

Chapter 7: NOUNS

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General Notes on Chapter 7

- **OBJECTIVE:** Students review and gain control of such important features of English grammar as the singular/plural and count/noncount distinctions, possessive forms, articles, and some expressions of quantity.
- **TERMINOLOGY:** Some grammar books and dictionaries refer to “noncount” nouns as “mass” or “uncountable” nouns. The term “expression of quantity” is used for any quantifier (e.g. *some of, a lot of, two of*), determiner (e.g., *no, each, every, some, any*), or predeterminer (e.g., *all, both*) that expresses amount or size.

□ **EXERCISE 1, p. 99. Preview: plural nouns.**

Students could write their answers on the chalkboard for everyone to check.

ANSWERS: 3. mice 4. monkeys 5. industries 6. women 7. foxes
8. geese 9. sheep 10. series 11. beliefs [The verb “believe” is always spelled with a
“v”: *believes*.] 12. leaves 13. selves [usually in words like *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*]
14. echoes [pronounced /ɛkəʊz/] 15. photos 16. analyses [pronounced /əˈnæləsɪz/]
17. hypotheses [pronounced /haɪpəθəsɪz/] 18. curricula [also possible: *curriculum*]
19. phenomena 20. stimuli [pronounced either /stɪmyulai/ or /stɪmyuli/]
21. offspring 22. bacteria

EXPANSION ACTIVITY: A traditional classroom game is a spelling bee. Students all stand. The teacher says a word to one student. The student repeats the word, then must spell it correctly letter by letter from memory. If the spelling is incorrect, the student sits down. The next student who is standing must then spell the same word. If the spelling is correct, he or she remains standing and the teacher says a new word to the next student. The game continues in this way until only one student, the “champion speller,” remains standing. (If your class is large, you may want to ask for only a few volunteers to play the game. The others can “bet” on who the winner will be.)

In the case of a bee with plural endings, the teacher can say the word and the student spell it, adding the appropriate ending. Some possible words for a bee: *custom, disease, skyscraper, appearance, hospital, career, calendar, label, succeed, surround, describe, mask, ladder, mirror, ghost, ticket, passenger, occasion* (or consult a list of frequently misspelled words*); *wish, ash, splash, crash, leash, push; pass, boss, kiss, cuss, mess, embarrass, lose, choose, choice; itch, pitch, patch, fetch, ditch; fix, hoax, six, wax, hex, fox; decay, fairy, balcony, diary, destroy, berry, penalty, mystery, enemy, holiday, category*; and any of the words in Chart 7-1. (If your class is advanced and you want to keep them on their toes, throw in the word “homework” or “fun” and see if they recognize that it’s used only as a noncount noun and does not have a final -s form.)

* Avoid words with variant American/British spelling, e.g., *color/colour, airplane/aeroplane, program/programme, judgment/judgement*.

CHART 7-1: REGULAR AND IRREGULAR PLURAL NOUNS

- This chart is an introduction and a reference, not something to be memorized precisely. Encourage students to consult their dictionaries when in doubt about the plural form of a noun—just as native speakers have to do. Sometimes native speakers (including, you might tell your students, the author of this text) need to look up, for example, the spelling of the plural form of words that end in *-o*.
- In (c): Words ending in *-ch* add the *-es* suffix—except for *stomach*, whose plural form adds *-s* only: *stomachs*. The difference is that in *stomach*, the *-ch* is pronounced /k/ rather than /č/. You may or may not wish to mention this exception.
- In (f): you can point out that final *-o* is followed by *-s*, not *-es*, when the noun is a shortened form (e.g., *auto–automobile*, *memo–memorandum*) and when the *-o* is preceded by another vowel. Again, encourage students to consult their dictionaries when in doubt.
- The list in the chart is not inclusive. Others that could be mentioned: in (g): *buffaloes/buffalos*, *haloes/halos*, *grottoes/grottos*; in (i): *waiifs*, *oafs*, *serfs*, *sheriffs*, *tariffs*; in (j): *one moose–two moose*, *one reindeer–two reindeer*; in (m): *vita–vitae*.
- Many of the foreign plurals in examples (k) through (p) are used primarily in academic English; the text seeks only to make the learners aware that some nouns in English have these odd plural forms. Students will learn and remember only those that are useful to them.
- If students ask why some nouns are irregular, you might explain that throughout its history, the English language has had close contact with other European languages. It has been influenced by German, Danish, Latin, Greek, and French, especially; a few forms from those languages occur in some English words today.

□ EXERCISE 2, p. 101. Plural nouns. (Chart 7-1)

ANSWERS: 3. teeth 4. boxes . . . oxen 5. mice 6. beaches . . . cliffs
7. leaves 8. attorneys 9. discoveries . . . laboratories 10. fish 11. wolves,
foxes, deer . . . sheep 12. echoes 13. pianos 14. phenomena 15. media

□ EXERCISE 3, p. 102. Plural nouns. (Chart 7-1)

If your students find this content too difficult, you could stop after paragraph (3). Not every exercise needs to be done in its entirety by every student. You could make this optional homework.

Call attention to the information in the footnotes.

ANSWERS: (1) Bacteria . . . things . . . organisms (2) Bacteria . . . bodies . . .
creatures (3) thousands . . . kinds . . . bacteria (4) Viruses . . . organisms . . .
viruses . . . cells . . . things . . . particles . . . hundreds . . . times (5) Viruses . . .
diseases . . . beings . . . illnesses (6) Viruses (7) officials . . . conditions
(8) officials . . . infections . . . bacteria . . . forms (9) infections . . . infections . . .
doctors

CHART 7-2: POSSESSIVE NOUNS

• Another way to explain the possessive form is to say that a noun always adds 's in writing, e.g., *boy's*, *men's*. However, in the case of a noun that already ends in -s, we take away the second -s and leave the apostrophe.

boy + 's = *boy's* (singular, possessive)

men + 's = *men's* (irregular plural, possessive)

boys + 's = *boys's* (plural, possessive) you take away the second -s: *boys'*

□ EXERCISE 4, p. 103. Possessive nouns. (Chart 7-2)

ANSWERS: 2. boy's 3. boys' 4. children's 5. child's 6. baby's 7. babies'
8. wives' 9. wife's 10. Sally's 11. Phyllis'/Phyllis's [pronounced /fɪlɪsəz/]
12. boss's [pronounced /bɒsəz/] 13. bosses' [also pronounced /bɒsəz/] 14. woman's
15. women's 16. sister's 17. sisters' 18. yesterday's 19. today's 20. month's

□ EXERCISE 5, p. 104. Possessive nouns. (Chart 7-2)

ANSWERS: 3. father's 4. I have four aunts. All of my aunts' homes . . . mother's
5. aunt's 6. Five astronauts were . . . The astronauts' safe return 7. children's
8. child's 9. secretary's 10. people's 11. Bill's 12. Bess's/Bess'
13. Quite a few diplomats are . . . Almost all of the diplomats' children 14. diplomat's

□ EXERCISE 6, p. 104. Using apostrophes. (Chart 7-2; Appendix Chart C)

This exercise is a general review of apostrophe use, showing that it is used both in possessives and in contractions.

Pay some special attention to *its* vs. *it's*. Their misuse is common in both native-speaker and second language writing. Reassure the students that they are not the only ones who have trouble remembering when to use an apostrophe with *it* + -s. Even grammar teachers may have to stop and think through whether to use *its* or *it's* in a particular sentence!

ANSWERS: 2. bear's [Note: No apostrophe in *its* (possessive adjective)] 3. It's . . . world's
4. individual's 5. heroes' . . . hero's 6. Children's . . . they're . . . Adults' toys
. . . children's toys

CHART 7-3: USING NOUNS AS MODIFIERS

- Some grammar books use the term “noun adjunct” for a noun that modifies another noun.
- Some grammars refer to noun-noun combinations as one type of “compound noun.”
- There is an instance in which a noun adjunct is in a plural form. Some nouns are usually or always plural; these nouns often refer to things people wear that have two parts, such as *trousers* or *glasses*, or to instruments that have two parts, such as *scissors* or *binoculars*. When these nouns are used as noun adjuncts, they frequently retain their plural form: *glasses case*, *jeans pocket*, *pants pockets*, *scissors drawer*. They may, however, revert to the singular form, as in *binocular case* and *trouser pocket*. Students rarely encounter or have questions about this minor point of grammar, but the teacher might find it of interest—and then there is always the occasional student who finds the odd exception to what is said in a grammar book and eagerly lays it before the unwary teacher.

□ **EXERCISE 7, p. 105. Using nouns as modifiers. (Chart 7-3)**

When you read or listen to the students' answers, pay special attention to two common problems: (1) the modifying noun must be singular in form, and (2) the article "a/an" is required for singular count nouns.

Point out the use of hyphens (-) in adjective phrases containing numbers. It is useful to have students write their answers on the chalkboard, as some of them may be unfamiliar with the use of the hyphen.

NOTE: In general, a hyphen is used when two (or more) words used as a modifier to a noun have one meaning when they appear together: *a man-eating tiger* (it's not *a man tiger* or *an eating tiger*; it's *a man-eating tiger*—two words which together give one meaning, as though they were one word), i.e., *salt-and-pepper hair*, *a part-time job*, *a matter-of-fact attitude*, *a heart-breaking story*, *a two-hour movie*.

ANSWERS: 2. flowers . . . flower 3. beans . . . bean 4. babies . . . baby
 5. children . . . child 6. salads . . . salad 7. faxes . . . fax 8. cans . . .
 can . . . potatoes . . . potato 9. airplanes . . . Airplane 10. mosquitoes . . .
 mosquito 11. two-hour . . . two hours 12. ten years old . . . ten-year-old
 13. ten . . . speeds . . . ten-speed 14. six games . . . six-game 15. three-letter
 . . . three letters

□ **EXERCISE 8, p. 107. Using nouns as modifiers. (Chart 7-3)**

POSSIBLE RESPONSES: 1. a cotton shirt, cotton balls, cotton wool [British English] 2. a grammar book, a grammar test 3. a birthday card, a birthday present 4. chicken salad, chicken soup 5. an airplane trip, an airplane ticket 6. a telephone book, a telephone call 7. a mountain peak, a mountain climber 8. a government official, a government program 9. a football game, a football uniform [Note: In most parts of the world, *football* is synonymous with *soccer*. American football and Australian rules football are different games.] 10. a bedroom table, bedroom slippers 11. a silk scarf, silk pajamas 12. a morning newspaper, the morning news 13. a street sign, a street light 14. a newspaper headline, a newspaper article 15. a hotel lobby, a hotel room 16. a kitchen table, a kitchen sink 17. baby food, a baby bottle 18. vegetable soup, a vegetable brush 19. an office building, office furniture 20. a bicycle tire [BrE: *tyre*], a bicycle lane

CHART 7-4: COUNT AND NONCOUNT NOUNS

- Some noncount nouns, like *furniture*, are also called "mass nouns" in other grammar books.
- The count/noncount distinction is one of the most difficult points for students to control.
- Some common mistakes that students make are the following:

INCORRECT	CORRECT COUNT FORM	CORRECT NONCOUNT FORM
<i>many homeworks</i>	<i>many assignments</i>	<i>a lot of homework</i>
<i>some slangs</i>	<i>some slang expressions</i>	<i>some slang</i>
<i>many vocabularies</i>	<i>many vocabulary words/items</i>	<i>a large vocabulary</i>

• ERRATUM: In the first printing of the textbook there is a misprint. The first line in Chart 7-4 on the right should read ". . . chairs are items that can **be** counted." This is corrected in subsequent printings.

□ **EXERCISE 9, p. 107. Count and noncount nouns. (Chart 7-4)**

The purpose of this exercise is to help students understand the two charts that follow (7-5 and 7-6). As you go through the exercise, discuss the ideas presented in Chart 7-5. In item 1, point out that a noncount noun refers to a “whole” that is made up of different parts. *Furniture* is the “whole” and *chairs, tables, desks* are the “different parts.” In 4 and 5, compare noncount and count usages of the same word “iron”; the meaning is different. In item 6, point out that the first *baseball* is an “abstract whole” and the second *baseball* (a count noun) is a concrete thing.

You might give each student two cards (or the students can use their own paper). On one is a large letter “C,” and on the other is “NC.” As you read each sentence aloud, pause after each noun while the students hold up the piece of paper that identifies the noun as “C” or “NC.” In this way, you can quickly see if students are incorrectly identifying any nouns, and the students can have a little fun. They can use these cards in the exercises that follow, too.

ANSWERS: 2. jewelry (NC) . . . rings (C) . . . bracelets (C) . . . necklace (C)
3. mountains (C) . . . fields (C) . . . lakes (C) . . . scenery (NC) 4. Gold (NC) . . . iron (NC) 5. iron (C) 6. baseball (NC) . . . baseball (C)

CHARTS 7-5 AND 7-6: NONCOUNT NOUNS

- The concept of a noncount noun is covered in Chart 7-5, followed by a list of common examples in Chart 7-6.
- If it helps your students to understand, use the term “mass” to explain the idea of “a whole.”
- As pointed out in examples (e) and (f) of Chart 7-5, some nouns can be used as either count or noncount. Some of the nouns in Chart 7-6 also have count uses. A noun is count or noncount depending on how it is used and the speaker’s intended meaning. No noun is inherently count or noncount. The words listed in Chart 7-6 are usually or always used as noncount nouns, but you may wish to discuss some of those with dual uses: *glass* (a material) vs. *a glass* (a container for drinking); *tea* (a drink) vs. *teas* (kinds of tea); *pepper* (a spice) vs. *a pepper* (a vegetable); *bridge* (a card game) vs. *a bridge* (a way across a river); *time* (an abstract concept) vs. *times* (occurrences).

□ **EXERCISE 10, p. 109. Count and noncount nouns. (Charts 7-5 and 7-6)**

In item 1, *change* is a noncount noun that means “coins” or “non-paper money.” For particular nouns of your choosing, ask the students to raise their cards with “C” or “NC” on them.

ANSWERS: 3. music 4. traffic 5. garbage 6. junk 7. stuff 8. thunder
9. screwdrivers 10. hardware 11. homework 12. luggage/baggage 13. this information 14. advice [Note the spelling: *advice* = noun; *advise* = verb] 15. progress

□ **EXERCISE 11, p. 110. Count and noncount nouns; nouns as modifiers. (Charts 7-5 and 7-6)**

A student can read an answer aloud to the class, but he or she should say the complete sentence, not only the nouns. The answers must be spoken loudly and clearly so everyone can hear. You might also review the pronunciation of *-s/-es*. (See Chart 6-1.)

For particular nouns of your choosing, ask the students to raise their cards with “C” or “NC” on them.

ANSWERS: 3. trees, bushes, grass (*no change*), dirt (*no change*), and flowers 4. advice (*no change*) . . . suggestions 5. words . . . vocabulary (*no change*) 6. two glasses . . . water (*no change*) 7. Windows . . . glass (*no change*) 8. glasses . . . eyesight (*no change*) 9. time (*no change*) . . . homework (*no change*). . . assignments 10. three times . . . a lot of time (*no change*) 11. typewriters, copiers, telephones, and staplers . . . equipment (*no change*) 12. air (*no change*) . . . smoke, dust, and carbon monoxide (*no changes*) . . . substances . . . air pollution (*no change*) 13. literature (*no change*) . . . novels, poetry (*no change*), and essays . . . poets . . . poems 14. seasons . . . weather (*no change*) 15. happiness (*no change*) . . . patience (*no change*) . . . rewards 16. machines . . . a modern factory (*no change*) . . . Modern factories . . . machinery (*no change*) 17. travelers . . . luggage (*no change*) . . . suitcases . . . days . . . months . . . traveler (*no change*) . . . stuff (*no change*) . . . day (*no change*) 18. garbage (*no change*) . . . magazines, envelopes . . . boxes . . . phone books . . . glass bottles, jars . . . copper (*no change*) . . . brass (*no change*) . . . tin cans 19. stars . . . grains . . . sand (*no change*)

CHARTS 7-7 AND 7-8: BASIC ARTICLE USAGE

- Articles are very difficult for students to understand and use correctly. Many languages do not have articles. Languages that do have articles use them differently from English. Articles are, in many teachers' experiences, difficult to teach. There are many nuances, complex patterns of use, and idiomatic variations. Students who are frustrated trying to understand and use articles should be reminded that articles are just a small component of English. Proficiency in using articles improves with experience; it cannot be obtained overnight by learning "rules."
- The exercises point out some contrasts in usage that should help the students understand the differences among *a/an*, *the*, and the absence of any article (symbolized by Ø).
- Some students may need a reminder about using *an* instead of *a*. English speakers prefer not to pronounce a vowel sound after the article "a." Therefore, they put "n" between the two vowel sounds. For example:
a + apple → *an apple*; *a + old man* → *an old man*; *a + umbrella* → *an umbrella*
 (But note that *a university* has no "n" because the "u" begins with a sort of "y" or consonant sound.)
a + other → *another* (Tradition causes this to be written as one word.)
- These two charts are by no means exhaustive on the topic of article usage. Their goal is simply to give the learners a general understanding of the basics. Students who wish more in-depth information should be referred to texts that deal solely with article usage.

□ EXERCISE 12, p. 113. Article usage with generic nouns. (Chart 7-7)

ANSWERS: 4. A concert 5. An opera 6. Ø 7. A cup 8. Ø 9. An island 10. Ø 11. A bridge 12. A valley 13. Ø 14. An adjective 15. Ø 16. Ø 17. A (tennis) player 18. A tree 19. Ø 20. Ø 21. Ø 22. A sentence 23. Ø 24. Ø 25. An orange 26. Ø 27. Ø 28. An iron 29. A basketball 30. Ø

□ **EXERCISE 13, p. 113. Article usage with indefinite nouns. (Chart 7-7)**

ANSWERS: 5. an accident 6. some homework 7. a table 8. some furniture
9. some chairs 10. some advice 11. a suitcase 12. some luggage
13. an earthquake 14. some letters 15. a letter 16. some mail 17. a machine
18. some new machinery 19. Some machines 20. some junk 21. an old
basket 22. some old boots

□ **EXERCISE 14, p. 114. Count and noncount nouns. (Charts 7-4 → 7-7)**

Divide the class into groups of six to ten. Each group can try to do the entire alphabet; set a time limit (15–20 minutes) and let the groups get as far in the alphabet as they can. To shorten the game, you could assign only half of the alphabet to a group.

Make sure the students focus on the correct use of *a/an* and *some*. Also tell them that items can begin with an adjective; for example, *a bald monkey* could be used for the letter “B” (but not the letter “M”). Explain that strange or funny answers are fine; the only requirement is that the first word (other than *a/an* or *some*) begin with the appropriate letter of the alphabet.

One way to play the game is to eliminate each player who can’t remember the whole list beginning with “A.” The game continues until there is only one player who can recite the whole list, or until everyone left can recite the whole list from A to Z. For the classroom, however, it’s better to make the game noncompetitive. The purpose is for the students to have fun while they are practicing a grammar point. Tell them to try to play without taking a lot of notes, but it would be all right if they needed to jot down a few notes to jog their memory when it’s their turn to speak. It would also be all right for the students to help each other remember the list and remind each other about the use of *a/an* and *some*.

□ **EXERCISE 15, p. 115. Article usage. (Charts 7-7 and 7-8)**

Exercise 15 is a series of dialogues. Students can work in pairs, or two students can read one dialogue to the whole class.

Explain to the class that what is in the speaker’s mind determines which article to use. If the speaker believes the listener knows which thing or person the speaker is referring to, the speaker will use *the*. If not, the speaker will use *a/an*, *some*, or \emptyset .

ANSWERS: 3. a good reason 4. the reason 5. the washing machine . . . a different shirt 6. a washing machine 7. A: The radiator . . . a leak . . . the windshield wipers B: the leak 8. A: The front wheel B: a parked car . . . a big pothole [A pothole /*pathol*/ is a hole in a street caused by water and traffic.] A: the car B: a note . . . the owner . . . the car A: the note B: an apology 9. the closet . . . the front hallway

□ **EXERCISE 16, p. 116. Article usage. (Charts 7-7 and 7-8)**

ANSWERS: 4. \emptyset 5. A hat . . . an article 6. \emptyset . . . \emptyset 7. The brown hat
8. \emptyset . . . \emptyset 9. a long life 10. the life 11. an engineer 12. an engineer
13. the name . . . the engineer . . . an infection . . . the bridge 14. \emptyset . . . \emptyset
15. The jewelry

□ **EXERCISE 17, p. 117. Article usage. (Charts 7-7 and 7-8)**

ANSWERS: 1. a new phone 2. the phone 3. Ø . . . Ø . . . Ø . . . Ø . . . Ø . . . Ø . . . Ø 4. a sandy shore . . . Ø . . . the surface . . . Ø . . . Ø, Ø, Ø, Ø . . . Ø . . . Ø 5. the sand . . . Ø . . . a crab . . . The crab . . . a good time . . . the beach 6. Ø, Ø . . . Ø . . . a person 7. Ø . . . Ø . . . the universe 8. Ø . . . Ø . . . a thin layer . . . Ø . . . Ø 9. a recent newspaper article . . . an Australian swimmer . . . a shark [indefinite] . . . a group . . . the shark [now definite] . . . the swimmer . . . the dolphins . . . the swimmer's life 10. Ø . . . Ø . . . Ø . . . an average . . . Ø 11. Ø . . . Ø 12. a fly . . . the ceiling . . . the fly . . . the ceiling

□ **EXERCISE 18, p. 118. Preview: expressions of quantity. (Chart 7-9)**

Give the class a couple of minutes to do the exercise, then review the correct answers. Discuss the term “expressions of quantity” and point out differences in their usage between count and noncount nouns.

ANSWERS:

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. i. too much | 2. a. two | h. too many |
| k. a little | b. a couple of | j. a few |
| m. a great deal of | c. both | l. a number of |
| | d. several | |

CHART 7-9: EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY

- *A lot of* and *lots of* have the same meaning. Both are somewhat informal, with *lots of* being the more informal.
- See Appendix Chart D-2 for *not any* vs. *no*.

□ **EXERCISE 19, p. 119. Expressions of quantity. (Chart 7-9)**

ANSWERS:

- | | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. b. several | g. a few | 2. e. too much |
| f. too many | i. a number of | h. a little |
| | | j. a great deal of |

□ **EXERCISE 20, p. 120. MUCH vs. MANY. (CHART 7-9)**

Note that *much* is most often used in negative sentences or in questions. (See the footnote in the text on page 122.)

You might want to have your students lift their “C” and “NC” cards again.

ANSWERS: 3. much mail 4. many letters 5. aren't many hotels 6. is too much furniture 7. isn't much traffic 8. aren't many cars 9. much work 10. many sides [Answer: A pentagon has five sides.] 11. much information 12. much homework 13. many people 14. much postage 15. is too much violence 16. much patience 17. many patients 18. many teeth [Answer: The average person has 32 teeth.] 19. isn't much international news 20. many fish are 21. many continents are [Your students may disagree on the answer to this question. By some calculations there are seven continents; by other calculations, there are six, with Europe and Asia considered as one. Technically, Europe is a peninsula of Asia rather than a continent, but traditionally Europe has been accorded the status of a continent.] 22. much progress

□ **EXERCISE 21, p. 121. Expressions of quantity. (Chart 7-9)**

ANSWERS:

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| 4. Ø
loaves of bread
Ø
jars of honey | 7. sleep
information
facts
help | 10. patience
wealth
Ø
Ø |
| 5. novels
Ø
poems
Ø | 8. women
movies
scenes
Ø | 11. luck
money
advice
Ø |
| 6. orange juice
light bulbs
hardware
computer software | 9. shirts
Ø
pens
Ø | 12. ideas
theories
hypotheses
Ø |

□ **EXERCISE 22, p. 122. Expressions of quantity. (Chart 7-9)**

This can be a rapid exercise with two-word answers, or a more thorough review with whole-sentence answers (remind the students to use *much* only in questions or negative sentences). Pay special attention to pronunciation of *-s/-es*.

- ANSWERS: 1. much furniture 2. many desks 3. many branches 4. much equipment
5. much machinery 6. many machines 7. many women
8. many pieces 9. many mice 10. much advice 11. many sheep 12. much homework
13. many prizes 14. many geese 15. much music 16. much progress
17. many races 18. much knowledge 19. many marriages
20. much information 21. much luck 22. many hypotheses 23. much mail
24. many offices 25. much slang 26. many roofs 27. many shelves
28. many teeth

CHART 7-10: USING A FEW AND FEW; A LITTLE AND LITTLE

- This is difficult grammar for most learners, and it can be difficult to explain. The text compares the meanings by saying *a few* and *a little* indicate that something is “largely present,” and *few* and *little* indicate that something is “largely absent.” *Largely* (meaning “for the most part”) may need your interpretation, as some learners may not be familiar with the term.

- Sometimes students think there must be a difference in quantity between *a few* and *few*. They ask, “How many is ‘a few’ and how many is ‘few?’” They think that “few friends” is less than “a few friends.” But the real difference can rest in the speaker’s attitude: *a few* reflects a positive opinion of the quantity, and *few* reflects a negative or diminishing opinion, even if the quantity is the same in both cases.

For example, Sam and Sara are new students in school. In two weeks, Sam has made three friends, and Sara has made three friends. Sam’s mother is very pleased. She says, “Sam’s getting along fine. He’s made *a few* friends and likes his teachers.” Sara’s mother, however, thinks Sara should have made lots of friends by now and worries that she’s not adjusting to her new school. She says, “Sara doesn’t like her classes and has *few* friends. I’m worried about her.” In each case, the number of friends is the same, but the speaker’s attitude is different.

- The following chart may be helpful for students.

COUNT	NONCOUNT
<i>few</i> = not many <i>a few</i> = some	<i>little</i> = not much <i>a little</i> = some

EXERCISE 23, p. 123. Using A FEW and FEW; A LITTLE and LITTLE. (Chart 7-10)

This exercise approaches the grammar by using parallel meanings. Discuss the meaning of each sentence in terms of what is “largely present” or “largely absent.”

Students could bring out their “C” and “NC” cards again. (See comments on Exercise 9, p. 57 of this *Guide*.)

ANSWERS: 3. a little sunshine 4. very little sunshine 5. a few programs 6. very few television programs 7. a few drops 8. a little oil 9. very little jewelry

EXERCISE 24, p. 124. Using A FEW and FEW; A LITTLE and LITTLE. (Chart 7-10)

ANSWERS: 3. a little salt 4. very little salt 5. a little music 6. very little traffic 7. very few friends 8. a few days . . . a few days 9. a few more minutes 10. a little more time 11. a few nuts 12. very few toys 13. a little rain 14. a little honey . . . a little milk 15. very little patience 16. very few problems

CHART 7-11: USING *OF* IN EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY

- When to use *of* with expressions of quantity can be a confusing point for students. The problem is that sometimes *of* is used whether the following noun is specific or nonspecific (as with *a lot of*), and sometimes it is used only when the noun is specific. Students are justifiably confused by this.
- A common point of difficulty is the difference between *most* and *the most*. (See the note at the bottom of page 126 in the textbook.)
- A common mistake is the use of *almost of*: *almost of the (students)*. Mention the two correct possibilities: *most of the (students)* OR *almost all of the (students)*.

□ EXERCISE 25, p. 125. Using *OF* in expressions of quantity. (Chart 7-11)

Pairs of sentences in this exercise look similar. Compare the meanings of items to be sure students understand the important differences.

ANSWERS: 3. Ø . . . Ø 4. of 5. Ø 6. of 7. Ø 8. of 9. Ø
10. of 11. Ø 12. of 13. of 14. of ["junk mail" = advertisements, magazine contests, solicitations for money, etc.] 15. Ø 16. of 17. Ø . . . of 18. Ø
19. of 20. Ø

CHART 7-12: *ALL (OF) AND BOTH (OF)*

- This chart gives more information about using nouns as specific or nonspecific. The concept is not an easy one, but the following exercises help clarify it for most learners.
- The special (and confusing) thing about *all* and *both* is that *of* can be either omitted or included when used with specific nouns (contrary to the other expressions of quantity in GROUP TWO in Chart 7-11, which require *of* to be used with specific nouns).
- With an advanced class, you might mention that *half* has the same pattern as *all* and *both*: *half (of) the children*. And indeed, sometimes *most* is also used without *of*: *Most boys have their own uniforms*. There comes a point in the teaching of grammar, however, when too much information is indeed too much. As a text writer, the author has to decide where to draw the line between what is helpful and what is burdensome information. Teachers have to do the same, especially when it comes to deciding how much class time certain grammar discussions are worth. The grammar in the last parts of this chapter could, for example, be handled quickly and without emphasis, saving class time in order to focus on other grammar topics more useful to the learners.

□ EXERCISE 26, p. 126. *ALL (OF) AND BOTH (OF)*. (Chart 7-12)

The concept of an optional *of* here may be confusing. You may need to explain the directions more clearly. Students need to understand that both *all of the children* and *all the children* are correct, but that *all of children* is not correct.

ANSWERS: 3. (of) 4. Ø 5. Ø 6. Ø . . . Ø . . . (of) 7. (of) 8. (of)
9. (of) 10. Ø . . . Ø

□ **EXERCISE 27, p. 127. Using OF in expressions of quantity. (Charts 7-11 and 7-12)**

ANSWERS: 4. Ø 5. of 6. of 7. Ø . . . Ø . . . Ø 8. of 9. Ø . . . Ø
10. of . . . of 11. Ø 12. Ø . . . of

**CHART 7-13: SINGULAR EXPRESSIONS OF QUANTITY:
ONE, EACH, EVERY**

- You might recall Chart 6-2 (Basic subject–verb agreement), which identified *each* and *every* as singular in number.
- *Each*, *every*, and *one of* are common sources of errors. For that reason, they receive special emphasis here.
- Note the concept of “specificity” as introduced in Chart 7-11: a noun is made specific by fronting it with *the*, a possessive, or a demonstrative adjective. One can say *one of **the** students*, *one of **my** students*, or *one of **those** students*, but one cannot say *one of students*.

□ **EXERCISE 28, p. 128. Using ONE, EACH, and EVERY. (Chart 7-13)**

This should be an oral exercise with discussion of similarities and differences between the sentences.

ANSWERS: 2. girls 3. children 4. child 5. member 6. members

□ **EXERCISE 29, p. 129. Using ONE, EACH, and EVERY. (Chart 7-13)**

ANSWERS: 3. countries 4. each student / each of the students 5. (*no change*)
6. All (of) the furniture / Each piece of furniture 7. Some of the equipment / One piece
of equipment / One of the pieces of equipment 8. each woman / each of the women / all
of the women 9. places 10. (*no change*) 11. language 12. each of the errors /
each error

□ **EXERCISE 30, p. 129. Activity: expressions of quantity. (Charts 7-9 → 7-13)**

This can be done during a class period, with the students polling each other. Each student should make up his or her own list of questions. Give the students ample time—perhaps even overnight—to think of good, interesting questions.

Another possibility would be for your class to poll other classes in a language program and then report their findings. Taking a poll in, for example, a lower-intermediate level English class could be fun not only for your students but also for those in the other class, giving all the students a good opportunity for interaction.

□ **EXERCISE 31, p. 130. Review: expressions of quantity. (Charts 7-9 → 7-13)**

The sentences in this exercise are NOT TRUE. That’s the point of this exercise: expressions of quantity are important. Unqualified statements are inaccurate. Discuss the importance of qualifying a generalization in order to make it accurate. The sentences in the text are examples of overgeneralizations that need expressions of quantity to make them reasonable, true, supportable statements.

ANSWERS: [These depend on students’ opinions.]