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ANALYSIS AND TEACHING OF ENGLISH TWO-WORD VERBS  
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO PERSIAN

by

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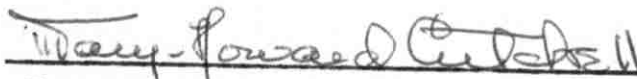
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TEACHING TWO-WORD VERBS

TO

MAZZIAR

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this project is to prepare teaching materials on English two-word verbs, which can be easily integrated into normal English classes. This is to help Persian - speaking students learning English master this difficult aspect of the language.

This study consists of three chapters. Chapter I sets forth the problem, the purpose of the study and its delimitations. It also explains the linguistic assumptions underlying this work.

Chapter II analyzes English two-word verbs in contrast with Persian compound verbs; The first part presents some notes on English stress, and a description of the separable and inseparable two-word verbs. The second part deals with Persian compound verbs in general and the type which can be compared and contrasted with English two-word verbs in particular. Finally, it presents a comparison of English and Persian two-word verbs.

Chapter III includes a brief description of some general techniques for teaching vocabulary, and all of the teaching materials.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The Problem: According to the writer's experience as a student and as a teacher of English, one of the most difficult aspects of the language is understanding the structure and function of the so-called two-word verbs; that is, the single lexical items consisting of verb plus particle. The problem is that the form and meaning of these verbs are relatively patternless and unpredictable: a) "There are severe collocational restrictions. We can give up but not give down. We can take after but not take before him."<sup>1</sup> b) Their meanings often differ from the meaning of the individual words of which they are composed.

Persian-speaking students learning English have great difficulty in mastering this class of verbs for two reasons: First, because they mostly learn the vocabulary through translation. Consequently, they assign one Persian equivalent to each part of the verb + particle combination

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<sup>1</sup>F.R. Palmer, A Linguistic Study of the English Verb (London: Longmans, 1965), p. 180.



and discover, to their dismay, that the meaning does not fit the context. Second, some English two-word verbs peculiarly let their two parts be separated by the object of the verb. The separability of English two-word verbs has no counterpart in Persian compound verbs, and this may intensify the problem.

The Purpose of the Study: The main purpose of this study is to prepare teaching materials on English two-word verbs based on a comparison between English two-word verbs and Persian compound verbs. The materials are intended to be taught orally and as an integrated part of normal English classes at high schools in Iran.

Underlying the problem, as stated before, are five questions which must be answered in this work:

1. What are English two-word verbs?
2. What are Persian compound verbs?
3. How do they contrast?
4. How can these lexical items, that is, English two-word verbs, be put into lesson forms?
5. How can these lexical items be presented in class as an integrated part of normal English classes?

Application of Linguistic Theory to this Work: This study is built upon some fundamental linguistic assumptions. The basic assumption is stated by Fries, "The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."<sup>2</sup> This principle implies that the ease and difficulty of learning a second language depends on its similarity to or difference from the native language. A scientific description and a systematic comparison of the two languages enable the language teacher to pinpoint the similarities and differences in the patterning of the two language systems. This statement is supported by Lado who says, "The student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult."<sup>3</sup>

The second assumption is that the language is

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<sup>2</sup>Charles C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Press, 1945), p. 9.

<sup>3</sup>Robert Lado, "Linguistic and Foreign Language Teaching," Language Learning, special issue, No. 2 (1961), p. 29.

vocal. This vocal nature of language puts the primary stress upon the oral - aural work in the classroom. Accordingly, it is assumed that these verbs are probably best learned through an oral approach, and the teaching materials are prepared for oral work in the classroom.

The third assumption is that language is made up of habits.<sup>4</sup> Practice is usually necessary to form habits. "The teacher should emphasize the fact that in learning new material use of it is of more importance than understanding. Meaning can come at any time, as in the natural process, but the constant danger is that a student will be satisfied with meaning and neglect practice, which is the true learning."<sup>5</sup>

Delimitations: The scope of this project is confined to the following:

1. The teaching materials are aimed at Persian-speaking students learning English at high schools in Iran.
2. The teaching materials deal with only that type of two-word verb whose meaning is different from the total

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<sup>4</sup>Of course, there are more than three linguistic principles. Those mentioned here are the most relevant to the approach used in this work.

<sup>5</sup>E.V. Gatenby, A Direct Method English Course: Teacher's Book Five (London: Longmans, 1953), p. iv.

meaning of the composing parts.

3. The teaching materials include only those two-word verbs used in the series A Direct Method English Course by Gatenby, which is used in most Iranian high schools.

4. Each of these verbs might have varied meanings, but the lessons are prepared on the particular meaning used in the student's book.

## CHAPTER II

### ENGLISH TWO-WORD VERBS IN CONTRAST WITH PERSIAN COMPOUND VERBS

"The most difficult part of any language is usually the part that deals with the verb. Learning a language is to a very large degree learning how to operate the verbal form of that language, and, except in the case of those that are related historically, the patterns and structure of the verb in each language seem to differ very considerably from those in every other language. Most of us, as native speakers of a language, are as a result reasonably convinced that our own language has a fairly straightforward way of dealing with the verbs and are rather dismayed and discouraged when faced with something entirely different in a new language."<sup>1</sup>

Certainly more difficult and perplexing for the learner of a second language is understanding the structure and function of certain idiomatic verb expressions whose meaning bear little or no relationship to the words of which they are composed.

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<sup>1</sup>F.R. Palmer, A Linguistic Study of the English Verb (London: Longmans, 1965), p. 1.

English two-word verbs, because of their peculiar forms and meaning, constitute an extraordinary intricate pattern in the English verb system. Most of the students of the language have great difficulty in mastering this trouble - some aspect of English verb patterning.

The overall objective of this chapter is to show English two-word verbs in contrast with Persian compound verbs.

But before making such an attempt, a brief description of suprasegmentals in English would seem essential in understanding the structure and meaning of these verbs.

#### Notes on Stress and Intonation

Stress can be defined as the relative loudness or softness with which a syllable is uttered; in other words it is "the greater prominence of some syllables or words over the others in the stream of speech."<sup>2</sup> Dealing with isolated words in English we have three levels of stress:<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Robert Lado, Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), p. 221.

<sup>3</sup>Stress in English is phonemic. The following pairs of words illustrate this fact: /kɒnflɪkt/ as a noun and /kɒnflɪkt/ as a verb; /pərmɪt/ as a noun, and /pərmɪt/ as verb.

Primary stress /●/  
 Secondary stress /●/  
 Tertiary stress /●/ <sup>4</sup>

These different levels are illustrated in the word newspaper /nuwspeypər/<sup>5</sup>

When we turn our attention from isolated words to word groups and sentences, there will be four degrees of stress. These are indicated as follows:

Primary stress /●/  
 Secondary stress /●/  
 Tertiary stress /●/  
 Weak stress /●/  
 Example    ●    ●    ●    ●    ●    ●    ●  
 intellectual curiosity

Every sentence, as well as many compounds, carries only one primary stress, and the other words have secondary, tertiary or weak stress. Therefore, when words are combined into phrases or sentences, the primary stresses of other words but one are reduced to secondary or tertiary level. For instance:

---

<sup>4</sup>Different sets of marks have been used to indicated stress in English. The one more commonly used is /, ^ \ v / respectively primary, secondary, tertiary and weak. The set used in this work seems to be clearer and avoids confusion. Furthermore it is easier to learn.

<sup>5</sup>Tertiary stress /●/ of a word is not usually indicated.

●  
 out  
 ● ● ● ●  
 out the window  
 ● ● ● ● ● ●  
 put it out the window

Pitch: is defined as "the frequency of vibration of voiced sounds coming from the glottis."<sup>6</sup> In English there are four levels of relative pitch. These are usually given numbers rather than names.

extra high /4/  
 high /3/  
 mid /2/  
 low /1/

The number /4/ indicates the highest pitch and the number /1/ indicates the lowest one.

Juncture: "Transition between sounds or between sound and silence in speech is called juncture."<sup>7</sup> In English there are at least four phonemic junctures: internal open juncture as in night rate /najt + reyt/ in contrast with nitrate /najtreyt/ and three terminal junctures."

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<sup>6</sup>Paul Roberts, Understanding English (New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1958), p. 243.

<sup>7</sup>Lado, op.cit., p. 217.



Terminal Junctures: are defined as pauses or breaks.

There are three kinds of them

1. /↘/ Fading terminal is characterized by a rapid fade away of the voice into silence.
2. /↗/ Rising terminal is a sudden rapid, but short rise in the pitch from the last level heard.
3. /→/ Sustained terminal is recognized by a slight lengthening of the preceding pitch /3/ and by a sustaining of the last heard pitch.<sup>8</sup>

Intonation Contour: The four pitches and the three terminal junctures combine into patterns which are called intonation contours: / 2 3 1↘/, / 2 3 3↗/, and / 2 3 2→/.<sup>9</sup>

/ 2 3 1↘/ This contour occurs at the end of statements

Wh- questions and command: <sup>2</sup> I'm going <sup>3</sup> home <sup>1</sup> ↘

/ 2 3 3↗/ This contour occurs in yes or no questions and

initial grammatical units: <sup>2</sup> Are you <sup>3</sup> here<sup>3</sup>↗; <sup>2</sup> In <sup>3</sup> short<sup>3</sup>↗

/ 2 3 2→/ This contour indicates incompleteness:

<sup>2</sup> When you leave <sup>3</sup> →

<sup>8</sup>Norman C. Stageberg, An Introductory English Grammar (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965), pp. 57-58.

<sup>9</sup>H. A. Gleason, An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics, revised edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961), pp. 40-50.

## The English Two-Word Verb

Definition: An important group of English verbs have a peculiar form consisting of a verbal base plus an adverbial particle. Grammarians are not in complete agreement upon the definition, name, or even existence of such a category. Some call them phrasal verbs. They also have been called two-word verbs, merged verbs, verb adverbial composites and verbs plus particle.<sup>10</sup>

As an operational definition we will say that a two-word verb is a construction consisting of a verb followed by a short, closely connected adverbial particle, the two together being felt to constitute a single grammatical unit which functions as a normal verb in English sentences. The meaning of such a construction as a unit is often different from the sum of the meanings of the individual words. For instance: turn up (= appear), give in (= stop resisting), put out (= extinguish), etc.

A distinction must be made between the two-word verb

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<sup>10</sup>We also call them two-word verbs simply because it is the most common term.

on one side and the verb-adverb sequences or verb plus prepositional phrase on the other side.

A. In the case of intransitive two-word verbs, which can not be followed by objects, there is the possibility of confusing them with simple verb adverb sequences such as He climbed up.<sup>11</sup>

These are the differences:

1. The meaning of a verb-adverbial sequence, unlike that of a two word verb, is not different from the added total of the two parts.

He turned up (He appeared)

He climbed up (the verbal base carried the basic meaning).

2. The adverbial element in a two-word verb is not moveable while in a verb-adverb sequence there is such a possibility. For

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<sup>11</sup>In many cases the adverb may be replaced by a prepositional phrase: He climbed up the mountain. In this sentence up is a regular preposition that introduces an adverbial prepositional phrase of place.

Sometimes a prepositional phrase may function as the complement of the intransitive verb: He relied on the evidence. On the evidence is a prepositional phrase which completes the meaning of the verb rely. These structures, complements, may be of several different kinds.

instance we would never use \*<sup>12</sup> Up he  
 turned (in the sense of He appeared).  
 But we may say: Up he climbed. (poetic).  
 And it means the same thing as He climbed  
up.

Here are some more examples of both two-  
 word verbs and verb-adverb sequences:

Two-Word Verbs	Verb-Adverb Sequences
Go on (= continue)	Go in
Carry on (= continue)	Carry away
Fall out (= quarrel)	fall down
Pass out (= faint)	Pass round

B. In the case of transitive two-word verbs the distinction must be made between the two-word verbs followed by noun objects and the noun plus propositional phrase.<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>12</sup>Forms which are impossible or ungrammatical are marked with \*.

<sup>13</sup>There is an especially close relationship between certain types of prepositions and adverbial particles because many forms belong to both classes. Nearly all the one word prepositions can also be adverbs. If there is no noun at all following the particle associated with the verb, the particle must be an adverb because a preposition must always be followed by a noun phrase. In the case of transitive verbs prepositions occur only before the object but adverbial particles may

The differences are:

1. As was already mentioned the meaning of a two-word verb differs from the sum of its individual words whereas the meaning of a verb plus prepositional phrase is not different from the sum of combining words.

For example:

He ran up a bill (He accumulated a large debt).

He ran up a hill (He moved quickly to the upper part of a hill).<sup>14</sup>

2. A two-word verb cannot be split by a modifier, but a modifier may be inserted between a verb and its following prepositional phrase.

We may say: He ran quickly up a hill; but not \* He ran quickly up a bill.

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occur either before or after it. The preposition in final position does not take primary stress whereas the adverb always has a primary stress. When two particles are following the verb, the first particle after the verb is always an adverb and the second one a preposition. For a fuller discussion of prepositions and adverbial particles see Palmer, op.cit., pp. 181-3; and Barbara M. Strong, Modern English Structure (London: Edward Arnold Limited, 1963) pp. 156-60.

<sup>14</sup>It should be noticed that some of two-word verb constructions are actually figurative expressions. For example: He blew in from the train; He has fallen out with his former friends (he has quarrelled with them); etc.

3. It is possible to change a verb and its following prepositional phrase into a relative structure but a two-word verb plus object can not be so treated. For instance, He ran up a hill (This sentence can be transformed into The hill up which he ran... But in the case of the sentence He ran up a bill, we can not say \* The bill up which he ran....
4. The transitive constructions of two-word verbs usually receive the stress pattern /••/; (that is the verbal base receives secondary stress and the adverbial element carries the primary stress). But a verb and its following preposition receive the stress pattern /••/ (primary stress on the verb and tertiary stress on the preposition.)<sup>15</sup>

Example:

What did he run up? ( a bill)  
 + What did he run up? ( a hill)

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<sup>15</sup>Abdul Karim Taha, "The Structure of two-word verbs in English," *Language Learning*, X (1960), pp. 115-22.

5. There is no open juncture between the verb and the adverbial particle of a two-word verb whereas an open juncture is felt between a verb and its following preposition.<sup>16</sup>

/hiy ræn Ap + a hil /

/hiy ræn + Ap a hil /

6. In the case of some two-word verbs the adverbial can be placed after the object of the verb but such a shift is never possible with the preposition. Example:

He ran up a bill. We can transform this sentence into: He ran a bill up. But in the case of the sentence He ran up a hill we cannot say \* He ran a hill up.

7. If we form a question with "where" for the sentences containing a verb plus a prepositional phrase, we can give a meaningful answer by using the prepositional phrase:

Where did he run? Up a hill

---

<sup>16</sup>In other words the verb and the following adverbial of a two-word verb always fall together in the same layer of structure in an immediate constituent cut, but the preposition of a verb plus prepositional phrase falls in the same layer of structure with the noun object rather than the verb:

He ran up | a bill

He ran | up a bill

But for the sentences containing two-word verbs such an answer will not be meaningful.

Where did he run? \*Up a bill.

But when we formulate a question with what or whom for the sentences containing two-word verbs the answer will be meaningful: What did he run up? a bill.<sup>17</sup>

Here are some more examples of both two-word verbs plus object and verbs plus prepositional phrases.

TWV - O<sup>18</sup>

V-PP

He turned down the offer (He refused the offer).

He turned down the driveway

He looked over the old fence (He examined the old fence).

He looked over the old fence and saw his friend.

He turned up a new manuscript (He discovered it).

He turned (sharply) up the country road.

He called up his brother (He telephoned his brother)

He called up the stairs.

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<sup>17</sup>English Language Services, The Key to English Two-Word Verbs (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1964), p. 11

<sup>18</sup>TWV-O stands for the two-word verb plus object; and V-PP stands for the verb + prepositional phrase.



He broke in his new car (He began to use his new car).

A windshield broke in his new car.

He looked up the word because he didn't understand it. (He sought it in a reference book.)

He looked up the street but saw no one.

He ran into an old friend yesterday. (He met him by chance.)

He ran into the street.

#### Types of Two-Word Verb

As we have already stated two-word verbs are single grammatical units which function as normal verbs both in meaning and inflection. In other words they are conjugated with normal inflections and with the ordinary auxiliary verbs in affirmative, negative and interrogative statements. Just like ordinary verbs they are of two kinds: intransitive and transitive.

Intransitive two-word verbs cannot be followed by objects; their adverbial particles are not moveable, and their stress pattern is usually /••/ (tertiary, secondary) or /•●/ (secondary, primary.)

Some two-word verbs may be used both transitively

and intransitively. In most cases the meaning is the same, e.g. The house blew up, (intransitive). They blew up the house (transitive).

Following are some common examples of intransitive two-word verbs:

<u>break down</u>	=	cease to function properly
<u>break out</u>	=	appear, arise suddenly or violently
<u>fall through</u>	=	fail; not be accomplished.
<u>get up</u>	=	rise (from bed, from a sitting or lying position)
<u>give in</u>	=	surrender, stop resisting
<u>pass away</u>	=	die

Transitive Two-Word Verbs are followed by objects. Some of them have more than one meaning, for example, "A woman may make up her mind, her face, a fire, a four at bridge."<sup>19</sup>

Transitive two-word verbs are of two kinds inseparable and separable. In the case of the inseparable ones the adverbial particle precedes the object; that is, the object occurs immediately after the particle. For example,

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<sup>19</sup>Palmer, op.cit., p. 187.

we may say Yesterday he ran into his friend, but not \*Yesterday he ran his friend into; or Tomorrow I am going to call on him, but not \*Tomorrow I am going to call him on.

But separable two-word verbs peculiarly let their two-parts be separated by the object of the verb. For example, we may say He took off his coat, or He took his coat off; They put out the fire, or they put the fire out.<sup>20</sup>

It should be noticed that the transposition of the object and the particle of separable two-word verbs is not always possible. Under certain circumstances only the separated form is admissible, sometimes only the unseparated form, and in some cases both forms are possible.

I. Unseparated Only (i.e. the order: verb - adverbial - object.) The object of the verb occurs immediately after the adverbial particle in the following circumstances:<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>20</sup>It is not always easy to tell separable two-word verbs from the inseparable ones. "It is only practice and habit in the long run, that will tell him (the student) which is which." See English Language Services. op.cit. pp. 19-20.

<sup>21</sup>This classification is taken from Fredrick T. Wood, "Verb-Adverbial Combinations: The Position of the Adverb." English Language Teaching, X No. 1 (1955), pp. 18-27.

- a. When the object is too long to be inserted between the verb and its adverbial particle so that it would be somewhat difficult for the mind of the reader or the listener to remember the relation between the two parts.<sup>22</sup>

For example;

He took down the name of all the students present.

We would be unlikely to say:

\*He took the names of all the students present down.

- b. When the object, irrespective of its length, is a clause. Examples: He took down what he was told, but not \*He took what he was told down; or You had better find out when the train starts, and not \*You had better find when the train starts out.<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>The length of an object, in this case, does not depend necessarily upon the number of words; but it is a question of feeling and a matter of ease or difficulty for the mind of the learner to carry over the relationship.

<sup>23</sup>Sometimes only the introductory word of a clause is indicated in which case still the ~~un~~unseparated form is required, e.g. One of the books is yours, find out which (which is yours.)

- c. When the object is a gerund denoting some activity or process, e.g. He gave up drinking, and not \* He gave drinking up; or He put off playing, but not \*He put playing off.<sup>24</sup>

II. Separated Only (i.e. the order: verb - object-adverbial). The object of the verb must be inserted between the verb and its adverbial particle in the following circumstances:

- a. When the object is a personal or reflexive pronoun, e.g. He turned on the radio, but I turned it off, and never \*... I turned off it; or He took off the coat and I put it on, but not \*... I put on it.

In the case of other pronouns and demonstratives, it is usually a matter of emphasis, e.g. Take this down (make a note of it. Don't trust your memory,) vs. Take down this (Take down this and not something else.)

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<sup>24</sup>If a noun functions as a gerund denoting some activity or performance inseparated form is still required, e.g. He gave up work (here work gives the sense of working).

- b. When two coordinated adverbials are combined into expressions such as on and off, up and down, e.g. He turned the light on and off, but not \*He turned on and off the light .
- c. When the verb has an indirect object as well as a direct one the adverbial is usually placed between the two objects, e.g. "He wrote me out a cheque is a normal way of stating this fact. He wrote me a cheque out is less usual, though it is not incorrect; but never \*He wrote out me a cheque."<sup>25</sup>

### III. Either Form (separated or unseparated).

In many cases either form is possible, e.g., we may say He took off his coat; or He took his coat off. Grammarians are not in complete agreement upon which type is more common. Generally speaking, there is a tendency to place the noun object after the particle. But Wood believes, "The object may be brought forward and the adverb shifted to post-position."

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<sup>25</sup>For a fuller discussion see Wood, op.cit., pp.18-27.

- a. When emphasis is needed, e.g. Take his words down (they are very important) vs. Take down his words.
- b. "When the object has been mentioned before and is still in the mind of the speaker,... For example, 'Hold out your hand,' said my sister. So I held my hand out, half expecting there was some trick in it."<sup>26</sup>

Following are some more examples of inseparable

two-word verbs:

- |                |                                       |
|----------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. call for    | = go to get                           |
| 2. call on     | = pay a visit                         |
| 3. come across | = find by chance                      |
| 4. come to     | = regain consciousness                |
| 5. get on, off | = board, leave (a train, a bus, etc.) |
| 6. get over    | = recover from                        |
| 7. keep on     | = continue                            |
| 8. live on     | = support oneself by means of         |
| 9. look after  | = watch or take care of               |
| 10. look for   | = search for                          |
| 11. look into  | = investigate                         |
| 12. run across | = find or meet accidentally           |

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<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 24.

13. see to = arrange, supervise.  
 14. take after = resemble

Listed below are some examples of separable two-word verbs:

1. bring about = cause to happen  
 2. bring up = rear (children)  
 3. call off = cancel (something scheduled)  
 4. call up = telephone  
 5. carry on = continue  
 6. carry out = fulfill, complete  
 7. find out = discover  
 8. give up = surrender, lose hope  
 9. hand in = submit or turn in  
 10. look over = examine  
 11. look up = search for (in a reference book)  
 12. make up = apply cosmetics  
 13. pick up = learn by chance  
 14. pick out = select  
 15. put on = dress in  
 16. put off = postpone  
 17. put out = extinguish  
 18. take off = remove (clothing)  
 19. take up = become interested in; discuss<sup>27</sup>

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<sup>27</sup>This is only a representative list. There are several hundred commonly known used two-word verbs in English. These items can be found in standard desk dictionaries listed under the verb.



20. talk over = discuss
21. turn in = hand in, submit
22. turn off = shut off (a radio, gas, etc.)
23. turn on = start the operation of (a radio, gas, etc.).
24. try on = test the fit or appearance <sup>28</sup>

### Compound Nouns Derived from Two-Word Verbs

A large number of two-word verbs can be used as compound nouns with the same meaning. The stress pattern of these compound nouns are different from that of their related two-word verbs. The compound noun receives the primary stress over the first part (i.e. the noun), whereas in the case of the related two word verb, the primary stress is on the second part (i.e. the particle); for instance: The tire blew out; and We had a blow out. This information is not to be handed out; and, These hand outs will give you the necessary information.

### Three-Word Verbs

Sometimes the verb is followed by two particles, the one immediately after the verb is adverbial and the

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<sup>28</sup> Rebecca E. Hayden, Dorothy W. Pilgrim, Aurora Quiros Haggard, Mastering American English (New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1965), pp. 183-187.

other prepositional. These three word verbs are inseparable and idiomatic.<sup>29</sup> Examples:

I can't put up with that fellow (I can't tolerate....)

Some people never run out of things to say (exhausted a supply)

Some more examples are:

get through with	=	be finished with
keep up with	=	maintain a standard
look down on	=	regard as inferior
look in on	=	pay a brief visit to
look up to	=	admire
look forward to	=	anticipate

### Persian Compound Verbs

To acquire some understanding of compound verbs in Persian, first it is essential to have an overview of the verb system of that language.<sup>30</sup>

The structure of Persian verbs is relatively regular. All the simple tenses are formed from one or two

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<sup>29</sup>The stress pattern of such combinations is variable, but the adverbial usually has a stronger stress than the preceding verb and following preposition.

<sup>30</sup>For a full discussion of the Persian verbal system see Ann K.S. Lambton, Persian Grammar (Great Britain: Cambridge University Press, 1961),

stems, the present stem and the past stem.

Verb stems are constructed - directly or indirectly - from the infinitive. The infinitive of all Persian verbs ends in either /-tæn/, /-dæn/, or /-idæn/. For example:

/kɔstæn/	کشتن = to kill
/xɔrdæn/	خوردن = to eat
/xæridæn/ <sup>31</sup>	خریدن = to buy

The Present Tense Stem is formed by cutting off the infinitive morpheme /-tæn/, /-dæn/, or /-idæn/ (as the case may be from the infinitive construction. Thus the present stem of the above examples respectively are:

/kɔs/	کش	
/xɔr/	خور	
/xær/	خر	32

The Past Tense Stem is formed by cutting off the termination /-æn/ from the infinitive. The past stem of the above mentioned infinitives respectively would be:

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<sup>31</sup>The system of phonemic transcription is adapted from G.L. Trager and H.L. Smith, An Outline of English Structure, (Washington: American Council of Learned Societies, 1957), pp. 27-29.

<sup>32</sup>A large number of common verbs in Persian form their present stems irregularly, e.g. /biyn/ بین from the infinitive /diydæn/ = to see.

/kɔʃt/ کشت  
 /xɔrd/ خورد  
 /xærid/ خرید

The past tense stem is always regular.

### Endings and Prefixes

Personal Endings: Personal endings of the verb indicate person and number. They have the following forms:

person	Singular	Plural
1st	/- æm/	/-im/ ایم ...
2nd	/-i /	/-id/ ید ...
3rd	/- æd/	/-ænd/ اند ...

The second person singular of the imperative takes no ending and consists of the bare stem only, e.g. /xɔr/ = خور.  
 \*at.

The simple present, the present continuous, the present subjunctive and the imperative are formed from the present stem; whereas the simple past tense, the past continuous and the past perfect are formed from the past tense stem.

+ Prefixes: There are only three prefixes in the

## Persian verb system:

- a. /mi-/ می (in the old and classical Persian also /hæmi/ همی) gives the verb a sense of duration and recurrence, e.g. /mix æræm/ می خردم I am buying , or I buy.
- b. /be-/ conveys a sense of doubt, e.g. /bexæraem/ بخردم = I may buy.
- c. /næ-/ is the negative particle which is generally accented, e.g. /næ xærid æm/ نخردم I didn't buy.<sup>33</sup>

## Verb Formation in Persian

1. Simple verb forms are built by combining the stem, the personal endings, and the prefixes (if necessary).
2. Compound Verb Forms: Compound verb forms in Persian are generally constructed in the following ways:
  - a. By the combination of a basic verb and an

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<sup>33</sup>L.P. Elwell - Sutton, Elementary Persian Grammar (Great Britain: Cambridge University Press, 1963), p. 67.

auxiliary.<sup>34</sup> For example, /xahæm ræft/

فراهم رافت = I shall go.

- b. By the combination of a simple verb and the present stem or some part of another verb, e.g. /giyr aværdæ n/ گير آوردن = to find, to catch (by chance)
- c. Another type of compound verb is formed by combining a simple verb with a noun, an adjective, an adverb or a prepositional phrase.<sup>35</sup>

<sup>34</sup>The following verbs besides doing their normal function and having their normal meaning, are also used as auxiliaries in the formation of compound verbs: /buwdaen/ بودن = to be (present stem /bas/); /sɔdaen/ شدن = to become (present stem /sɔh/); and /xastæ n/ = خواستن to want (present stem /xah/).

<sup>35</sup>The following simple verbs are commonly used to form compounds:

/kæ rdaen/	کردن = to do	/xɔ rdaen/	خوردن = to eat
/naemuwdaen/	نمودن = to show	/amæ dæ n/	آمدن = to come
/daštæ n/	داشتن = to have	/kæ sidæ n/	کشیدن = to pull
/zæ dæ n/	زدن = to strike	/ɔftadaen/	افتادن = to fall
/dadaen/	دادن = to give	/gereftæ n/	گرفتن = to take
+ /sɔ dæ n/	شدن = to become	/bɔ rdaen/	بردن = to take
/gæ stæ n/	گستن = to become	/yaftæ n/	یافتن = to find

- i. Compound verbs formed by a simple verb and a noun, e.g.

Persian	Literal	English
<u>Compound forms</u>	<u>Translation</u>	<u>Equivalents</u>
/guwškæ rdæ n/	گوش کردن to do ear	to listen
/dæst dad æn/	دست دادن to give hand	to shake hands
/s ær amaed æn/	سر آمدن to come head	to fall due

- ii. Compound verbs formed by a simple verb and an adjective, e.g.

/peyda Kærdæ n/	پیدا کردن to do clear	to find
/paiyn awærdæ n/	پایین آوردن to bring down	to lower
/vared šodæ n/	وارد شدن to become entering	to arrive in, enter

- iii. Compound verbs formed by a simple verb prefixed by a preposition or adverb equivalent. The structure and function of these verbs are somewhat similar to those of English two-word verbs. So, for the sake of convenience we will call this type of compound verbs as Persian two-word verbs in contrast with two-word verbs in English. Listed below

are some examples of Persian two-word verbs in common use, with literal translation and English equivalents.<sup>36</sup>

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<sup>36</sup>In Persian there are some other types of compound verbs, but in this study we are primarily interested in Persian two-word verbs; that is, verbs prefixed by prepositions or adverb equivalent. For a detailed description of compound verbs in Persian see Lambton, op.cit., pp. 85-



Prepositions or  
Adverb Equivalents

Persian Two-Word Verbs      Literal Translation      English Equivalents

/baz/ =again, back

/bazamæ dæ n/  
/baz gæ stæ n/  
/baz gæ ftæ n/  
/baz kær dæ n/  
/baz dæ stæ n/

باز گریستن      to come again  
باز گشتن      to turn again  
باز گفتن      to say again  
باز گردان      to do again  
باز داشتن      to have back

to come again  
to return  
to repeat  
to open  
to hold back

/va/ = back  
(used usually in com-  
pounds)

/va dæ stæ n/  
/va zæ dæ n/  
/va ræ ftæ n/  
/va gæ zæ stæ n/

وا داشتن      to have back  
وا زدن      to hit back  
وا رفتن      to go back  
وا گذاشتن      to put back

to restrain  
to reject  
to startle  
to leave

/bær/ = on, up, off, again

/bær amæ dæ n/  
/bær æ fkae ndæ n/  
/bær æ pæ xtæ n/  
/bær gæ stæ n/  
/bær ciydæ n/  
/bær æ fra stæ n/  
/bær kae ndæ n/  
/bær xæ stæ n/  
/bær gæ ziydæ n/  
/bær gæ stæ n/

بر آمدن      to come up  
بر انداختن      to throw off  
بر افتادن      to throw off  
بر داشتن      to have up  
بر چیدن      to lay off  
بر افراشتن      to raise up  
بر کردن      to dig off, to pull off  
بر خاستن      to stand up  
بر چیدن      to choose up  
بر گشتن      to turn again

to be accomplished;  
to rise  
to overthrow  
to abolish  
to take, to remove  
to wind up, to remove  
to raise up  
to up root  
to rise, to get up  
to choose  
to return

Prepositions or Adverb Equivalents	Persian Two-Word Verb	Literal Translations	English Equivalents
/væ r/ =away, up, off	/væ r amæ dae n/ /væ r ɔ ftadae n/ /væ r pæ ridae n/ /væ r ræ ftae n/	to come up to fall off to jump off to go up	to come up, off to be leavened to be abolished to disappear (dry up) to fiddle
/piys/ =before, in front of, forward	/piys amæ dae n/ /piys avæ rdae n/ /piys ɔ ftadae n/ /piys ræ ftae n/ /piys gereftae n/ /piys bɔ rdae n/ /piys kæ sidae n/	to come forward to bring forward to fall before to go in front of to catch before to take forward to pull forward	to happen to put forth to take the lead to progress to take up to gain the upper hand to bring forward
/dae r/ =in, at, out	/dae r ɔ ftadae n/ /dae r mandae n/ /dae r amæ dae n/ /dae r ræ ftae n/ /dae r amiyxtae n/ /dae r gɔ zæ stae n/ /dae r gereftae n/ /dae r kæ rdae n/	to fall at to remain in to come out to go out to mix in to pass out to catch in to do out	to grapple to become helpless to come out to run away to mix in to pass away to break in to let off

Prepositions or  
Adverb Equivalents

Persian Two-Word Verbs	Literal Translations	English Equivalents
/faera/		
	=behind, back	
	again, 37	
	forward	
/faera amae daen/	فرا آمدن	to come
/faera xandaen/	فرا خواندن	to call
/faera gereftaen/	فرا گرفتن	to learn
/faera raesidaen/	فرا رسیدن	to come about
/f ruw(d)/		
	down	
/f ruw damae daen/	فرو آمدن	to alight
/f ruw bordsaen/	فرو بردن	to swallow
/f ruw raeftaen/	فرو رفتن	to sink
/f ruw nesae stae n/	فرو نشستن	to sink
/f ruw mandaen/	فرو ماندن	to be distressed
/f ruw riyxtaen/	فرو ریختن	to collapse
/f ruw kesidaen/	فرو کشیدن	to subside 38

37 It also makes the verb emphatic

38 A complete list of different kinds of Persian compound verbs appears in Lambton op.cit., pp. 86-94.

### Stress and Intonation in Persian Compound Verbs

The primary stress in compound verbs fall on the final syllable of the non-verbal part of the construction,<sup>39</sup> e.g.

/bæ r miygæ r dæ m/	بَرنگردم I shall return
/pey dæ miyk næ d/	پیدا میکند He (she) will find
/dæ r æ n æ dæ r d/	درآمدند They came out
/razi y ʃ d/	راضی شد He (she) was satisfied

When the verb is negative, the primary stress falls on the negative prefix and the non-verbal part of the compound verb receives a secondary stress,<sup>40</sup> e.g.

/bæ r næ miygæ r dæ m/	نبرنگردم I shall not return
/dæ r næ y æ n æ d/	در نیامد He (she) did not come out

### Comparison and Contrast of English Two-Word Verbs and Persian Compound Verbs

Among the different types of Persian compound verbs, the construction formed by a simple verb plus an adverb or

<sup>39</sup>Ibid., p. 93.

<sup>40</sup>Sutton, op.cit., pp. 97-8.

a preposition is the one which can be compared and contrasted with the English two-word verbs; i.e., the verb-adverbial composite.

To see the similarities and differences, the following aspects of the so-called two-word verb in the two languages should be examined carefully: 1) structure, 2) function, and 3) meaning.

1. Structure: The analysis of the structure of two-word verb constructions is mainly based on their word-order and stress pattern.

Insofar as the word-order; that is, the basic structural feature of two-word verb constructions is concerned, the verb in the English construction is usually followed by the particle, whereas in Farsi the particle precedes the verb, e.g. "put on" in English, and /baeramaedaen/ to rise in Farsi.

From the view point of contiguity, we saw that English two-word verb constructions are of two kinds, a) the adverbial particle occurs immediately after the verb, e.g. He turned up or He called on his friend; b) The object of the

verb may occur between the verb and its particle and thus separate the two parts of the construction, e.g. He took off the coat, or He took the coat off. But in the case of Persian two-word verbs such a shift is not possible;<sup>41</sup> that is, the object can not be placed between the verb and its particle. For example we say: /anha paer<sup>✓</sup>caem ra bær æfra<sup>✓</sup>stænd/ آهنا بېرچېم را برفراشته

they raised the flag; but not \*/anha bær paer<sup>✓</sup>cæmra æfra<sup>✓</sup>stænd/

Insofar as stress is concerned, it was observed that English two-word verb constructions receive the stress pattern/●●/ secondary (or tertiary) on the verbal base and primary on the following particle. Persian two-word verbs also have the secondary stress on the verbal base and primary on the particle. But as the order of Persian two-word verbs is reversed the stress

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<sup>41</sup>The verbal prefixes /mi- / می and /nae/ نه are affixed to the verbal part of a compound verb and thus inserted between the verb and its particle, e.g. /bær migaerdaem/ بېر میگردم I will return, or /bær nae migæerdaem/ بېر نه گوردم I shall not return.

pattern would be like this /●●/ (primary, secondary). As we see in both cases the particle carries the nuclear stress.

2. Function: As was already mentioned English two-word verbs are grammatical units which function as normal verbs in English sentences. It was seen that a large number of these English two-word verb constructions have related noun forms.<sup>41</sup>

Persian two-word verbs also function as normal verbs in the system of that language. The non-verbal element is regarded as an integral part of the whole expression which is treated as a single verb. Some Persian two-word verbs can be transformed into gerunds by cutting off the infinitive morpheme /-tæn/, /-dæn/, or /-idæn/ from the infinitive construction and shifting the nuclear stress from the particle to the verb, e.g. /bærxɔrd/ **برخورد** meeting (fortuitously) from /bærx rdæ n/ **ز برخوردن** /piys amaed/ **پیش آمد**

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<sup>41</sup>Refer to Section II, page 25.

happening, from /piy's amae daen/ پیش آمدن

3. Meaning: Generally speaking, the meaning expressed by the combination of verb plus particle falls into three categories:
- a. Very often the notion is quite different from the sum of the two combining parts, as to fall out (=quarrel), turn up (=appear). As was seen this is the case with English two word verbs.
  - b. Sometimes the meaning of the construction is a combination of the notions attached to the two separate parts, e.g. sit down, go back.
  - c. In some cases the verb carries the basic meaning and the particle simply adds something to the notion, as for example up with some constructions conveys a sense of completeness, e.g. to eat up, to beat up, to tear up.

In the case of the Persian compound verbs formed from a simple verb plus a preposition or an adverb equivalent



there are constructions the meaning of which is different from that of either parts taken individually, e.g.

Persian Compound verbs	Literal Translation	English Equivalent
/bæ r xɔrdæ n/      بر خوردن	to eat up, off	to meet
/bæ r a væ rdæ n/      بر آوردن	to bring up	to accomplish

Sometimes the meaning is merely a combination of the notions attaching to the two separate parts of the construction,

e.g. /bæ r kaendæ n/      بر کنون      to take off, up;

eradicate. Finally there is the type of Persian two-word verbs in which the verb carries the central meaning and the particle simply adds nothing or somehow modifies the notion of the verb, e.g. /fæ ra amæ dæ n/      فر آمدن      to come along.

(/fæ ra/ makes the verb emphatic), or /bæ r æ fraʃtæ n/      بر افراشتن      to raise up, has the same meaning as /æ fraʃtæ n/.      افراشتن

From the foregoing comparison we may come to the conclusion that English two-word verbs are somewhat similar to two-word verbs in Persian except for the separability on the part of the English construction.

## CHAPTER III

### TEACHING MATERIALS

#### Vocabulary Teaching

The first material that the student of a language has to deal with is words. These words from the very beginning, make a center of interest both to the teacher and pupil, and form the first body of material which must be taken into serious consideration by any method of language teaching and language learning.

The important role played by vocabulary and vocabulary teaching in the study of a language should not convey the wrong conception of identifying a language with its isolated words. "The linguistic student should never make the mistake of identifying a language with its dictionary."<sup>1</sup> Words by themselves, as isolated words, do not constitute a language. They must be met in the content of a real meaningful situation that might occur to any one." The meaning of words is much more fluid than is usually realized by most people. In a sense, words mean the memory of the situations in which they have been observed and understood,

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<sup>1</sup>Edward Sapir, Language: An Introduction to the Study of Speech, (New York: Harcourt, 1921), p. 234.

brought out by the context in which they are used. The meaning of a word has a variety of features. When the word is used in context, some of these features are brought out, and others remain dormant."<sup>2</sup>

### Ways of Teaching Vocabulary

There is no unique, inclusive method for teaching different levels and different types of vocabulary. Each level or each type poses its own peculiar problem. The problem of verbs, for instance, is different from that of nouns; and concrete nouns differ from abstract ones. To accomplish the task of vocabulary teaching, the teacher should be able to recognize the different levels of difficulty and be aware of the possible techniques to meet them.

Putting across the meaning of new words does not constitute the whole business of vocabulary teaching and the sole task of the language teacher. In addition to grasping the meaning and form of new words, the student must learn to use them and this implies a great deal of practice in using them in meaningful contexts.

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<sup>2</sup>Lado, Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach (New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1964), p. 120.

"All teaching, whether good or bad, must include some sort of selection, some sort of gradation, some sort of presentation and some sort of repetition."<sup>3</sup> Assuming that the teacher has already selected and graded the vocabulary items carefully, he is now faced with the problem of presentation and repetition (practice).

1. Presentation: "Presentation means communicating something to somebody."<sup>4</sup> The teacher's success in having the student master the vocabulary depends to a large extent, upon his technique of presentation. Insofar as the presentation of new words is concerned, many decisions are to be made on the part of the teacher. The first and perhaps the most important is to decide whether he should present the new words in isolation or in context. The former may seem, at first sight, much easier, but the context provides the following advantages:

- a. Context controls the meaning of the word.

Very few words have only one meaning. Many

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<sup>3</sup>William Francis Mackey, Language Teaching Analysis (London: Longmans, 1966), p. 157.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 228.

words have several areas of meaning,<sup>5</sup> and the teacher should deal with one at a time. The only way to indicate the specific area of meaning is through presenting the word in context. For instance, the word spring indicates several different meanings, but the best way to elicit the desired one is to use it in an appropriate context.

- b. Context gives the student an example of the actual use of the word.
- c. Teaching and vocabulary in context diminishes the interference of the mother tongue. For example, the Persian may frequently make the mistake of using \* To enjoy from (of). I think this results from teaching to enjoy in isolation because the student tends to regard this verb as an equivalent to /Lezzæt b rdæn/ لذت بردن which is usually followed by the preposition /æz/ meaning from (of). This can be avoided by teaching to enjoy (without any preposition) in context.

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<sup>5</sup>See Charles C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945), p. 40.

- d. Context provides the student with the normal pronunciation of the item when used in actual utterances.

Contextualization, however, does not answer all the questions involved in vocabulary teaching. There are certain other steps which must also be taken into consideration:

1. Hearing the Word: Let your students hear the pronunciation of the word both in isolation and in context.
2. Pronouncing the Word: Have your students pronounce the word. Accurate pronunciation of the word by the students will help them learn it more quickly and remember it longer.<sup>6</sup> Furthermore this will give them confidence to use it freely in other situations.
3. Get the Meaning to your Students: in any way you consider (the most suitable).  
Here are a number of ways:

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<sup>6</sup>Lado, op.cit., p. 121.

A. Objects: Objects of models of them are quite effective in getting across the meaning of new words. Aristotle believes, "Whatever is in the mind must first have been in the senses."<sup>7</sup> Using objects is especially helpful in the initial stages when the lexical units are usually taken from the immediate classroom environment. Many concrete nouns, quality words, and even structure words can be taught with the use of objects. One of the shortcomings of the use of objects is that relatively very few objects can be brought to the classroom.

B. Actions: Demonstration is an effective device to teach the meaning of action words. Demonstratives (that, this,) verbs of action (sit, walk, turn, come,...), and some prepositions (on, to, from, into..) can be taught through gestures and actions. To show the intended meaning through actions, they must be unambiguous and clear "... (i) .. the action should be completely isolated from other actions, significant or non significant; (ii) ... the timing of the action should reflect the tense of the verb; (iii) ... the gestures should be clear and conventional."<sup>8</sup>

C. Pictures: The use of pictures is one of the

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<sup>7</sup>Mackey, op.cit., p. 242.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 243.

successful devices for teaching the meaning of words and utterances. Pictures can be used to illustrate the meaning of things, actions, qualities and relations. They help the teacher avoid monotonous verbalism in explaining meaning; they provide the class with meaningful situations for practice; they can also be used for testing vocabulary. A picture used for the teaching of meaning should be, 1) large enough to be seen by the whole class. 2) Easy to handle, and 3) clear and unambiguous. For this purpose a simple drawing is usually preferred to a photograph.<sup>9</sup>

D. Self Defining Context: The meaning of new words can be put across by using them in clear contexts, e.g. The class begins at eight. The teacher comes at 7:45. He is early. (to teach early).

E. Definition: The meaning of new words can also be explained in terms of words already known by the student. Care must be taken ~~that~~ the wording of the definition should be quite simple and familiar to the student.

F. Antonyms. Teaching words in terms of their opposites is possible only when one member of a pair of

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<sup>9</sup>Pictures may appear also in the student's textbook or on films.



opposites has already been mastered, e.g. The girl is ugly opposite of beautiful. One of the shortcomings of this device is that it is not always possible to find exact antonyms.

G. Synonyms A synonym may help the student guess the meaning of new words, e.g. He made a significant (important) speech. However, it is still difficult to find exact synonyms. Furthermore there is the possibility of explaining the meaning of one unknown word by using another unknown word.

H. Blackboard. The blackboard can be very helpful. The sketches and illustrations drawn quickly by the teacher can get the meaning of some words to the class clearly and quickly. The teacher should know how to use the blackboard effectively and neatly.

I. Translation: The use of the mother tongue in getting across the meaning is a long standing controversial question. Many things have been said for and against it. Direct methodists strictly forbid the use of the mother tongue, because the proponents believe "that exposing the student directly to the foreign language impresses it

perfectly upon his mind."<sup>10</sup> On the other hand, there are those who advocate the use of the mother tongue, believing it to be an easier, quicker and clearer method for teaching vocabulary. Completely forbidding the use of the mother tongue in the classroom seems impracticable, because there are certain occasions when the use of the student's native language is effective and saves much time and effort. But care should be taken not to use it intensively. "If you give the native language equivalent, do it once only..."<sup>11</sup>

J. Dictionary Teach your students how to use a dictionary. Have them use a simple dictionary exclusively in the target language.

Repetition After getting the meaning of the new word across to the class, the teacher is ready to lead the students in practicing its use and turning it into habit. Explaining the meaning of a word only helps the learner recognize it; to be raised to the habit level, the word must be practiced extensively. "Language is mainly a matter of interrelated habits; if it were not, it could not be used

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<sup>10</sup>Lado, op.cit., p. 5

<sup>11</sup>Mary Finocchiaro, English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice (New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc., 1964), p. 58.

as it is. A habit is not established by one or two performances but by many."<sup>12</sup> There are many varieties of practice:

1. Through Patterns: Fluency in a language demands the habitual use of the language. The patterns are "repeated by the student until the material practiced has become part of the complex of language habits of the student."<sup>13</sup> In this kind of pattern practice the student's attention should be drawn away from the particular item or expression being taught, but in fact he is repeating it through the pattern again and again. Here are some possible techniques.

- a. Oral Repetitions: Repetition consists the simplest kind of practice. It is particularly useful in initial stages. The students repeat the vocabulary items in a pattern provided by the teacher. The teacher should look for the participation of the whole class and

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<sup>12</sup>Mackey, op.cit., p. 257.

<sup>13</sup>Charles C. Fries, Lessons in Vocabulary: Twenty Lessons from an Intensive Course in English (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1956), p. iii.

correct pronunciation of the students.

- b. Simple substitutions: The teacher gives the key sentence orally and asks the class to repeat it after him. Then they are asked to replace one of its elements by the items supplied by the teacher. For instance the following exercise is used to practice run into.

Teacher : Bahram ran into an old friend yesterday.  
 " : his close friend.  
 Student A : Bahram ran into his close friend yesterday.  
 Teacher : His uncle  
 Student B : Bahram ran into his uncle yesterday.  
 Teacher : His cousin  
 Student C : Bahram ran into his cousin yesterday.

- c. Substitution that Forces a Change: In this type of drill the main objective is to lead the student to supply the correct form as the situation of the context requires. The following exercise is used to practice the two-word verb ring up.

Teacher : He rang me up in the morning.

" : noon

Student A : He rang me up at noon.

Teacher : Monday

Student B : He rang me up on Monday.

Teacher : afternoon

Student C : He rang me up in the afternoon.

d. Addition: The teacher gives the key sentence orally. The students are asked to repeat it. Then the teacher gives an additional form to be added at the end (or at the beginning) of the previous sentence. The exercise below is used to practice look over.

Teacher : The doctor looked over his patient.

Students : The doctor looked over his patient.

Teacher : In his office

Student A : The doctor looked over his patient in his office.

Teacher : Yesterday

Student B : The doctor looked over his patient in his office yesterday.

Teacher : Morning

Student C : The doctor looked over his patient in his office yesterday morning.

Pattern practice was first received very enthusiastically by some teachers. But they gradually came to the conclusion that this approach usually neglects meaningful situations. Now it is generally believed that, "As a teaching device pattern practice has serious dangers,"<sup>14</sup> therefore it should be handled very carefully.

2. Through Situations: Contextualization should be regarded as a complimentary device to make up for the shortcoming of pattern practice. We must teach not only the structure of the language, but also how to use the structures meaningfully in real situations. "The teacher should give his pupils the opportunity to use the sounds themselves to explore the situation. They must experience language, live in it, not merely understand it; every moment, every process, every wish, every need must be introduced by words, commented on in words and dismissed by words. But action should always come before expression."<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>14</sup>David H. Harding, The New Patterns of Language Teaching, (Great Britain: Longmans, 1967), p. 46.

<sup>15</sup>F. L. Billows, The Techniques of Language Teaching (London: Longmans, 1961), p. 3.

Assuming the teacher is going to teach the two-word verbs take off and put on. He may create a situation like this:

I'm going to take off my coat. I'm taking it off now. What am I doing? I'm taking off my coat. Mr. A, (a student) you take off your coat please. What are you doing? (to B) what is Mr. A doing? Now I'm putting on my coat. What am I doing? I'm putting it on now. Mr. A, put on your coat please. What are you doing? What's he doing? When do you take off your coat? When do you put on your coat?...

Little by little the students begin to take part in the use of the words and patterns. Throughout the process the teacher will not explain the words. The repetition of the words and patterns in situations that are perfectly clear bring the language into the mind without much effort.

3. Through Dialogues and Conversations: One of the successful devices for giving students a lot of practice in words and patterns is using dialogues. Dialogues are short conversations memorized by students and recited in the class. They provide meaningful contexts, and situations which are quite

similar to real situations. "When students practice a dialogue, they are using English as they will hear and speak it outside of class. Therefore, it is real rather than artificial practice."<sup>16</sup>

Every dialogue for teaching should:

- a. focus on one specific learning point at a time to draw the student's attention to a single word or pattern, e.g. few, a few, some, any, too, or let him do it. Make him do it.
- b. be short enough to be memorized and practiced easily and quickly. Its length at the initial stages must not be more than six short sentences.
- c. be equally divided between the speakers/
- d. be natural conversations of recurrent situations - situations that occur again and again; greetings, shopping, answering questions about addresses, etc.<sup>17</sup> Here

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<sup>16</sup>Center for English Language Research and Teaching, Teaching English Dialogues (Beirut: American University of Beirut), p. 3.

<sup>17</sup>Ibid.



is one example: (Focus: the two-word verb  
find out)

Ahmad and Bahram are talking about their lessons.

Ahmad : Did you find out the answer to the first question?

Bahram : No, I didn't; but I found the answers to the  
second one.

Ahmad : How did you find out that?

Bahram : As a matter of fact, I found it out by chance.

### The Nature of the Teaching Materials

1. These lessons are prepared for oral work in the classroom.

2. The lessons do not teach merely the meaning of words; they teach how to use them in context.

3. The primary devices for presenting the lexical items in these lessons are demonstration and situation; i.e. dialogues, short stories, and self-defining sentences.

4. The situation portion of each lesson is meant to be presented on the blackboard or on duplicated papers and to be carefully read by the teacher and then by the students.

5. The meaningful situations on which the lessons are based are to be used as models for the production of further material when it is needed.

## Lesson I



Get up: to rise (from bed, from a sitting or lying position).

Teacher: Look at me. I'm getting up (Demonstrate that you are getting up from your chair. Repeat the sentence while you are doing so.)

Teacher: What am I doing: I'm getting up (Write "get up" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times).

T:<sup>18</sup> A, get up please

What are you doing?

A: I'm getting up.

Sit down please.

What are you doing:

A: I'm sitting down

B, now you get up

C, What is B doing?

C: He's getting up.

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<sup>18</sup>T stands for the word Teacher and S stands for the word Student.

(It is necessary, of course, to tell the pupils to perform these sequences slowly so that there is time for oral work. Such instructions may be given in the mother tongue).

T: : Look at this picture now.

Ahmad is getting up.

What 's he doing:

He's getting up. (Point to the clock in the picture and ask):

What time is it? Class: It's seven o'clock.

Ahmad is getting up at seven o'clock.

B, what's Ahmad doing? B: He's getting up.

C, when is he getting up? C: He's getting up at seven o'clock.

D, when do you get up everyday? D: I get up at \_\_\_\_\_.

E, when does your mother get up everyday? E: She gets up at \_\_\_\_\_.

F, when does your father get up everyday? F: He gets up at \_\_\_\_\_.

T: A asks B the question: when do you get up every morning? B gives an answer and asks C the same question and so forth: Example:

A (to B): when do you get up every morning?

B : I get up at \_\_\_\_\_.

B (to C): when do you get up every morning?

C : I get up at \_\_\_\_\_.

C (to D): .....

## Lesson Two

Take OffPut On

Teacher: I'm hot. I'm going to take off my coat. I'm taking off my coat. What am I doing? I'm taking off my coat, or I'm taking my coat off.

(write the following sentences on the board)

1. You are taking off your coat.
2. You are taking your coat off.
3. You are taking it off.

(Let your students see the differences in the structure of these sentences. Explain to them that in this pattern, there is the possibility of placing the noun object before or after the particle; but when the object is a pronoun, it always must be placed before the particle; that is, between the verb and its adverbial particle. These are called separable two-word verbs vs. inseparable ones like get up. You may explain all this in the mother tongue. You may write "take off" on the board and practice its pronunciation).

Direction: The teacher asks a question. The first student gives an unseparated form answer (No. 1). The

second student changes that answer into a separated form answer (No. 2); and the third student replaces a pronoun for the object.

Example:

- T: I'm taking off my coat.  
 What am I doing?
- A: You are taking off your coat
- B: You are taking your coat off.
- C: You are taking it off.

Now begin the exercise:

- T: I'm taking off my jacket.  
 What am I doing?
- A: You are taking off your jacket.
- B: You are taking your jacket off.
- C: You are taking it off.

(Now call upon individuals to come to the front of the class and do what you tell them to do. Ask question about their actions.)

T (to A) : Come here, please. Take off your coat.

T (to S) : What's he doing?

- B: He's taking off his coat
- C: He's taking his coat off.
- D: He's taking it off.

(Continue this exercise with other students using the words watch, cap, jacket, etc. When take off is practiced thoroughly, teach put on.)

T: I'm cold now. I'm going to put on my coat.  
 (Demonstrate) I'm putting on my coat. What  
 am I doing?

A: You are putting on your coat.

B: You are putting your coat on.

C: You are putting it on.

(Write "put on" on the board and practice its pronunciation.  
 Then call upon individuals to come to your desk and perform  
 your orders. Ask them to give their answers in the three  
 different forms.)

T (to A) : Put on your coat, please.

T (to S) : What's he doing?

He's putting on his coat.

He's putting his coat on.

He's putting it on.

(Tell other students to put on their watch, cap, jacket,  
glasses, etc. and ask them to answer your questions.)

(Have your students copy these tables).

put on	your coat your cap your shoes	- - -
put	your coat your cap your shoes	on
put	it them	on

take off	your coat your cap your shoes	- - -
put	your coat your cap your shoes	on
put	it them	on

## Lesson Three

Go on; Go on with (= continue)

T: (to class) Open your books to page\_\_\_\_\_.

T: A, read your lesson, please.

(When he is reading, interrupt him somehow and then say):

T: Go on reading, A.

(You may have two students, A and B, write or draw something on the board. While they are doing so, stop A, but let B continue).

T: A stopped writing, but B is going on writing on the board.

T (to A) : Do you go on with your work after four o'clock?

A: No, I don't go on with my work after four o'clock.

T (to B) : Do you go on with your reading after 12 o'clock (P.M)?

B: No, I don't go on with my reading after 12.

T: Now I ask you to do something; while you are doing it the boy next to you says, Let's go and play; and you answer: I'm sorry; I must go on with my work. Example:

T (to C) : Go and clean the board.

D (to C) : Let's go and play.

C (to D) : I'm sorry; I must go on with my work.

Now begin the exercise.



T (to S) : Write some sentences on the board.

Open your book to page\_\_\_\_, and read your lesson.

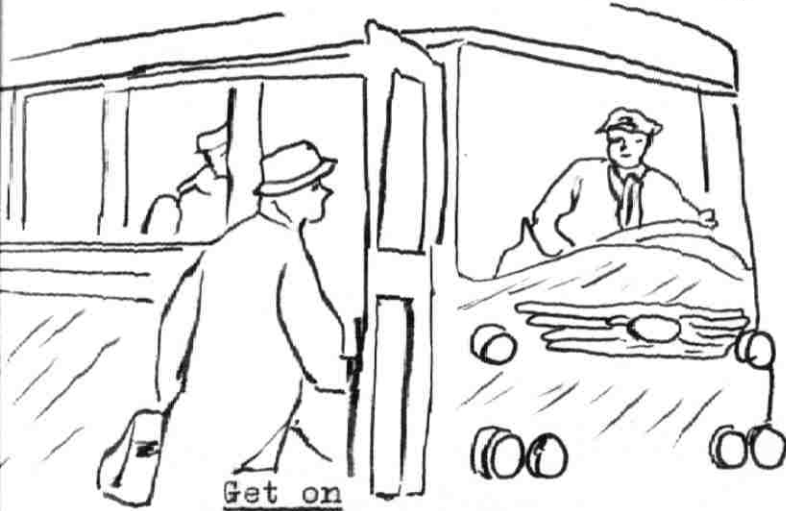
Write some sentences on a piece of paper.

Draw a picture of a glass

Draw a picture of an animal.

Have your students copy this table:

go on	writing reading
stop	working playing



Get on



Get off (=leave)

T: Look at this picture. Mr. Roshan is getting on the bus. He's a teacher. He goes to school by bus. He's getting on the bus now. What's he doing? He's getting on the bus. Now repeat after me; he's getting on the bus.

(Write "get on" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times.)

T (to A.) : What's Mr. Roshan doing: A: He's getting on the bus.

T (to B.) : What's he getting on: B: He's getting on the bus.

T (to C.) : Is he getting on a bus or a train: C: He's getting on a bus.

T (to D.) : Do you get on a bus or a train every morning? D : I get on a bus every morning.

T (to E.) : Do you like to get on a bus or a train E: I would like to get on a train.

(When this verb is practiced thoroughly, start teaching the verb get off).

T: Now look at this picture. This is Nasreen. She's a student. She's coming from school. She comes by bus. She's getting off the bus now. What's she doing? she's getting off the bus. Repeat after me; she's getting off the bus.

(Write "get off" on the board, and have the class repeat it after you two or three times. Listen for the difference between "off" and "of").

T (to A.) : What's Nasreen doing? A: She's getting off the bus.

T (to B.) : What's she getting off? B: She's getting off the bus.

T (to C.) : What's she getting off C: She's getting off a bus.  
a bus or a train?

T (to D.) : Do you get on a bus or D: I get on a bus.  
a train everyday?

T (to E.) : What would you like to get on, a horse or a bus? E: I would like to get on a horse.

(a chain drill)

T: A asks B the question When do you get on the bus every morning? B answers and then asks C the same question, and so on.

Example:

A (to B) : When do you get on the bus every morning?

B : I get on the bus at \_\_\_\_\_.

B (to C ) : When do you get on the bus every morning?

C:: I get on the bus at \_\_\_\_\_.

(Have your students copy this table).

get on	a bus a horse
get off	a train a boat 19

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<sup>19</sup>We don't use get on , or get off for taxi and car

## Lesson Five

Blow Out

(Have a match box and a candle. Strike a match and blow it out. Then have a student strike a match and you blow it out.)

T: What did I do?

I blew out the match. I blew the match out.

I blew it out.

(Write "blow out" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times. Tell the students that this is a separable two-word verb. Now ask A to light the candle and B to blow it out. Ask them to answer the questions in the three different forms).

T: What did B do?

C: He blew out the candle

D: He blew the candle out.

E: He blew it out.

(You may write the four above sentences on the board. Then strike matches and ask individuals to blow them out and answer your questions.)

T (to D.) : Blow out this match.

T (to others): What did he do?

F : He blew out the match.

G : He blew the match out.

I : He blew it out.

(You may continue this exercise as long as you think necessary. Have your students copy this table).

Blow out	The lamp The candle The match The cigarette lighter	-
Blow -	The lamp The candle The match The cigarette lighter	out
Blow .	The lamp The candle The match The cigarette lighter	out

## Lesson Six

Look for (= seek)

(Put your pen, pencil, or glasses, etc., somewhere between or under the books or paper on your desk. Don't let the pupils notice it. Pretend that you have really lost it. Have the attention of the class. Ask them about your lost pen, pencil..)

T: Where is my pencil? Where did I put it? It was here on my desk. Let me look for it.

(Demonstrate). I'm looking for my pencil.

What am I doing? I'm looking for my pencil.

(Write "look for" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times.)

T (to A) : What was I doing?     A: You were looking for your pencil.

T (to B) : When do we look for something?     B: We look for something when we have lost it.

T (to C) : If you lose your book, what will you do?     C: I will look for it.

T: Now let's play a game. I send one of you, for example, A out of class for a while. When he is out, I'll give this red pencil to somebody. Then A enters the class and goes to those who might have the pencil.

Student X (to A): What are you looking for?

A : I'm looking for a red pencil

Don't look for it here. I don't have it.

X : or

You are right. Look for it in my desk  
(bag, desk).

(A is not allowed to ask more than five students. Then  
somebody else is sent out.)



## Lesson Seven

Run away (=go away quickly)

Run after (=try to catch)



T: Look at this picture. The cat is afraid of the dog. It is running away from the dog. What's the cat doing? It is running away.

(Write "run away" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times. Listen for correct pronunciation of /w/ which might be confused with /v/.)

T. (to A): What is the cat doing? A: The cat is running away from the dog.

T (to B): Why is the cat running away? B: The cat is running away because it is afraid.

T (to C): If you are afraid of something, do you run away? C: Yes I do; or yes I run away.

T (to D): What do you do if you are afraid of something? D: I run away from it.

T (to E): When do you run away from something? E: I run away when I'm afraid of it.

(When the students have mastered this verb, teach "run after" point to the dog in the picture and say:)

T : The dog is running after the cat. What's the dog doing? It's running after the cat.

(Write "run after" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times).

T (to A): What is the dog doing? A: It's running after the cat.

T (to B): What is running after the cat. B: The dog is running after the cat.

T (to C): When do you run after a bus. C: I run after a bus when I want to catch it.

T (to D): When you play football, what do you run after? D: I run after the ball, when I play football.

T (to E): Do dogs run after cats, or do cats run after dogs? E: Dogs run after cats.

T (to F): Do dogs run away from cats, or do cats run away from dogs? F: Cats run away from dogs.

(you may let A run after B in the school yard and the other students watch them through the doors or windows.)

T: What's A doing? Class: He's running after B.

T: What's B doing? Class: He's running away from A.

T: Who is running after B?

T: Who is running away from A?

## Lesson Eight

Look out

T: Ahmad and Bahram are talking together. They are going to cross the street, but the street is not clear. A car is coming fast. They do not notice it. Their friend Bahman sees this and shouts: "Look out!" a car is coming."

(Write "look out!" on the board and practice its pronunciation. The tone of voice might help the students to infer the meaning easily.)

T : "Look out!" means be careful. There is danger.

T (to A): What did Bahman shout? A: He shouted "look out!"

T (to B): Why did he shout "look out"? B: He shouted "look out" because a car was coming.

T (to C): What does "look out" mean? C: It means be careful, watch out.

T (to D): When do you use it? D: We use "look out" when there is danger.

T : Now I'll give you each a sentence. Add "look out" to the beginning of the sentence and repeat the whole sentence. Example:

T (to A): There's a car coming. A: Look out! there's a car coming.

Now begin the exercise:

T (to B): There's a bus coming    B: Look out! There's a bus coming.

T           : There's a dangerous dog

T           : There's a fire.

T           : There's a dangerous man here

T           : Something is falling down.

T           : A train is coming.

## Lesson Nine

Put out

(Have a lighted cigarette and demonstrate how you put it out).

T : I'm going to put out my cigarette.

I'm putting it out.

What am I doing?

I'm putting out my cigarette.

(Write "put out" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Now set fire to a small piece of paper and then put the fire out. Make sure not to do a messy job. Put the fire out immediately. While you are doing so, say:)

T : I'm putting out the fire

What am I doing?

Class : You are putting out the fire.

(Write the following sentences on the board)

1. You are putting out the fire
2. You are putting the fire out.
3. You are putting it out.

(ask individuals to put out a lighted candle, a lighted cigarette, or a burning match and answer your questions in the three different forms.

T (to A): Put out the candle

T : What did he do?

B : He put out the candle

C : He put the candle out.

D : He put it out.

T (to B): Put out the cigarette

T : What did he do?

E : He put out the cigarette.

F : He put the cigarette out.

G : He put it out.

T (to C): Put out this match.

T : What did he do?

I : He put out the match.

J : He put the match out.

K : He put it out.

(Try to show the difference between put out and blow out by putting out a cigarette and blowing out a candle. Have your students copy this table).

put out	the fire the candle the cigarettes	-
put -	The fire the candle the cigarettes	out
put .	it them	out

## Lesson Ten

Turn onTurn off

T : Look at me, please. I'm going to turn on the light.

(Demonstrate).

What did I do?

I turned on the light.

I turned the light on.

I turned it on.

(Write "turn on" on the board. Practice its pronunciation)

T : I turn on the radio when I want to hear the news.

T (to A): When do you turn on the radio?      A: I turn on the radion when \_\_\_\_\_.

T (to B): When do you turn on the radio?      B: I turn on the radio when \_\_\_\_\_.

T : Now I'm going to turn off the light (Demonstrate).

I turned it off.

What did I do?

Class : You turned off the light

You turned ~~the~~ light off.

You turned it off.

Direction: Ask one student either to turn on or turn off the light. Ask questions about it and have other students answer in the three different forms.



T : A, turn on the light.

What did he do?

B : He turned on the light.

C : He turned the light on.

D : He turned it on.

T : B, turn off the light.

What did he do?

E : He turned off the light.

He turned the light off

He turned it off.

(Call upon individuals to answer your questions)

T : Answer the following questions:

When do you turn on the water?

When do you turn on the radio?

What do you do when you want to stop the radio?

When do you turn off the water?

When do you turn off the light?

When do you want to wash your hands, do you turn on the light or do you turn on the water?

(Have your students copy this table):

turn on	the radio the light the water	-
turn -	the radio the light the water	on
turn _	it  them	on

turn off	the radio the light the water	-
turn _	the radio the light the water	off
turn -	it  them	off

## Lesson Eleven

Look after (= to take care of)

T : Nasreen looks after her little sister when her mother is out. But today she is looking after her mother because her mother is not well. Nasreen likes to be a nurse. She knows that nurses look after soldiers in hospitals.

(Write " look after" on the board and have your students repeat it after you two or three times.)

T (to A): What does Nasreen do when her mother is out?

A : She looks after her little sister.

T (to B): What's she doing today?

B : She's looking after her mother today.

T (to C): Why is she looking after her mother?

C: She's looking after her mother because her mother is not well.

T (to D): What do nurses do in hospitals?

D : They look after soldiers.

T (to E): What does Nasreen know about nurses?

E : She knows that nurses look after soldiers in hospitals.

T (to F): Who looks after your little brother (sister)?

F : My mother looks after my little brother

T (to G): Do you look after your little brother or sister?

G : I look after my little \_\_\_\_\_.

T (to H): Do you need any body to look after you?

H : No I don't.

T (to I): What does your mother do when you aren't well?

I : My mother looks after me when I'm not well.

T (to class): Be careful! don't let your little brothers  
or sisters play in the road. Look after them.

## Lesson Twelve

Call at (= go to)

keep on (-ing = continue, go on)

Ahmad is going to call at the post office and buy some stamps.

Mother: What are you going to do now?

Ahmad : I'm going to call at the post office

Mother: Why are you going to call at the post office?

Ahmad : Well, I'm going to buy some stamps for my collection.

Mother: If you keep on buying so many stamps, you'll spend a lot of money.

Ahmad : O.K. If you don't like it, I won't keep on buying stamps.

(Write "call at" on the board and practice its pronunciation)

T (to A): What's Ahmad going to do? A: He's going to call at the post office.

T (to B): Why is he going to call at the post office? B: He's going to call at the post office to buy some stamps.

T (to C): Do you call at the post office everyday? C: No I don't.

T (to D): Is Ahmad going to keep on buying stamps. D: No he isn't

T (to E): Why isn't Ahmad going to keep on buying stamps? E: He is not going to keep on buying stamps because his mother doesn't like it.

T : Substitute the words that I give you in the sentence: I keep on calling at the shop everyday.

(Write the sentence on the board and have your students repeat it after you a few times.) Example:

T : I keep on calling at the shop everyday.  
Every evening.

S : I keep on calling at the shop every evening.

T : Now begin the exercise:

I keep on calling at the shop every evening

every morning

every day

very often

the office

every evening

every week

every month

the hospital

every day

every week

every month

school

every morning

every afternoon.

## Lesson Thirteen

sit up (=not to go to bed at usual hour).

Ahmad and Bahram are talking.

Ahmad : You seem sleepy today. Are you?

Bahram: Yes, I am. Last night my brother went to the cinema and I sat up until he came back.

Ahmad : Do you usually sit up late and read?

Bahram: No, my mother usually won't let me but when I have exams I have to sit up late and prepare for them.

(Write "sit up" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times).

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| T (to A): Why does Bahram seem sleepy?                | A: Bahram seems sleepy because he sat up late last night. |
| T (to B): How long did he sit up?                     | B: He sat up until his brother came.                      |
| T (to C): Who won't let Bahram sit up late?           | C: His mother won't let him sit up late.                  |
| T (to D): What does Bahram do when he has exams?      | D: He sat up late to prepare for the exams.               |
| T (to E): When do you sit up late?                    | E: I sit up late when_____.                               |
| T (to F): Do you ever sit up late? When?              | F: I sit up late when_____.                               |
| T (to G): Why do you sit up late when you have exams? | G: I sit up to prepare for them.                          |
| T (to H): Who, in your family sits up late?           | H: My father usually sits up late.                        |

T (to class): They say children ought not to sit up late;  
why not?



## Lesson Fourteen

Hand roundHand in

(Today you are supposed to teach some words about examination.<sup>20</sup> It seems a good device to plan a very short and easy quiz for this purpose).

T : Here are the exam papers and questions. I'm going to hand round these sheets of paper first. (Write "hand round" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times.) I'm handing round the papers. Now Ahmad and Bahram, will you hand round the questions?

T (to class): What are they doing?

class : They are handing round the questions.

T : You have five (ten) minutes to answer the questions.  
(after ten minutes)

Stop and hand in your papers. (again write "hand in" on the board and have the class repeat it after you.)

T : Hand in your papers very quickly.

You are handing in your papers.

T (to B): What did Ahmad do? B: He handed round the questions.

T (to C): What did Bahram do? C: He handed round the questions too.

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<sup>20</sup>The title of lesson eighteen is Examination (p.106). Try to make the quiz very easy to avoid confusion and nervousness.

- T (to D): What did you do after D: I handed in my paper.  
ten minutes?
- T (to E): Who hands round choco-  
lates and cakes when you  
have some guests?
- T (to F): Do you usually forget to  
hand in your homework?
- T (to G): What do you do with your  
paper at the end of a quiz?

## Lesson Fifteen

Turn over

(Demonstrate)

T : I'm turning over some pages of the book. What am I doing? I'm turning over some pages.

(Write "turn over" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions in the three different forms.)

T : What am I doing?

A : You are turning over some pages

B : You are turning some pages over.

C : You are turning them over.

T (to class): Open your books to page forty.

Now turn two pages over.

T (to S): What did you do?

A : I turned over two pages.

B : I turned two pages over.

C : I turned them over.

T (to D): How many pages did you turn over?

D : I turned over two pages.

T (to E): Turn over your book.

What did **you** do?

I turned over my book.

I turned my book over.

I turned it over.

(Have your students copy this table).

turn over	two pages one page	-
turn -	two pages one page	over
turn -	it them	over

## Lesson Sixteen

Hand over

T : One day a dangerous man ran away from prison.  
But a farmer caught him and handed him over  
to the police again.

T : What did the farmer do?  
He handed over to the police.

(Write "hand over" on the board and practice its pronunciation. Call upon individuals to answer your questions in the three different forms).

T (to S): What did the farmer do?

A : He handed over the man to the police.

B : He handed the man over to the police.

C : He handed him over to the police.

T (to D): Who was handed over to the police?

D : The dangerous man was handed over to the police.

T (to E): Will you hand over that book to me?

T (to S): What did he do?

F: He handed over the book to you.

G: He handed the book over to you.

H : He handed it<sup>over</sup> to you.

T (to I): Hand over that note-book to J.

T (to S): What did he do:

K : He handed over that notebook to J.

L : He handed that note-book over to J.

M : He handed it over to J.

(Have your students copy this table).

Hand over	that book those books	-
Hand _	that book those books	over
Hand _	it them	over

## Lesson Seventeen

set off (= start going somewhere)

T : "To set off" means to start going somewhere. For example, I set off for school every morning at eight. Yesterday Bahram's father set off for a long journey. He will be away from home for a long time.

(Write "set off" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times. Listen for the difference between off and of).

- |           |   |    |  |
|-----------|---|----|--|
| T (to A): | When do I set off for school?                     | A: | You set off for school at eight.                     |
| T (to B): | What did Bahram's father do yesterday?            | B: | He set off for a journey                             |
| T (to C): | When do you set off for school?                   | C: | I set off for school at 7:30.                        |
| T (to D): | When does your father set off for his office?     | D: | My father sets off for his office at six.            |
| T (to E): | When are you going to set off for a journey?      | E: | Well, I'm not going to set off for a journey at all. |
| T (to F): | When did Bahram's father set off for the journey? | F: | He set off for the journey yesterday.                |
| T (to G): | When did your... set off for the journey?         | G: | He (she) set off a month ago.                        |

- T (to H): When do you set off for home every afternoon?      H: I set off for home at four o'clock.
- T (to I): Have you ever set off for a long journey?      I: No, I haven't.
- T (to class:) Who has ever set off for a long journey? when and where?
- T (to class:) What's the meaning of "set off?"



## Lesson Eighteen

Look forward to

T : "Look forward to" means expect and think about something that will make one happy .

For example: I am looking forward to a long journey. Students look forward to the holidays. Ahmad is looking forward to moving into a new house. And Bahram ~~is~~ looking forward to a visit from his aunt. What is he looking forward to? He's looking forward to a visit from his aunt.

(Write "look forward" on the board and have the class repeat it after you a few times)

- |           |                                   |    |   |
|-----------|-----------------------------------|----|---|
| T (to A): | What am I looking forward to?     | A: | You are looking forward to a long journey.        |
| T (to B): | What do students look forward to? | B: | They look forward to holidays.                    |
| T (to C): | What is Ahmad looking forward to? | C: | He is looking forward to moving into a new house. |
| T (to D): | What's Bahram looking forward to? | D: | He is looking forward to a visit from his aunt.   |
- T : Let's have a chain drill now. I'll ask A what are you looking forward to? A gives an answer and asks B the same question and so forth. Example:

T (to E): What are you looking for- E: I'm looking forward  
ward to? to a visit to the zoo.

E (to F): What are you looking for- F: I'm looking forward  
ward to? to \_\_\_\_\_.

F (to G): What are you looking for-  
ward to?

Lesson NineteenFind out

Bahram and Nasreen are sleeping in their bedroom. A strange noise wakes them up early in the morning. They are afraid. Bahram goes to find out what the noise is, but he finds out nothing. They tell their parents about the noise. The father goes out and finds out that it is a cat.

(Write "find out" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times).

T (to A): Why does Bahram go out? A: He goes out to find out what the noise is.

T (to B): What does he find out? B: He finds out nothing.

T (to C): What does the father find out? C: He finds out that the noise is a cat.

T (to D): If you want to find out the answer to a problem what do you do? D: If I want to find out the answer to a problem I solve it.

T : Change the following sentences into the sentence, I'll try to find out wh— it is. Example:

T : Somebody has taken your book S: I'll try to find out who he is.

T (to E): Somebody came to see you E: I'll try to find out who he was.

T (to F): I have found something F: I'll try to find out what it is.

T (to G): Ahmad has been somewhere. G: I'll try to find out where it was.

T (to H): Something has happened H: I'll try to find out what it was.

T (to K): I have found somebody's cap. K: I'll try to find out whose it is.<sup>21</sup>

(Have your students copy this table)

Go and		what has happened
Run and	find out	who did it where he put it
Try to		why he hasn't come whose it is

---

<sup>21</sup>"Find out" is always followed by a clause. Generally speaking we find things but we find out facts.

## Lesson Twenty

Set outSet up

Ahmad and Bahram set out for a walk this morning. They set out at six o'clock. It's twelve o'clock now and they are tired out. It's very hot and there are no trees. So they decide to set up their little tent and rest.

Ahmad: I think we **have** been walking for a long time. Do you remember when we set out?

Bahram: Yes, we set out at six o'clock.

Ahmad: There are no trees here and the sun is very hot. Let's set up our tent.

Bahram: But I don't know how to set up a tent.

Ahmad: Well, I'll show you how (to).

(Write "set out" and "set up" on the board. Practice their pronunciations. You may explain "set up" in the mother tongue.)

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| T (to A): When did they set out for a walk?         | A: They set out at six o'clock.                     |
| T (to B): What did they set out for?                | B: They set out for a walk.                         |
| T (to C): When did they set up their tents?         | C: They set up their tents at 12 o'clock.           |
| T (to D): Why did they set up their tents?          | D: They set up their tents because it was very hot. |
| T (to E): When do you usually set out for school?   | E: I set out for school at 8:00.                    |
| T (to F): When are you going to set out for a walk? | F: I'm going to set out for a walk at _____.        |
| T (to G): Do you know how to set up a tent?         | G: Yes I do, (No I don't).                          |

## Lesson Twenty One

Keep up (=maintain)

T : We Persians keep up some old customs. No-ruz is kept up all over Iran. We keep up these customs because we like them.

(Write "keep up" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times.)

T (to A): What do we keep up? A: We keep up some old customs.

T (to B): Why do we keep them up? B: We keep them up because we like them.

T (to C): What old custom is kept up all over Iran? C: No-Ruz is kept up all over Iran.

T (to D): Do you keep up your friendship with others or not? D: I try to keep up my friendship with others.

T (to E): Mention another old Iranian custom which is kept up all over Iran. E: Char Shanbeh Soori is another old custom which is still kept up all over Iran.

T (to F): What are some good customs which you'd like to keep up? F: I'd like to keep up\_\_\_\_\_.

T : Replace the noun object with a pronoun and change the position of the object. Example:

T : We keep up old customs. S: We keep them up.

We don't keep up bad customs

The soldiers kept up the attack all night.

We keep up old customs because we like them.

Persians keep up No-Ruz.

Some Arabs keep up the old custom of wearing veils.

## Lesson Twenty Two

Make up

Ahmad and Bahram are talking about their compositions.

Ahmad : Have you taken the story from a book?

Bahram: No, I made it up by myself. I usually make up good stories.

Ahmad : My sister can make up good stories too, but I can't.

Bahram: You can make up good jokes instead.

(Write "make up" on the board and practice its pronunciation. Write these sentences on the board)

1. Bahram made up the stories.
2. Bahram made the stories up.
3. Bahram made them up.

(Remind the students of the separable two-word verbs and the position of the object.)

T (to A): Has Bahram made up the story or has he taken it from a book?      A: He has made it up.

T (to B): What does Bahram usually make up?      B: He usually makes up good stories.

T (to C): What does Ahmad's sister make up?      C: She makes up good stories too.



T (to D): Can you make up funny stories or sad stories? D: I can make up funny stories or sad stories?

T (to E): Do you usually make up good jokes or good excuses? E: I usually make up good excuses.

T : Replace the noun object with the pronoun and change the position of the object. Example:

Bahram made up the stories

I make up good poems

He made an excuse

My brother can make up funny stories

Last week he made up a funny story

I usually make up good excuses.

Work out

Ahmad and Bahram are returning home from school.

Ahmad : We have a holiday tomorrow.

Would you like to go to the movies with me?

Bahram: Yes, I would like to; but I have some  
difficult mathematic problems to work out.  
By the way, have you made up the story for  
our composition?

Ahmad : I've already got a good idea, but I haven't  
properly worked it out yet.

(Write "work out" on the board and ask the class to repeat it  
after you two or three times).

T : "Work out" means "to find a definite or desired  
result. Work it out = find the result; find the  
right way to do it.

: What does Bahram have to work out?

: What does he want to do with his mathematic problems:

: What hasn't Bahram worked out yet?

- T : Do you work out your plans or do you forget about them?
- : Are you working out any plan now?
- T : Replace the object with the pronoun and make the necessary change in the word order. Example:
- T : I made up that story      S: I made it up.
- T : Bahram makes up the stories
- : Ahmad's sister makes up good stories too.
- : I'd like to make up a composition.
- : I can make up sad stories.
- : My brother can make up funny stories.
- : He's very quick at making up excuses.
- : The newspapers made up this news.
- : Who has made up this story?
- : Who has made up such a lie?

## Lesson Twenty Four

Break intoBreak down

A thief breaks into Mr. Roshan's office a little after dark. A policeman sees him and tries to arrest him. The thief quickly gets into a car and escapes. But after a few miles his car breaks down and he can't go any farther. A policeman arrives in time and arrests him.

(Write "break into" on the board and practice its pronunciation).

T : "Break into" means enter somewhere by force.

Thieves break into other people's shops or houses.

T (to A): What did the thief do soon after dark? A: He broke into Mr. Roshan's office.

T (to B): What did the thief break into? B: He broke into Mr. Roshan's office.

T (to C): When did he break into Mr. Roshan's office? C: He broke into the office a little after dark.

T (to D): What do thieves do? D: They break into other people's shops or houses.

T (to E): What does "break into" mean? E: It means to enter somewhere by force.

(Now write "break down" on the board and practice its pronunciation).

- T : "Break down" means fail to act; stop working properly. When something breaks down it needs repairing.
- T (to A): What happened to the thief's car? A: It broke down.
- T (to B): Why couldn't the thief go any farther? B: He couldn't go any farther because his car had broken down.
- T (to C): If something breaks down, what does it need? C: If something breaks down it needs repairing.
- T (to D): When does your car need repairing? D: My car needs repairing when it breaks down.
- T (to E): When do thieves usually break into houses? E: They usually break into houses at night.

## Lesson Twenty Five

Put down

(Demonstrate. Sit at your desk and begin to write something. Have the attention of the class and say:)

T : I'm putting down your names.  
       What am I doing?  
       I'm putting down your names.  
       I'm putting your names down.  
       I'm putting them down.

(Write "put down" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions in the three different forms).

T : "Put down" means write. I was putting down your names (= I was writing your names). Now every body put down his (her) name.

T (to A): What did you do?  
       I put down my name  
       I put my name down  
       I put it down.

T (to S): What did C do?  
       B : He put down his name.  
       D : He put his name down.  
       E : He put it down.

T (to F): Put down my name, please.

What did he do?

G G : He put down your name.

H : He put your name down.

I : He put it down.

T : What do you put down in your diary?

What do you put down in your notebook?

T : Replace the **noun** object with the pronoun and change the position of the object. Example:

T : I put down my name, S: I put it down.

I put down the student's name

I was putting down something.

You put down my name

Ahmad puts down some notes in his diary.

Would you like to put his name down?

Whom would you like to put these notes down?

## Lesson Twenty Six

Ring upRing off

Ahmad and Bahram are fellow students. They are close friends. One day Bahram doesn't go to school. They both have private telephones at home. So, Ahmad decides to ring up Bahram and ask if he is ill. He rings Bahram up and asks after his health. When their talk is over, Ahmad wishes Bahram good health and rings him off.

(Write "ring up" on the board and practice its pronunciation and call upon individuals to answer your questions.)

T : What does Ahmad decide to do?

Who rings up Bahram?

Whom does Ahmad ring up?

Why does Ahmad ring up Bahram.

When do you ring up your friends?

If you want to talk to a friend who has a private telephone what can you do?

Did anybody ring up when I was out?

(Write "ring off" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times).

T : "Ring off" means put the receiver back. Last night my friend rang me up. He said what he had to say, and then, before I could reply, he rang off.



T : Answer the following questions:

When did Ahmad ring off.

What did Ahmad do when their talk was over?

What did my friend do last night?

When did he ring off?

Do you ring off a friend before saying good bye?

If you ring up somebody and the number is engaged, what do you do ?

T : Replace the noun objects with pronouns and make the necessary changes.

T : Ahmad decided to ring up Bahram.

Ahmad rings up his friends.

Bahram rang off Ahmad.

Last night I was going to ring up my brother and sister.

Somebody rang up your father when he was out.

If I get any information, I'll ring up the police.

Don't try to ring up the head master.

Don't ring off your friends while they are still talking.

## Lesson Twenty Seven

Take downGet on with

Bahram was absent for four days. When he returned to school he got some help from Ahmad.

Bahram: How did you get on with our lessons during the past four days?

Ahmad : Not bad.

Bahram: Did you take down all the teachers' notes from the board?

Ahmad : Well, I took down most of them.

Bahram: Please give them to me, so I can take them down.

Ahmad : Sure, here they are.

(Write "take down" on the board and practice its pronunciation. Call upon individuals to answer the questions)

T : Has Ahmad taken down all the notes or part of them?

What did Bahram want to do?

Did he want to take down the notes or to read them?

Do you take down whatever the teacher says or do you only listen?

When do you take down some notes?

What do you take down?

Why do you take down notes?

Why does the teacher take down the students' names?

(Write "get on with" on the board and ask the students to repeat it after you a few times).

T : "Get on with" means proceed with an activity;  
continue with.

T : A asks B "How are you getting on with \_\_\_\_\_."  
( a subject matter)? B gives an answer and  
asks C the same question.

Example:

A (to B): How are you getting on with history?

B : All right.

B (to C): How are you getting on with mathematics?

C : Not bad.

C (to D): .....

## Lesson Twenty Eight

Give upDo without

A man always went to the same cafe at the same time and asked for two cups of coffee. He drank them and then asked for two more.

One day the waiter said to him, "why do you always ask for two cups of coffee? Why don't you ask for one big cup instead?"

The man answered "Because I don't like to drink alone. I drink with my friend."

But a few days later, the man came in and asked for one cup of coffee.

"Oh" said the waiter, "has your friend died?"

"Oh no" said the man, he is very well. This coffee is for him. But I have given up drinking coffee. My doctor has ordered me to do without coffee because it is bad for me.<sup>22</sup>

(Write "give up" on the board and ask the students to repeat it after you two or three times.)

T : "give up" means stop doing something, e.g. I have

<sup>22</sup>Adapted from L.A. Hill, Elementary stories for  
Reproduction, (London: Oxford University Press, 1965), p.7.

given up smoking. I gave up the study of Latin years ago. If you feel that you have a bad habit, you should try to give it up.

Answer the following questions:

Why did the man ask for only one coffee?

Why has he given up drinking coffee?

What has he given up?

When will you give up playing cards?

What have I given up recently?

What did I give up many years ago?

What must you do with your bad habits?

When will your father give up smoking?

Are you going to give up playing cards or are you going to continue it?

If you don't succeed at first, will you give up trying?

(Write "do without" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times).

T : "Do without" means manage without; deny.

Answer these questions:

What has the doctor ordered the man to do?

Why has the doctor ordered him to do without coffee?

If you didn't have a book, would you borrow one or would you do without it?

If you can't afford to buy something, what must you do?

What can't we do without in very cold weather?

Can you do without water?

Can you do without food for a long time?

T : Replace the noun object with the pronoun and  
change the position of the object. Example:

T : I gave up smoking.      S: I gave it up.

The man gave up drinking

I gave up the study of Latin many years ago.

You must try to give up your bad habits.

You mustn't give up trying.

He must give up smoking and drinking.

## Lesson Twenty Nine

Give in

Once Iran was fighting against India. At that time the Persian army was much stronger than Indian army. The Indians fought bravely, but finally had to give in; and their country was ruled by Persians for some time.

(Write "give in" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times).

T : "Give in" means stop fighting, arguing, or struggling. For example: The enemy at last was forced to give in. Last night my brother finally gave in to me (= He agreed that my viewpoints are correct). Don't give in; keep on trying. When somebody has no strength left, he may give in.

T : Answer the questions:

What were Indian soldiers forced to do at last?

Why were Indian soldiers forced to give in?

What was the enemy at last forced to do?

What did my brother do last night finally?

When somebody has no strength left, what might he do?

When do you give in to your friends?

If a man refuses to give in, is he a coward?

Do you usually give in to your parents?

Give an example from history when another country has given in to Iran?

Why should children give in to their parents?

T : A says, I usually give in to my \_\_\_\_\_; Then he asks B What about you? B gives the first structure and asks C the same question. Example:

A : I usually give in to my parents.

A (to B): What about you?

B: I usually give in to my teachers.

B (to C): What about you?

C: .....



## Lesson Thirty

Hand onHand down

Our fathers and grandfathers have handed down to us the result of their work. It is our turn now to add to the result of their struggle and hand it on to the younger generation. We hand on to others what has been handed down to us.

(Write the two verbs on the board and practice their pronunciations. Explain to the students that there is not much difference between them).

- T : "hand on" and "hand down" both mean give. (Call upon individuals to answer the following questions:)
- T : What have our grandfathers done with the result of their work?
- What have they handed down to us?
- What's our duty now?
- What should we hand on to the younger generation?
- Who has handed down to us this culture?
- Why should we hand on the result of our work to others?
- What are we supposed to do with what we have been handed down?
- T : Replace the noun objects with pronouns and make the necessary changes in word order:

: They have handed down the culture.

They have handed on the language and the history.

We have been handed down this civilization.

They have handed down the result of their struggle.

We are supposed to hand on our culture to the younger generation.

## Lesson Thirty One

Carry out

T : "Carry out" means do what is planned; or con-  
tinue to the end, e.g., Sometimes it is easy  
to make plans, but difficult to carry them out.  
Ali won't carry out his promise (=he won't do  
what he has promised to do). We usually carry  
out our plans.

(Write "carry out" on the board and ask the class to repeat  
it after you two or three times).

T : What do we usually carry out?  
Shall I help you carry out your plans?  
Why don't you usually carry out your promise?  
If we make a plan to build a school, what  
might prevent us from carrying it out?  
After making a plan, what would you try to do?  
If you make a promise, what should you try to do?  
What will you pay to a worker who has carried out  
his work?  
What plan have you carried out successfully?  
Mention a plan you have not been able to carry  
out successfully?

T : Replace the noun objects with pronouns and make  
the necessary changes in word order:

T : I carried out the plan. S: I carried it out.

We shall carry out the work as soon as possible

The worker will be paid as soon as he carries out his work.

Most people want to carry out their promises.

The teacher wanted to carry out his threat.

Have you ever carried out a plan successfully?

Who's going to carry out his experiments?

## Lesson Thirty Two

Put up with

T : "put up with" means bear, tolerate, endure.

If we can't cure or change something, we have to put up with it. We have to put up with the diseases which cannot be cured; that is, we have to bear them. In summer we have to put up with the hot weather, and in winter we must put up with snow. If our parents are not understanding, we have to put up with them. The teacher will not put up with a noisy class.

(Write "put up with" on the board and have the class repeat it after you a few times. Call upon individuals to answer the questions.)

T : If we can't change something, what do we have to do?

What must we do with the diseases which cannot be cured?

What do we have to do with bad weather?

What do we have to do with hot weather in summer?

If our parents are not understanding, what must we do with them?

Do you put up with an unkind brother, or do you leave him?

Can you put up with a dirty house?

Do you put up with a bad tempered friend? Or  
do you stop visiting him?

## Lesson Thirty Three

Bring up

T : "Bring up" means to raise, to educate children.  
 Example: Parents bring up their children. My  
 mother has brought up five children. If you  
bring up your children badly, they don't know  
 how to behave. Nowadays to bring up a family  
 costs a good deal of money.

(Write "bring up" on the board and have the class repeat  
 it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to  
 answer the questions.)

T : Who brings up children?  
 How many children have your parents brought up?  
 How many children has your uncle brought up?  
 How many children would you like to bring up?  
 Would you like to bring up faithful children?  
 Why don't some children know how to behave?  
 Does it cost a lot of money to bring up a family?

T : A asks B How many children would you like to  
bring up? B gives an answer and asks C the same  
 question. Example:

A (to B): How many children would you like to bring up?  
 B: I'd like to bring up three children

B (to C): How many children would  
like to bring up?

C: I'd like to bring  
up five children.

C (to D): .....



## Lesson Thirty Four

Make for

A group of hunters were lost in a forest. They didn't know which way to take. One of them suggested to make for a cottage in the valley. The other said, "we shan't get there tonight; we had better make for the nearest village.

(Write "make for" on the board and practice its pronunciation).

T : "make for" means go towards (a goal or objective quickly). Example: A few days ago I set off by car and made for the nearest town.

(Ask individuals):

T : What did one of the hunters suggest?  
 Which direction did he suggest they make for?  
 What did the other say?  
 Why should they make for the nearest village?  
 Ahmad, will you make for the door quickly? What are you doing?  
 Bahram, What's he doing?  
 If a dog makes for you, what would you do?  
 If you're lost in a forest, what should you do?  
 When do you make for the main gate of the school?

## Lesson Thirty Five

Point out

Bahram and his father go shopping. On their way Bahram points out that he needs a new pair of shoes. In the shoe store his father says, "point out the ones you would like". And Bahram points to the finest shoes in the store; but his father points out that they are too expensive for him.

(Write "point out" on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times.)

T : "point out" means show, call or direct the attention to; (call upon individuals to answer your questions):

T : What did Bahram do on their way to the store?  
 What did his father tell him?  
 What did Bahram do?  
 What did his father point out?  
 What would you like to point out to me?  
 What do you want to point out to your father?  
 Do you like people to point out your mistakes?  
 When people point out your mistakes, will you try to correct them?  
 If somebody is wrong, would you point it out directly or indirectly?

## Lesson Thirty Six

Look up

(Demonstrate. Take a dictionary. Write a relatively difficult word on the board. Ask for its meaning. The students might not be able to answer correctly. Pretend that you don't know the meaning of the word either. Suppose the word is frivolous.)

T : What's the meaning of this word? who knows it?  
 Let me look it up. I'm looking up the word in the dictionary. What am I doing? I'm looking up a word.

(After looking up the word, write "look up" on the board and practice its pronunciation: Then write the following sentences:)

What did I do:

1. You looked up a word
2. You looked a word up
3. You looked it up.

(Now give the dictionary to a student and ask him to look up a word for you.<sup>23</sup> While he is looking up the word ask the students to answer your question in the three different forms)

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<sup>23</sup> If your students do not already know how to use a dictionary, take this opportunity and teach them.

T (to A) : Will you look up the word fantasy for me?

: What are you doing?

T (to B) : What's A doing?

T (to C) : What is A looking up in the dictionary?

(Continue this exercise as long as you think **necessary**).

## Lesson Thirty Seven

Break out

Many years ago a terrible fire broke out in London. Many buildings were burned down and many lives were lost. It is said that a few weeks later a dangerous disease broke out, and many more people lost their lives. People were afraid that a war, too, might break out and destroy everything.

(Write break out on the board and have the class repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions:)

- T : "Break out" means begin suddenly.
- T : What happened in London many years ago?  
 What broke out in London many years ago?  
 What happened a few weeks after the fire?  
 What were the people afraid of?  
 When did the First World War break out?  
 When did the Second World War break out?  
 If you saw that a fire was breaking out, what would you do?  
 When did a terrible disease break out in Iran?

If a terrible disease breaks out in a country  
what might happen?

Mention a terrible war which broke out in this  
country.

## Lesson Thirty Eight

Turn out

(Ahmad is telling Bahram about his vacation).

Ahmad : Yesterday we went on a picnic. In the morning the sky was covered with clouds, but after a few hours it turned out to be a fine day. On our way we met a man who turned out to be an old friend of my father's. He helped us very much. On the whole, everything turned out well and we enjoyed ourselves very much.

(Write "turn out" on the board and practice its pronunciation).

T : "Turn out" means prove to be; become; e.g. My closest friend turned out to be unfaithful.

Answer the following questions:

How did the day turn out?

Did the day turn out to be cloudy or fine?

Did the man turn out to be a friend or a stranger?

How did everything turn out on the whole?

Did everything turn out well or bad?

How did yesterday turn out?

Do you think tomorrow will turn out to be cloudy or sunny?

How did my closest friend turn out to be?

## Lesson Thirty Nine

Keep up withSee to

(The teacher is talking with Ali's father).

Father: How is Ali getting along with his studies?

Teacher: Not very well. As a matter of fact, he is so lazy that he can't keep up with the rest of the class; that is, he really cannot learn as much as they do.

Father: It's funny. You say that he can't keep up with the others, but he claims that he is much better than his fellow students.

Teacher: Does he?

Father: Yes, he does. Well, what do you suggest, then?

Teacher: I think that somebody must see to it that he does his work at home.

Father: Sometimes I look at his papers.

Teacher: But it's not enough. There must be someone to see to his work every night.

(First write keep up with on the board and have the class repeat it after you a few times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions):

T : "keep up with" means not get behind. For example:  
The dog ran after the car, but he couldn't keep up with it.



Answer the questions:

- T : What did the teacher say about Ali?  
 Why can't he keep up with the rest of the class?  
 What does Ali himself claim?  
 Can you keep up with your fellow students?  
 Why did the dog run after the car?  
 Have you ever tried to keep up with a bus,? when?  
 Can a hound keep up with a rabbit or a fox?  
 Can a person keep up with a camel or a donkey?

(Now write "see to" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions)

- T : When we say that we'll see to something, we mean that we'll do what is necessary; attend.  
 What did the teacher suggest about Ali?  
 Did Ali need somebody to see to his work?  
 Who sees to your work at home?  
 Who sees to Ali's work at home?  
 Who sees to your father's work when he is on a journey?  
 Who sees to the management of the factory?  
 Who sees to the headmaster's duties when he is away for sometime?  
 Who sees to your teacher's work when he is absent?  
 Whose work do you sometimes see to?

## Lesson Forty

See aboutGet through

Mr. Roshan was moving into a new house. He asked his son, Ahmad, to see about the packing of the furniture. Ahmad saw about everything very carefully. His father was quite pleased with him and when they got through with the moving, Ahmad was highly praised.

(Write "see about" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions.)

T : "see about" means arrange; consider, think about.

What did Mr. Roshan ask his son to do?

What was Ahmad asked to do?

Did Ahmad see about packing books or furniture?

Did Ahmad see about everything carefully or carelessly?

Why was he praised?

Do you see about your father's work in his absence?

Who sees about your teacher's work when he is absent?

Have you ever promised your father or mother to see about something? mention it.

(Now write "get through" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions:)

T : "get through" means finish. For example, He got through with that work in one day (= he finished it in one day.)

When was Ahmad praised?

When do you usually get through with your work everyday?

When does your father get through with his work every evening?

Do you get through with your homework before or after ten o'clock?

Does anybody help you to get through with your work?

I usually get through with my reading at eleven; what about you?

After you get through with your work, will you come to the movie with me?

When will we get through with our lesson today?

## Lesson Forty One

Bring about

Nobody knows what brought about the quarrell between Ahmad and Bahram. Ahmad believes that Bahram's misbehavior brought it about while Bahram says that Ahmad's selfishness caused it.

(Write "bring about" on the board, and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions).

T : "Bring about" means cause, or cause to happen  
e.g. The workers' strike might bring about the fall of the government.

What brought about the quarrel between the two friends?

What does Ahmad believe?

What does Bahram say?

What might bring about the fall of the government?

What usually brings about happiness?

What usually brings about sorrow?

Replace the noun objects with pronouns and make necessary changes in word order. Example:

T : Their selfishness brought about the war      S: Their selfishness brought it about.

Nobody knows what brought about the quarrel.

What brings about success?

Selfishness brings about quarrels  
Money may not bring about happiness.  
Sacrifice brings about friendliness.  
Earthquakes have brought about destruction.  
A terrible war brought about those misfortunes.  
War brings about many diseases.  
Diseases bring about many hardships.  
Kindness brings about peace.

## Lesson Forty Two

Call up

(Write call up on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times.)

T : You may already know one of the meanings of this verb as to telephone, e.g. I'll call up Ahmad this evening. But here "call up" means an order to join the army or navy. e.g. Young men are called up to serve their country. When the war broke out, all those on the reserve list were called up.

T : Answer the following questions:

What are young men called up for?

When would you like to be called up?

When is your brother supposed to be called up?

Do you know when your father was called up?

Is it a good idea to call up young men or not?

When there is a war, who is called up?

Do you think that the old should be called up as well as the young?

Who calls up young people?

Does the government call up the people when there is no war?

Who were called up when the war broke out?

What happened to those who were on the reserve list when the war broke out?

## Lesson Forty Three

Carry on

(Demonstrate. Ask two students A and B to go <sup>to</sup> the black-board and draw something. After sometime stop A, but let B continue his work).

T : O.K. A, you can sit down. But B, you carry on your work.

A stopped his drawing, but B is carrying it on.  
What's he doing? He's carrying on his drawing.

(Write "carry on" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times).

T : "Carry on" means continue to do something, e.g.  
I carried on with my studies during the holidays.

T : A completes the sentence. I'd like to carry on with \_\_\_\_\_, and then asks B, what about you? and so forth.

A : I would like to carry on with my studies during the holidays.

A (to B): What about you? B: I would like to carry on with my **painting** during the holidays.

B (to C): What about you? C: I would like to carry on with my reading during the holidays.

C (to D): What about you?

## Lesson Forty Four

Come acrossTake up

(Ahmad is talking to Bahram)

Ahmad: A few days ago I came across a science book in the bookstore and I bought it. When I was reading it last night, I came across an important point which made me change my mind. Since then I have decided to take up medicine instead of literature.

(Write "come across" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions.)

T : "come across" means happen to meet or find by chance.

What did Ahmad come across?

Did he come across a dictionary or a book?

Did he come across a science book or a history book?

What did he come across when he was reading it?

Have you ever come across an interesting book?

If you come across a difficult word in your reading what do you do?

When your teacher comes across a difficult word which he doesn't know, what does he say?

Did you come across a friend yesterday?



## Lesson Forty Four

Take up

(Now write "take up" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you two or three times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions.)

- T : "Take up" means adopt as a profession, subject for study, begin to do something. For example:  
Last year I took up football.
- T : Why has Ahmad decided to take up medicine?  
What are you going to take up.  
~~Are~~ Are you going to take up medicine or literature?  
Are you going to take up arts or science?  
What's your brother (sister) going to take up?  
What do your parents want you to take up?  
Do you want to take up what your parents want you to?  
What profession are you going to take up?  
Do you prefer to take up teaching or engineering?  
At what age did you take up the study of English?  
At what age are you going to take up the study of Engineering.  
When did you take up football?  
When did you take up basketball?  
When did you take up volleyball?

## Lesson Forty Five

Go in for

T : "go in for" means begin to study, or work at.  
 For example: my brother went in for politics. He's  
 a politician now. I want in for teaching, and  
 I'm a teacher now. One of my friends went in for  
 medicine and he's a doctor now.

(Write "go in for" on the board and ask the class to repeat  
 it after you a few times. Call upon individuals to answer  
 your questions):

T : What did my brother go in for.  
 Did my brother go in for politics or economics?  
 What did I go in for?  
 Did I go in for teaching or engineering?  
 What did my friend go in for?  
 Did he go in for engineering or medicine?  
 What are you going in for when you leave school?  
 What did your brother go in for?

A chain drill: A asks B the question: What are you  
 going in for when you leave school? B answers the questions  
 and asks C the same question. Example:

- A (to B): What are you going in for when you leave school?      B: I'm going in for teaching.
- B (to C): What are you going in for when you leave school?      C: I'm going in for teaching.

## Lesson Forty Six

Make up for

(Ahmad and Bahram are talking)

Ahmad: It's a pity; we couldn't have a holiday on the 18th.

Bahram: But we'll have a day off next week to make up for it. By the way, how do you like your new house?

Ahmad: There are certain advantages in living here, but they don't make up for the comforts we used to have.

(Write "make up for" on the board and ask your students to repeat it after you a few times).

T : "Make up for" means give or do in place of; compensate; take the place of. For example, if we had a swimming pool, that would make up for not being near the sea.

(Call upon individuals to answer your questions):

T : What did Bahram say would make up for a holiday on the 18th?

Do the advantages of Ahmad's new house make up for the comforts they used to have?

If you lose a lot of time, how will you make up for it?

If you lose a lot of money, how would you make up for it?

If you had a swimming pool, would that make up for not being near the seaside?

## Lesson Forty Seven

Do away with

T : "do away with" means get rid of; stop; kill, finish.<sup>24</sup> For example: Those wild men used to do away with their prisoners. These old ~~news~~papers, can be done away with (burned). Our *old* school building was done away with two years ago.

(Write "do away with" on the board and ask the class to repeat it after you a few times. Call upon individuals to answer your questions. Ask them to use this verb in their answers.)

T : What did the wild men do with their prisoners?  
 What do you do with your old papers?  
 Are you going to do away with your old books or are you going to keep them?  
 Did the Mongols do away with most of the people of Iran?  
 Would you like to do away with your enemies or make friends with them?  
 When was the old school building done away with?  
 What happened to that old building two years ago?

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<sup>24</sup>Do away with oneself means commit suicide. (colloquial).

## APPENDIX

The list includes the two- and three- word verbs on which teaching materials have been prepared. References are to pages in the series of Direct Method English Course, and this work. Roman numerals indicate the volume of the book; and (S) following an item indicates that the two-word verb is separable.

Items	In the series of Direct Method English Course	In this work
Blow out (S)	I, Lesson 27, p. 121	Lesson 5, p. 70
Break down	III, Lesson 15, p. 132	Lesson 24, p. 109
Break into	III, Lesson 15, p. 127	Lesson 24, p. 109
Break out	IV, Lesson 15, p. 140	Lesson 37, p. 134
Bring about	V, Lesson 5, p. 46	Lesson 41, p. 141
Bring up (S)	IV, Lesson 12, p. 99	Lesson 33, p. 128
Call at	II, Lesson 13, p. 72	Lesson 12, p. 86
Call up (S)	V, Lesson 8, p. 78	Lesson 42, p. 143
Carry on (S)	V, Lesson 14, p. 133	Lesson 43, p. 144
Carry out (S)	IV, Lesson 10, p. 83	Lesson 31, p. 124
Come across	V, Lesson 9, p. 84	Lesson 44, p. 145
Come up with	III, Lesson 12, p. 98	<sup>1</sup>
Do away with	V, Lesson 18, p. 156	Lesson 47, p. 151
Do without	IV, Lesson 8, p. 63	Lesson 28, p. 117
Find out (S)	III, Lesson 3, p. 23	Lesson 19, p. 100
Get off	I, Lesson 26, p. 116	Lesson 4, p. 67
Get on	I, Lesson 26, p. 116	Lesson 4, p. 67
Get on with	IV, Lesson 2, p. 12	Lesson 27, p. 115
Get through	V, Lesson 2, p. 19	Lesson 40, p. 139

<sup>1</sup>In the Teacher's Book this expression is glossed catch up with. But no native speaker agreed with the use of this verb in that sense. So the writer prepared no lesson on it.

Items	In the Series of Direct Method English Course	In this work
Get up	I, Lesson 15, p. 55	Lesson 1, p. 60
give in	I V, Lesson 10, p. 82	Lesson 29, p. 120
Give up (S)	IV, Lesson 7, p. 2	Lesson 28, p. 117
Go in for	V, Lesson 15, p. 146	Lesson 45, p. 147
Go on	I, Lesson 22, p. 91	Lesson 3, p. 65
Hand down (S)	I V, Lesson 10, p. 83	Lesson 30, p. 122
Hand in (S)	II, Lesson 18, p. 106	Lesson 14, p. 90
Hand on (S)	IV, Lesson 10, p. 83	Lesson 30, p. 122
Hand over (S)	II, Lesson 22, p. 144	Lesson 16, p. 94
Hand round (S)	II, Lesson 22, p. 144	Lesson 16, p. 90
Keep on	II, Lesson 13, p. 72	Lesson 12, p. 86
Keep up (S)	III, Lesson 14, p. 116	Lesson 21, p. 103
Keep up with	IV, Lesson 17, p. 154	Lesson 39, p. 137
Look after	II, Lesson 8, p. 40	Lesson 11, p. 84
Look for	II, Lesson 1, p. 3	Lesson 6, p. 72
Look forward to	III, Lesson 2, p. 13	Lesson 18, p. 98
Look out	II, Lesson 5, p. 23	Lesson 8, p. 76
Look up (S)	IV, Lesson 14, p. 128	Lesson 36, p. 132
Make for	IV, Lesson 12, p. 104	Lesson 34, p. 130
Make up (S)	II I, Lesson 15, p. 123	Lesson 22, p. 105
Make up for	V, Lesson 15, p. 149	Lesson 46, p. 149
Point out (S)	I V, Lesson 16, p. 150	Lesson 35, p. 131
Put down (S)	III, Lesson 19, p. 165	Lesson 25, p. 111
Put on (S)	I, Lesson 21, p. 86	Lesson 2, p. 62
Put out (S)	II, Lesson 3, p. 13	Lesson 9, p. 78
Put up with	IV, Lesson 18, p. 99	Lesson 32, p. 126
Ring up (S)	IV, Lesson 2, p. 10	Lesson 26, p. 113
Ring off (S)	IV, Lesson 2, p. 11	Lesson 26, p. 113
Run after	II, Lesson 2, p. 9	Lesson 7, p. 74
Run away	II, Lesson 2, p. 9	Lesson 7, p. 74
See about	V, Lesson 2, p. 13	Lesson 40, p. 139
See to	IV, Lesson 17, p. 174	Lesson 39, p. 137
Set off	II, Lesson 23, p. 148	Lesson 17, p. 96
Set Out	III, Lesson 7, p. 55	Lesson 20, p. 102
Set up (S)	III, Lesson 7, p. 55	Lesson 20, p. 102
Sit up	II, Lesson 18, p. 104	Lesson 13, p. 88
Take down (S)	IV, Lesson 27, p. 13	Lesson 27, p. 115
Take off (S)	I, Lesson 21, p. 86	Lesson 2, p. 62
Take up (S)	V, Lesson 9, p. 84	Lesson 44, p. 145
Turn on (S)	II, Lesson 8, p. 39	Lesson 10, p. 81
Turn off (S)	II, Lesson 8, p. 39	Lesson 10, p. 81
Turn out	IV, Lesson 13, p. 13	Lesson 38, p. 136
Turn over (S)	II, Lesson 22, p. 144	Lesson 15, p. 92
Work out (S)	III, Lesson 15, p. 124	Lesson 23, p. 107.



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