each clause is affirmative the structure carries a negative implication: he did *not* read the paper; he did *not* see the news. Now, let us compare with this some of the possible variations of the basic structure, e.g.

'Unless he had read the paper, he would not have seen the news.'
'If he had not read the paper, he would not have seen the news.'
'If he had not read the paper, he would have missed the news.'
'Unless he had read the paper, he would have missed the news.'
'If he had read the paper, he would not have missed the news.'

Only the last of these five sentences has the same meaning as our basic example, based on the idea of something *not* happening 'Did he read the paper?' 'No, he didn't.' 'Did he see the news?' 'No, he didn't.' But the rest of the sentences above, the first four, have the opposite implication that he *did* read the paper and he *did* see the news. And we could add a number of other possible variations, too.

We know from experience that one of the biggest difficulties of this structure for learners is for them to be sure whether it conveys a positive or negative idea. Obviously, if we allowed any of the variations to come into the initial teaching of it, we should almost certainly be creating confusion—something we *must* avoid. So, our first decision is:

WE MUST LIMIT OUR EARLY EXAMPLES OF THE STRUCTURE
TO THE BASIC PATTERN AS GIVEN IN 2.4.

2.7 *Significant Features*

The essential feature is that something might have happened in the past as the result of something else, but it did *not* happen, because the 'something else' did not happen. Clearly, we must have a classroom situation in which this feature is obvious to everyone. So, our second decision is:

IN THE SITUATION WE CONTRIVE, EVERY PUPIL MUST BE
ABLE TO SEE THAT SOMETHING HAS **not** HAPPENED

2.8 *Suitable Situations*

If the pupil is to realise at once that something has not happened, then the situation must be based on something that he is very familiar with. Common experiences in school or in everyday life would be suitable. So, our third decision is:

WE WILL USE SIMPLE ARITHMETIC AND SHOPPING FOR
OUR SITUATIONS.

2.9 Now we can consider what form the lesson will take. Perhaps a straightforward account might be more interesting than a formal lesson plan.

The teacher begins by putting on the board a simple sum, e.g.

$$\begin{array}{r} 22 \\ 22 \\ \hline \\ \hline \end{array}$$

He works the sum and deliberately makes a mistake, getting an answer of, say, 45, instead of 44. Probably some pupils will point this out straight away. If not, he can ask, 'Is this the right answer?' In either case, we have something on the board, visible to all, in which it is clear that something has not happened – the sum has not been worked correctly. This gives the teacher the chance to say:

'If I had added the figures correctly, I would have got the right answer.'

He can repeat this once or twice, and then ask:

'Did I get the right answer?'

'Did I add the figures correctly?'

He can reasonably expect to get the answer 'No' to both these questions – the class can *see* that the answer must be 'No'. He can thus establish the negative character of the structure. Later, at intervals through the lesson, he will ask further questions similar to these, to reinforce this essential learning point.

But so far, the class has only *listened* to the structure. No one has had a chance of saying it, and it is essential that by the end of the lesson each pupil shall have *said* a correct sentence of this type at least ten times. So he has to get the class talking. He could, of course, ask pupils to repeat what he has said, but this would be to create a *wrong* situation. It is not the pupil who has made the mistake, so the pupil should not say, 'If *I* . . .'. So the pronoun must be changed to 'you' when the pupil is speaking to the teacher. (One way of ensuring this would be to write the sentence on the board, then rub out the two 'I's', and then write in 'you'. The danger about this is that the pupils may tend to *read* from the board instead of speaking. A compromise might be to leave the sentence on the board while one or two pupils speak, and then rub it off.)

Perhaps five or six pupils might now say (to the teacher):

'If you had added the figures correctly, you would have got the right answer.'

But still, only a few have spoken, and the majority have only *heard* the structure used. So the teacher now arranges for 'he' (or 'she', of

course) to be substituted for 'you'. Now the sentence is appropriate for the situation in which any pupil is talking about the teacher's mistake to any other pupil. So the teacher can now ask A to speak to B, B to speak to C, C to D, and so on.

Once the class has got the idea of listening to a neighbour say the sentence and then saying it to another neighbour, the teacher can ensure that everyone speaks. He can have the sentence spoken around groups, or from front to back of rows of desks, or across the room in other rows. Each pupil faces the one he is speaking to, and should not be reading off the board. The teacher will be walking round the room, listening, correcting, asking for further repeats, and so on. And, of course, at frequent intervals, he will stop to ask:

'Did I add the figures correctly?'

'Did I get the right answer?'

driving home the point of the negative implication of the structure. So far the lesson is still in its beginnings, but he can already be sure that every pupil has heard the structure frequently and has used it at least, say, two or three times. Moreover, its negative undertone has been strongly stressed. Now he wants to use it in another situation which will give more opportunities for practice.

To do this, he uses a simple dialogue, based on a shopping incident. This can either have been prepared beforehand and rehearsed with two or three pupils, or it can be developed in class at the time. The dialogue might be:

a 'Good morning. I'd like a box of matches, please.'

b 'Here they are.'

a 'Thank you. How much are they?'

b 'Fourpence.'

a 'Eh! I've only got threepence.'

c (or teacher). 'If he had had more money, he would have bought the matches.'

This is practised a few times, first by the class in unison, then perhaps with different sets of speakers, until the class is familiar with it and familiar especially, of course, with what is said by C.

Now the teacher can use this sentence as a base to construct a substitution table. He begins by putting up the base sentence: 'If he had had more money, he would have bought the matches.' (He might well take the opportunity at this stage to ask some more reinforcing questions:- Did he have enough money? How much money did he have? How much did he need? Did he buy the

matches?*" and so on. He builds up the substitution table one part at a time. For instance, he might refer back to the names of the pupils who played the parts of the shoppers, then he can put these names into the first subject column of the table:

If	Akin John he Shehu Chukwu	had had more money, he would have bought the matches.
----	---------------------------------------	-------------------------------------------------------

(With a mixed class, of course, he would have to include a girl's name in the IF—clause and 'she' in the main clause). The teacher makes sure that all the five possibilities in this subject column are used. Otherwise the class will probably limit themselves to only one or two. Now he starts to build up another column—probably for the complement in the main clause. He suggests items, and asks for others from the class. Some of these may have to be shortened a little to get them on the board. Soon the table looks like this:

If	Akin John he Shehu Chukwu	had had more money, he would have bought the	ticket. book. matches. pen. shirt.
----	---------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------

Again he makes sure that the class understands that any combination of alternatives is possible—pointing may help at first.

Class chorus work can give a great deal of practice at this stage, before going on to group work. The teacher can give 'cue words' (this technique is described again in 3.4) and the class responds, e.g.

*One question he would not ask is "if he had had fourpence would he have bought the matches?" Because if the pupils are learning these sentences for the first time, it is unlikely that they would be able to handle their question forms.

Teacher: Akin, ticket

Class: If Akin had had more money, he would have bought the ticket.

Teacher: he, shirt

Class: If he had had more money, he would have bought the shirt.

And so on.

Other columns of the table are built up in the same way, until the teacher finally gets something like this:

If	Akin John he Shehu Chukwu	had had	enough more a little more some	money, he would have bought
----	---------------------------------------	---------	-----------------------------------------	--------------------------------

the that	ticket. book. pen. shirt.
those the	matches. stamps. yams. oranges.

Provided that the pupils know they must not cross over the horizontal line, this table will yield 320 sentences ($20 \times 2 \times 4$ plus $20 \times 2 \times 4$), all of which are different, but all of which carry examples of the same sentence pattern. Now the teacher divides the class into groups for further oral practice. With five groups of six or seven, he can be sure that in three or four minutes each pupil will have something up to ten chances to speak one of the sentences from the table. The group leaders, of course, are in charge of the practice, but the teacher moves round helping and correcting as before. If he wishes to multiply the chances even more, he can arrange for the class to work in pairs.

After this, he still has time to:

- a Ask the class to write five or more sentences from the table.
- b Ask questions to test how far the overall meaning of the structure has been absorbed e.g. If I had caught the train, I would have gone to Lagos. Did I go to Lagos? If Joseph had practised more, he would have played football for the school. Is he in the school team? If there had been any water, I would have washed my face. Is my face still dirty?

2.10 What will have happened by the end of the lesson?

- a Each pupil will have heard the structure *used in a clear and relevant situation*.
- b Each pupil will have gone some way – probably a long way – towards *absorbing the meaning of the structure*.
- c Each pupil will have *heard* two or three hundred examples of the structure.
- c Each pupil will have *spoken* a number of examples of the structure – 10 to 15, at least.
- e Each pupil will have *written* at least 5 examples of the structure.
- f Each pupil will have answered ‘No’ to frequent reinforcing questions. Remember, we are limiting our examples at this stage to the basic pattern as given in 2.4. When later on the teacher introduces the variations listed in 2.6 it will be necessary for him to choose carefully in advance the questions he is going to ask, and to make sure they are the right ones – in most cases they will require the answer ‘Yes’, but if he uses the verb ‘miss’ instead of ‘read’ the required answer will probably be ‘No’!

In other words, each pupil learning English as a second language will have compressed into 30 to 40 minutes the practice which the native-speaking learner might well spread over a very long stretch of time.

2.11 A few points need to be made before we finish with this example:

- a The table was built up column by column. This is often better than putting a complete table on the board.
- b It is much safer to construct a table on this principle – unacceptable sentences become much less likely.
- c There is bound to be some noise during the oral practice. There is no need to get worried about this. Efficient language teaching *demands* noise fairly often – it is an essential, not an unwanted

by-product. But a good teacher can keep it within reasonable limits.

- d* We must avoid the temptation of thinking that because the class has had so much practice, the item has been learnt. Further practice, for short periods at frequent intervals, must take place for a week or so after the initial presentation, in order to fix this new piece of knowledge. It is the same principle one uses in learning to drive a car or ride a bicycle—‘a little and often’.

2.12 In Section 2.9 we had a detailed account of teaching an item, an essential item, through a situation. A whole lesson and more, careful planning, blackboard work, acting— all these were required. Now, for contrast, here is an example of an improvised situation using the contextual device mentioned earlier. It deals with a much less vital point, which the teacher did not know would come up in class.

2.13 A pupil reads the sentence, ‘The robber was desperate: what could he do?’, and says that he does not know what ‘desperate’ means. The teacher could refer him to a dictionary but, being a skilled teacher, he knows that dictionaries are of much less value in teaching meaning than many people think they are. They are much more sensibly used to consolidate understanding of a word that the learner has already got some grasp of. So the teacher says:

Imagine this. At 10 o’clock the hospital at Ibadan telephones to a man at Ife. His brother has been badly hurt and is not expected to live longer than midday. The man sets off in a taxi. It breaks down 20 miles from Ibadan. All passing vehicles refuse to stop. He is now without hope of getting to Ibadan in time. How would he feel? Yes, he would be desperate.

Notice that again we have contrived a situation. It is not a real one, but it is one that the learner can easily imagine. It is one that he can easily enter into. He is likely to get a much more vivid— and accurate— awareness of the meaning than if he had merely read a few words in a dictionary.

3 Substitution Drills

3.1 In the last chapter, we saw how a substitution table was built up from a base sentence. This chapter will give more details about constructing and using such tables, and will also deal with other kinds of substitution drill.

3.2 Substitution tables are an invaluable tool for teaching a second language because they provide plenty of controlled practice material in an economical way. They are *not*—as some people have taken them to be—the whole answer to language teaching. They are one among a number of tools, but a very useful one.

a Construction

- 1 Be quite sure what item you want the table to give practice in.
- 2 Design it to deal with that one item.
- 3 If possible, bring in for further practice other items, especially vocabulary, that you have been teaching previously. It is often a good idea not to draw attention to this.
- 4 Make very sure that all the alternatives in each column can combine with each of the alternatives in the other columns.
- 5 Build up the table column by column rather than by writing whole sentences across the column.

b Use

- 1 Remember that dividing a class into groups always multiplies opportunities of *using* the item being taught. So, whenever possible, go as quickly as you can from using the table with the whole class to using it with groups.
- 2 Make sure that each pupil gets plenty of chances to speak sentences from the table. Time must not be wasted. Therefore, do *not* let pupils stand up before speaking.
- 3 Try to speed up responses as much as possible—when a class has got used to using tables, encourage the speakers to make rapid selections from each column so as to get almost automatic responses.
- 4 Remember to use the tables for written work as well.
- 5 Try to vary the ways in which the tables are used. e.g.:
 - i* After a table has been used two or three times, cover it

up and get the class to go on producing sentences from it.

- ii Give, and get the class to give, further items to fit in a table they are already using.
- iii Use the tables for games. Have competitions between groups or between individuals, with points lost for, for instance, saying a sentence that has already been said by one of the other team.
- iv With a good class, give a base sentence and some items for the columns, and have them write their own tables.
- v Whenever possible, use the material in two tables, one for questions and one for answers. (But, for this, questions and answers will each have had to be taught separately at an earlier stage, and do not forget that answer forms are not the same thing as statement forms.) Then try to get rapid-fire question and answer going between groups or individuals.

6 Do not let the class go on too long using a table without reminding them in some way or other of the *situation* from which the practice started.

7 Do not use a table for too long in any one lesson. Some authors have suggested about 20 minutes. This is probably too long. 15-20 minutes would be all right for the first use, but only 3-5 should normally be allowed for subsequent uses.

(N.B. If you write the tables on card with a thick felt-tip pen, it is much easier to bring them back for the short doses of 'little and often' practice.)

3.3 The principle of substitution within a constant 'frame' can also be applied in other ways. Some of these are described in the following sections.

3.4 'Cue Drills'

In this type of drill, the teacher supplies a series of words or phrases, each of which can be fitted into the frame.

Here is a simple example, designed to give practice in a pronunciation feature, the reduction of the vowel sound in the unstressed syllable 'n't' in 'isn't'.

Frame: This isn't.

Cues: right, sensible, mine, yours, etc.

the best one, the right way, yours or mine, a new one, today's

paper, the right answer, etc.

the book I wanted, the one he suggested, the time to go, the bus to catch, the best you can find, the story she told me, etc.

(Notice the increasing complexity of the cues at each level.)

It is often possible to start with cues for one 'slot' in the frame, and then go on to giving cues for two slots at the same time. e.g. To give practice in 'What kind of (a) . . .' and the 'going to' form of the future:

Frame (1st stage): What kind of (a) . . . is he going to buy?

Cues (1st stage): house, car, shirt, motorbike, suit-case, typewriter, etc.

Frame (2nd stage): What kind of (a) . . . is he going to . . . ?

Cues (2nd stage): job/do, song/sing, shop/open, book/write, party/give, speech/make, etc.

When the frame is a question, it is nearly always best to have a second frame for the answer. This is a more real situation—questions usually are answered in real life—and it enables two pupils or two groups to take part together. e.g., the examples just given could be expanded to:

Question Frame (1st): What kind of (a) . . . is he going to buy?

Question Cues (1st): house, car, shirt, motorbike, suit-case, typewriter, etc.

Answer Frame (1st): A one.

Answer Cues (1st): new, second-hand, nylon, 150 c.c., leather, portable, etc.

Question Frame (2nd): What kind of (a) . . . is he going to . . . ?

Question Cues (2nd): job/do, song/sing, shop/open, book/write, party/give, speech/make, etc.

Answer Frame (2nd): A I think.

Answer Cues (2nd): technical one, dreary one, radio and TV shop, novel, very gay one, boring one, etc.

This frame could be adapted to practise, for instance, the pattern 'What kind of (shoes) is he (wearing)?' Here there is no option, the frame must omit the article, and we have such cues as (shoes/wearing), vegetables/cooking, trousers/wearing, socks/darning, seeds/sowing, etc.

Probably many teachers would be able to work out further variations on this type of drill, but one particular use of it needs to

be mentioned specifically. This is the recording of the frames and the cues on tape. If pauses are left for the class to respond—as in language laboratory programmes—the tape recorder can supply the basis of the drill while the teacher is left free to work more closely with groups or with individual pupils.

3.5 *Conversion Drills*

One form of this type, involving the conversion of affirmative statements, negative statements and questions into either of the other two forms, is fairly well known. Too often, however, it takes the form of a written exercise in which the conversion is all of the same kind, and the resulting work can be rather dull.

There are at least two ways of enlivening this work; both of them, by demanding a little more of the pupil, present more of a challenge. They are:

- a* To combine conversion drills with cue drills, i.e. the pupil has both to fit the cue into the frame and convert the frame to one of the other two forms. e.g.

Frame: There's aat.

Cue: railway station/Zaria.

Conversion: Is there a railway station at Zaria?

Cue: airport/Asaba.

Conversion: Is there an airport at Asaba?

(Note: this kind of frame is especially useful for practising a distinction which is commonly confused—'many' and 'much' are frequent in negative sentences, but much rarer in affirmative ones.)

- b* To use a set of three flash-cards: one with a plus sign, one with a minus sign, and one with a question mark. The sentence to be converted is given in full or as a frame with a cue, and then one of the cards is shown to indicate the type of conversion required. The plus sign calls for an affirmative sentence, the minus sign for a negative sentence, and the question mark for an interrogative one. As with so many substitution drills, the teacher starts off slowly but aims at increasing the speed of a response as much as possible.

- 3.6 One other common form of conversion drill—direct to indirect speech and vice versa—needs to be handled rather cautiously. In a drill it is only too easy to apply 'rules' which may not be suitable to the situation, and in indirect speech conversions there is this danger.

Suppose we have a drill which goes something like this:

Pupil A: I'm going to clean the blackboard.

Pupil B: What did he say?

Pupil C: He said he was going to clean the blackboard.

Here, the 'rule' of changing a present to a past tense has been applied. But if A has not yet cleaned the blackboard, his action is still in the future. Therefore, 'is going' would be at least as appropriate for pupil C as 'was going'. One useful way of avoiding this danger is to have a clock face and a calendar as visual aids to indicate the time factors in the situation.

For example, the teacher might put on a simple demonstration, probably prepared beforehand with David's help, something like this:

Deliberately exaggerating his actions, the teacher sets the hands of the cardboard clock face at, say, half past eight, and makes sure that the class can see the date on the calendar, the twenty-first of March for example. Then. . . .

Teacher (to class): Today is the 21st of March. The time is half past eight.

David: I am going to open the window at ten to nine.

Teacher: David said he is going to open the window at ten to nine. (*Moves the clock hands to twenty to nine*). It is twenty to nine. David said he is going to open the window at ten to nine. (*Moves the clock hands to a quarter to nine*). It is now a quarter to nine. He said he is going to open the window at ten to. (*Moves the clock hands to nine o'clock*). It is now nine o'clock. He said he was going to open the window at ten to nine.

The class can now be taken through the situations again, with the teacher asking the appropriate questions and varying the clock hands to elicit responses contrasting 'is going to' and 'was going to'. 'Open the window' can be substituted by a selection of alternatives to keep the interest going: 'shut his book', 'get ready for the next class', 'collect the books', and so on.

Reference to a calendar enables us to deal with longer lapses of time within a single lesson. It is, of course, necessary to have the co-operation of the class; they must be willing to accept and involve

themselves in the pretence that tearing or crossing off a date on the calendar marks the passing of a day. The situation used above may now be represented in terms of days rather than hours, as follows:

Teacher: (pointing to the calendar): Today is the twenty-first of March. (Sets the clock face) The time is nine o'clock.

David: I'm going to collect the homework at ten to nine tomorrow.

Teacher (to Akpan): What did David say?

Akpan: He said he is going to collect the homework at ten to nine tomorrow.

(The teacher, or one of the pupils, now goes to the calendar and tears off the top page, so that it shows 22nd March. He also moves the clock hands to show half past eight).

Teacher: It is now the twenty-second of March. The time is half past eight. On the twenty-first of March (yesterday) David said he is going to collect the homework at ten to nine today.

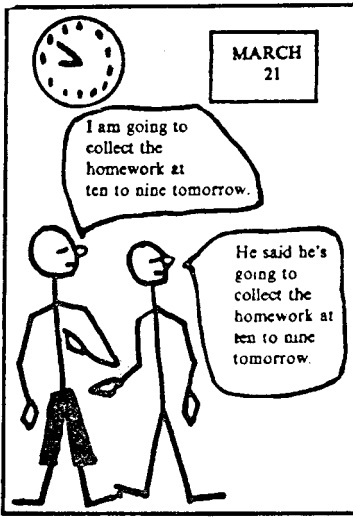
(The class may now be asked to practise this, in chorus and in groups or individually).

(Somebody now sets the clock hands at nine o'clock).

Teacher: Now it is nine o'clock. David said yesterday he was going to collect the homework at ten to nine today (ten minutes ago).

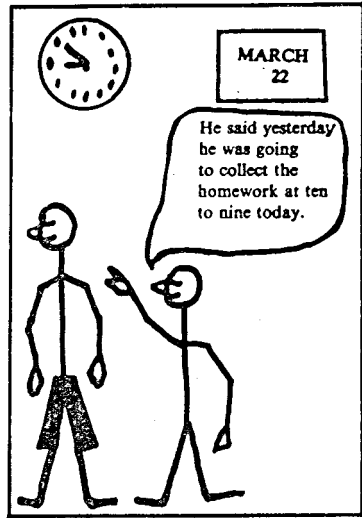
At this stage the class may again be asked to practise this. The way is now open for them to report the same original statement, using either the present or the past progressive form according to the time and date selected by one of the pupils in charge of the clock face and the calendar.

After a number of 'live' practice sessions like these, situations could be transferred to the blackboard in simple picture form, thus:



DAVID

AKPAN



DAVID

AKPAN

Such pictures have several uses: the 'actors' in the classroom situation can see at a glance what part they are required to play in the situation; they are a convenient summary, in a fixed form, of a 'live' situation which has occurred but can no longer be seen and heard; they can be used with the reported speech balloons left blank for the class to supply the appropriate version. After a little practice, both teacher and pupils can become quite adept at drawing rapid sketches of this kind.

3.7 'Skeleton' Questions

These can be used for practising such things as tense forms, question patterns, question words, etc., but their main use is probably in consolidating the learner's mastery of useful vocabulary items. They are intended to assist with the problem described in the next paragraph.

We often come across useful vocabulary items. But the normal process of reading plus explanation is not really enough to 'fix' the item. Even if a situational approach is used (as in Section 2.8), the learner's experience of the item is still only passive—he has not used it himself. But few teachers have time to work out special exercises, and the textbook is sometimes not uniformly helpful. However, if the class has some kind of 'permanent exercise' in which the items can be used, a lot of time can be saved. If each pupil starts off the year with a set of a hundred or so carefully chosen skeleton questions,

then he has a permanent framework for the exercise he needs.

Here are some examples of such questions:

- 1 Hasn't David. ?
- 2 Can you. ?
- 3 When will Adeoye. ?
- 4 Didn't you. ?
- 5 Which. was. ?
- 6 Ought. to be. ?
- 7 What did she say she. ?
- 8 When are. going to be. ?
- 9 Where will they. ?
- 10 Why is she. ?

Now, if the class has just met, say, a compound verb such as 'take over' (in the sense of taking over responsibility for something), all the teacher needs to do is to give the numbers which he wants used for this item. E.g., in the list above, he might choose Nos. 1,2,7,8,10. Then, he can spend a short time discussing with the class some of the possible ways of completing the questions, with their responses, so that the work is not merely mechanical filling in of blanks but related to realistic situations. As the year progresses he can gradually withdraw, leaving the pupils to their own composition, but making himself available to answer questions and supervise their efforts. A pupil's written work might then begin to look something like this:

- 1 'Hasn't David taken over as editor of the magazine yet?'
'No, not yet. He has to wait for last year's editor to hand over first.'
- 2 'Can you take over this job for me?' 'I'm afraid I can't; I'm far too busy to take on any more work.'
- 7 'What did she say she took over?' 'The accounts section.'
- 8 'When are the premises going to be taken over by the new tenants?' 'They won't take them over until the telephone is installed.'
- 10 'Why is she taking over?' 'The manager is ill, and she is the only one qualified to do his work.'

Notice that the skeleton questions have been selected from the list in such a way that several different forms of the item 'take over' have had to be used.

It is possible, of course, to use such questions only for oral practice,

but with a full class this can be rather slow, and may limit the practice to only one or two pupils at a time. A well trained class can use such material in groups, but this approach might not be very effective with an inexperienced one. Of course, though the work above has been written, it is a representation of speech as it occurred during the preliminary oral discussion. Finally, as experienced teachers will realise, written work of the type above should always be checked for mistakes, and credit should be given for work done satisfactorily.

3.8 *Longer Tables*

These are used mainly for written work. They can be of two kinds:

a Those in which all alternatives can be used in combination with each of the other alternatives,

e.g. To practise the use of the present simple tense for habitual actions :

Every	day, morning,	when	George Akpan my father his brother he	gets	up, out of bed,
-------	----------------------	------	---------------------------------------------------	------	------------------------

he has a	bath wash	and then puts on his	trousers. clothes. clean robe.
----------	------------------	----------------------	--------------------------------------

If he	has time is early	he
-------	--------------------------	----------

Because we should like to give guided practice also in using other forms—femine singular, plural—we can construct a slightly more complicated table, as follows:

Every	day, morning,	when	George he	gets	up, out of bed,
			Bisi she		
			my friends they	get	

he	has	a	bath wash	and then	puts	on	his his	clothes,
she					put		her	
they	have				their			

If	he	has	time	he
	she			she	
	they	have		they	

The horizontal guide lines in some of the columns are really showing that there are three tables combined into one, but if the pupils do not cross these lines they will not make mistakes.

b Those in which, because the results would not necessarily make sense, not all alternatives can be combined together, e.g. To practise the use of 'ought to have

Mary Ibrahim	was very	ill naughty lazy	last week. yesterday. a few days ago.
-----------------------------------	----------	------------------------	---------------------------------------------

He She	ought to have	worked harder, seen a doctor, apologized, gone to hospital,			but
		behaved	herself himself	better,	

she he	is	rather very	stubborn	and refused to	go. do so. do any work at all.
-----------	----	----------------	----------	----------------	--------------------------------------

I think	we one of us		friends	ought to have
	his			
	her			

A few points need to be mentioned:

- i A pupil ought to write more than one paragraph from such tables.
- ii Stencilled copies make their use much easier.
- iii If the stencilled copies are available, it is then much easier for their use to be fitted in as *one* activity (5-10 minutes) in a lesson. This is preferable to using them throughout a whole lesson.

3.9 What has been said about situation in 3.7 applies no less to all types of substitution table. The teacher should fit them into the classroom situation—either he makes up the table with the class, step by step, as part of the oral preparation, or he uses a ready-made table from his course book, and in whatever way is most suitable (by miming, class discussion, etc.) he creates a situation in which the table becomes relevant.

4 Equipment and Suggestions

- 4.1 There are a number of useful pieces of apparatus which can be used to contrive situations. Most of these can be 'home-made', or obtained cheaply or for nothing.
- a A big, clear calendar which can be seen from all over the room.
 - b A big, clear clock face with movable hands. This can be made of card pinned on softboard.
 - c Timetables. e.g. airline timetables—obtainable free from many airline offices. These are useful for teaching structures consisting of 'for . . .', '. . . ago', 'since . . .', 'by' with expressions of time; future perfect tenses; etc.
 - d Card or thick paper and felt-tip pens. These are specially useful for substitution tables—see Section 3.2(b)7. If felt-tip pens are too expensive, consult chapter 5 ('Tools and Materials') of 'Art for Nigerian Children', included in the Appendix.
 - e Large, but preferably not detailed, wall pictures. Airlines, railways, shipping companies, embassies and large firms are useful sources.
 - f Stick figures—to be drawn, not obtained. These are a most valuable way of creating a visual situation on the blackboard. No special artistic skill is required, just some chalk and a little practice. Examples of actions which can be shown by stick figures are:



walking



running



pounding



kicking a ball



reading a paper



surprise



sadness



thinking



pleased

A girl can be shown merely by adding a triangle to represent a skirt, as well as in other ways. Movement can be shown by rubbing something out and drawing it in again at another place—e.g. the ball in the kicking figure above. Group leaders can copy the figures on paper, which can then be put flat on a desk for group work. If movement has been shown, the group can show it in a better way—by using objects drawn and then torn or cut from paper, and then actually moving them on the flat surface.

- g Flannelgraphs. These are very useful for the same purposes as the stick figures, but they require more preparation and are less easy to adapt to group work.
- h 'Things'. A collection of costless objects built up by the class and the teacher can be very useful. Such things as: empty cigarette packets, collections of pictures of similar things cut from magazines, bits of string, pieces of used paper (for folding, cutting etc.), used envelopes and stamps, and so on.

4.2 The following sections give brief suggestions as to how to create situations which help in teaching some items known to be learning problems. For this we must concentrate on the significant features, those limited aspects of the situation which give to the examples the meanings we wish to be understood.

4.3 *Tenses:*

a **Present Perfect—have/has—past participle.**

Meaning: from the speaker's point of view, which is *now*, an activity (or situation), usually originating in his past time, is either (i) completed, or (ii) continuing, or (iii) otherwise relevant considered as a matter of fact without reference to its time of occurrence in the past.

Contexts: these three categories may be broken down as follows:

- i I started writing at 8 o'clock.
I am not writing now.
I have stopped writing.
- ii I came here in 1960.
I am still here.
I have lived here since 1960.
- iii Before he retired he travelled in every continent.
He knows lots of countries.
He will not go overseas again now, but he has travelled widely.

1 Since this 'tense' deals with situations from the point of view of 'now', it is important for teachers to make full use of appropriate time words. If students have learnt the use of the simple past tense we can establish a situation which requires the present perfect for the meaning we want to teach, and then reinforce it by contrast with the simple past. E.g.,

<i>Situation</i>	<i>Speech</i>
Teacher holds up piece of chalk.	Look, here's a piece of chalk.
A. He drops it.	Now I've dropped it.
B. Chalk on floor.	Now it's on the floor.
C. He picks it up.	Now I've picked it up.
D. Chalk in his hand.	Is it on the floor now? I dropped it just now, but now I've picked it up. I dropped it a few minutes ago, but now it's not on the floor, (because) I've picked it up. It's in my hand.

The key to situations of the kind above is as follows:

Stage 1. The teacher demonstrates an action (A) which ends in a situation (B) which everyone can see. While B is visible A is expressed as a present perfect.

Stage 2. A new action (C) is then performed to change situation B into a different one (D). Since B does not now exist (it cannot be seen) A is expressed as a simple past tense. But, on the other hand, situation C may now be expressed as a present perfect.

Let us see how this key works in another quite simple classroom demonstration.

Stage 1. Teacher (to David): Please come and open this drawer. (David does so).

Is the drawer open now? Yes, it is. David has opened the drawer. The class may now be asked to repeat the sentence, looking at the open drawer.

Stage 2. Teacher (to Akpan): Will you please come and shut the drawer? (Akpan does so).

Thank you. Now, boys, is the drawer shut? Yes, it is shut. Akpan has shut it. David opened it just now, but Akpan has just shut it.

Once the class have got the idea, there is plenty of scope for interesting practice in similar situations, opening and shutting doors, windows, books, desks and so on. Actions can also be changed, gradually, with growing fluency, and the teacher may substitute coming in, going out, sitting down, standing up, putting hands up or down and many other visible activities. He can use groups. He can try stick figures drawn on the board, with the object in the hand, in mid-air, on the floor, and in the hand again.

2 Another way to reinforce the present perfect is by contrast with the present continuous. Have a pupil perform an action which lasts for a short time—e.g. cleaning the blackboard. Arrange for the class to say, and to continue saying, ‘He’s cleaning it, he’s cleaning it, he’s cleaning it . . .’ until he finishes the job and stops. Then they change at once to ‘He’s finished/cleaned it.’

b Past Perfect—had + past participle

Meaning: the action happened before another past event or place to which reference is specified or implied.

Context:

He went to bed at 10 o’clock last night.

I got home at 11 o’clock.

He had gone to bed when I got home.

Act two dialogues, such as:

Frank (calling at a friend’s house): *Good afternoon, Mrs Akinyemi. Is Bola in?*

Mrs Akinyemi: I’m afraid he isn’t. He went *to the cinema* ten minutes ago.

Frank: Thank you. I’ll see if I can find him. Goodbye.

Frank then goes across the room to talk to another pupil. A time interval between these two conversations could be indicated on the clock face.

Tunde: Did you see Bola?

Frank: No. He had already gone out *to the cinema* when I got there.

Have this repeated a few times, building up the substitutions for the underlined items, thus:

Akinyemi, Bola—other names.

to the cinema—to . . . 's house, to the post office, shopping, to school, etc.

got there—went to his house, called on him, etc.

Put the frame of the second dialogue on the board with lists of substitutes, for group practice.

- c Future perfect—will/shall have + past participle.

Meaning: the completion of an action at one point of time in the future with reference to another future point of time which is farther off.

Context: The 12th will be Saturday.

I will finish on Friday the 11th.

I will have finished on/by/before Saturday.

We can refer to airline or rail timetables to practise sentences like:

Flight WT 000 leaves Lagos at 1000 hours on Saturday.

Flight WT 111 leaves Lagos at 2300 hours on Saturday.

When Flight 111 arrives at London (at 0655 hours on Sunday) the passengers on Flight WT 000 will have landed/will have spent a night there/will have had time to get to their homes/will have been there for nearly 15 hours.

Substitutions can be worked out from the flight times of different pairs of aircraft.

(If we prefer we can convert the 24 hour clock to the 12 hour one; in any case we could use the class clock face.) Then we can go on to movements, and actions of people within a sentence frame by removing the references to aircraft in the sentences above.

4.4 *Conditional Sentences.*

- a See Section 2.4-9.

- b **If + simple present + future tense.**

Meaning: there is a choice which is open in future time; the option may go either way so: the result is uncertain.

Context:

Perhaps he'll come to my house tomorrow.

Perhaps he won't.

I don't know.

If he comes to my house tomorrow I'll speak to him.

Set up a situation in which one pupil goes out to the room while

the rest of the class (and later, of the group) arrange something about which he has to make a choice when he comes back. (e.g. choosing which of three or four envelopes contains a stamp). Then, while he is out of the room, use such sentence patterns as:

If he chooses the first one, he will be right/find the stamp.

If he chooses/the other ones/one of the others, he/will be wrong/won't find the stamp.

Provide substitutions by varying the activity and working in groups.

c If + past simple + conditional

Meaning: like the open condition in type (b) above this structure refers to the future fulfilment of the condition. The difference is that this type carries an implication about the *likelihood* of its fulfilment. Because it is commonly used to refer to an *unlikely* possibility, as distinct from the open possibility of type (b) above, it is often described as an 'improbable' condition.

Context: *

Does he know the answer?

Will he tell you?

Perhaps, but it is not likely.

If he knew the answer he would tell you.

To teach this meaning of the structure ask a question which you know will get a negative answer, e.g.

Shehu, are you going to Lagos next month?

No, sir, I don't expect so/etc.

Then say:

**Note:* When he presents structures for the first time it is an important part of the teacher's job to select contexts which are easy for the class to understand. Not all occurrences of the structure we have just discussed, however, are so easy to deal with. Compare, for example,

If I had £500 I would buy that car.

If he were my father I would ask him.

which seem to refer much more to impossible than to improbable fulfilment of the context. Similarly, we need to know exactly what is at the back of the speaker's mind before we can say with any certainty that sentences such as the following refer to circumstances unlikely to be realised:

If you went to Tarkwa Bay you would enjoy it.

It would be better if you came with me.

You would get to the airport quicker if you took the Agege motor road. The structure seems to involve situations which vary from impossibility, through improbability, to some probability. The teacher should therefore note the full context in which it occurs, so as to bring out all the relevant features in the classroom.

If he went to Lagos, he would/go by air/see the port/stay with his uncle, etc.

Substitutions can be derived from varying the original question and from using different possible results of the improbable action. Alternatively, the teacher could vary the situation for type (b) above so as to make the choice of the right envelope unlikely, e.g. by putting the envelope containing the stamp into a drawer. The sentence required would then be:

If he chose the envelope in the drawer, he would /be right/ find the stamp/etc.

4.5 *Time Expressions.*

See 4.1(a)-(c) and 4.3(c). A combined use of the clock face and a timetable can lead to sentences such as:

It is now 10.45 a.m. Flight AA 000 left here at 8.45 a.m.

The plane has been flying for two hours. It has been in the air since a quarter to nine.

'During' can be brought in by referring to periods of time indicated by the calendar or clock face, and asking pupils what they were doing then. A frame such as the following could result, with each pupil filling in what is true for himself, and then for other pupils.

From . . . to . . . I/he was-ing. I/he was-ing during that time. Include both short and long periods of time—years, days, timetable periods, and so on. Substitutions can be derived from varying the periods used, and by talking or writing about what other people were doing. Points from current history lessons can also be used.

4.6 *Short Form Responses and 'Tag Questions'.*

These can easily be presented in situations. For instance, a teacher, knowing that a certain pupil lives in Calabar, can ask, 'Do you live in Calabar?' to stimulate the answer, 'Yes, I do' and 'Do you live in Makurdi?' to stimulate the answer, 'No, I don't.' It is easy to think up plenty of questions to produce similarly patterned answers with 'can,' 'did,' 'ought,' 'isn't,' 'shouldn't,' etc.

A situation like the following can be used, not for drill purposes, but to show what misunderstandings can arise when tag questions are wrongly answered:

Principal: I have been told that you broke a bed yesterday.

Amechi: Me, sir?

Principal: Yes. You didn't break it, did you?

Amechi: Yes, sir.

Principal: Well, you'll have to be punished, then.

Amechi: But why are you going to punish me, sir? I didn't break it.

Principal: But you just said you did!

Here the meaning is brought out by the class working out why Amechi was misunderstood. Cue drills can then follow with such questions as: You haven't had supper yet, have you? The bell hasn't gone, has it? It's not two o'clock yet, is it? You know Mr . . . , don't you?

Drills involving the opposite form of the tag should be presented separately at first, and then the two forms combined for further practise later, with both affirmative and negative replies.

4.7 'Too' and 'Very'

Choose objects which can be both 'very' and 'too'. The *same* object must be normally 'not very' but in some circumstances must be 'too'—with the same adjective in both slots, of course. E.g. an object could be not very big, but still too big to put in a school bag. Examples:

A chair: not very heavy, but too heavy for a small child to lift.

a pencil: very blunt, but not too blunt to write with

shoes: very old, but not too old to wear.

A frame could be worked out for groups to use, like this:

a That . . . is very

b Yes, but it's not too to OR,

Yes, it's too to

4.8 Prepositional Usages

Some of these lend themselves to situational treatment. Some do not, but can still be drilled by means of substitutions.

A street plan can be used for such items as:

opposite, next to, not far from, across the street from, etc.

(It is very useful too for drilling such things as: take the second turning on the left after the . . . , fork right at . . . , turn sharp left at . . . , and so on). It is also easy, using actual objects, to set up situations for such prepositions as: in, into, on, under, between, etc.

But it is less easy or useful to try to present the difference between, say, 'In Nigeria' and 'At Katsina' in a situation. There is no special difficulty of *meaning* here, only of habitually using the appropriate

preposition. This can best be done by drilling from a substitution table. The regular use of certain prepositions with certain verbs can be drilled in the same way. e.g. 'object to'. This could be practised in the form of a question and answer table, thus:

What	is it	(that)	your father	objects to?
	was it		the committee Mr the council the Ministry	
				objected to?

He	objects to objected to	the second part of the plan. having such a small building. the new road scheme.
They	object to objected to	putting the new post office in
	
		St.

Similar combinations of verb preposition and adjective + preposition can be drilled in this way, or through the use of skeleton questions.

4.9 Indirect Questions.

There are three main points of difficulty in these—the structure e.g. **(whether) he can come** is the same as that of a statement, not a question; certain linking words are required; and there may be a change of tense. A suitable situation could be a simulated telephone conversation. (This can be made more real and interesting if someone makes a 'telephone' which works—ask the physics teacher about what can be done with two empty milk tins and a piece of string.) Two pupils carry on the conversation, with a third asking one of them what the other is saying. e.g.

1 A to B (on the phone): Can you come to supper tonight?

B to A (on the phone): Yes, thank you.

C to B (not on the phone): What did he ask?

B to C (not on the phone): He asked if we can come to supper tonight.

- 2 A to B: Where did C go yesterday?
 B to A: I don't know.
 C to B: What did he ask?
 B to C: He asked where you went yesterday.

The final line of either of these and other similar dialogues could easily be worked-up into a substitution table. A variation which can be brought in later is for each group to try this experiment. A *whispers* a simple statement or question to B so that C cannot hear. C asks B what was said. B *whispers* what A said, but in the form of an indirect question. C then works out A's original words from this and whispers them to D. E then behaves as C did, and so on. When the sentence gets back to A, he compares it with what he originally said. But get the class to rehearse this aloud first, to make sure everybody uses the verb *ask* for the indirect question. If the group has mastered the use of indirect questions, you may hope to find that although the *words* may have got altered, the form of the sentence has remained the same.

4.10 *Miscellaneous*

A situational dialogue is a useful tool for practising contrastive or emphatic stress. e.g.

Obi: I'll have a bottle of lemonade, please.

Iheoma: And I'll have a cup of coffee.

Waiter: I'll bring them at once . . . Here you are.

Yours is the lemonade, and *yours* is the coffee.

Iheoma: But I didn't ask for a lemonade, I asked for a *coffee*.

Obi: And I asked for a lemonade.

Waiter: I'm *very* sorry. *My* mistake. I'll change them round.

Now *yours* is the coffee, and *yours* is the lemonade.

And another example, the situation this time being a conversation in a crowd before a football match:

Announcer: There is one change in the team as printed in your programmes. Johnson will be playing on the right wing in place of Benson.

George: Did he say *Johnson*?

David: Yes, Johnson. But he's usually a left winger.

George: He *has* played on the right too. At half-back.

David: At *half-back*? Never! He's *always* been a forward.

George: He played right half against United two months ago.

David: He *didn't*! He didn't play at *all* in that match.

George: But he *did*! *And* he scored a goal.

Stranger: Excuse me, but aren't you thinking of the *other* Johnson?
This is *Tommy* Johnson, not Richard.

David: Ah, *Tommy* Johnson. That explains it.

Dialogues can also be used for such necessary items as 'it looks as if'. e.g.

- 1 A. D'you see that car in the ditch?
B. Yes, it looks as if there's been an accident.
- 2 C. The sky's getting very dark.
D. It looks as if it's going to rain.
- 3 E. The Principal is shaking hands with Olu.
F. Yes! It looks as if he's passed the exam.

An 'open-ended' drill could be used for further work on this item. (i.e., a drill in which the teacher stimulates but does not control the pupil's response.) e.g.

- 1 In the 100 yards at the school sports, Limota is 5 yards ahead with 15 yards to go. It looks as if
- 2 All the electric lights suddenly go out. It looks as if . . .
- 3 The centre forward has beaten both backs and is a few yards from the goal with only the goalkeeper to beat. It looks as if . . .

The causative use of 'have' can also be practised through a situational dialogue. e.g.

- A. Paul's just gone to have his hair cut.
- B. Oh? Where's he having it cut?
- A. At that place near the station, I think.
- B. That's a good idea. I've had mine cut there three times, and I'm very satisfied.
- A. How often do you have it done?
- B. Oh, about once a month.

Appendix. A Reading List

More useful advice on situational teaching will be found in:

- 1 F. L. BILLOWS, 'The Techniques of Language Teaching', Longmans.
- 2 F. G. FRENCH, 'Teaching English as an International Language', O.U.P.

Plenty of examples of substitution tables and cue drills will be found in:

- 3 A. S. HORNBY, 'The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns', Stages 1-4, O.U.P.
- 4 F. G. FRENCH, 'English in Tables', O.U.P.
- 5 H. MONFRIES, 'Oral Drills in Sentence Patterns', Macmillans.
- 6 J. C. CAIRNS & J. MUNONYE, 'Drills & Practice in English Language', African Universities Press.
- 7 R. RIDOUT, 'World-Wide English', Introductory Book and Books 1 & 2, Macmillans.

Longer tables of the type mentioned in 3.8(a) will to be found in

- 8 L. A. HILL, 'Elementary Composition Pieces', O.U.P.

Large numbers of articles on situational teaching, drills, substitutions, and other matters of interest to the teacher of English as a second language will be found in:

- 9 'English Language Teaching', Editor: W. R. Lee, O.U.P. & British Council. (Published three times a year.)

Other useful books are:

- 10 'Art for Nigerian Children', Adenuga and Leonard, Ministry of Education, Ibadan (1963)
- 11 'Simple Audio-Visual Aids to Foreign Language Teaching', W.R. Lee & H. Coppen, O.U.P.

Useful papers and booklets—some free—on many aspects of the use of audio-visual aids in the classroom are issued by:

- 12 Overseas Visual Aids Centre (OVAC),
Tavistock House South, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

A good reference for wallcharts and posters is:

- 13 E.F.V.A. Catalogue of Wallcharts, Educational Foundation for Audio-Visual Aids, 33 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.

Many of these books and reference materials can be consulted at the nearest British Council office in your area.

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