CAMBRIDGE

Second edition

The

TKT

Teaching Knowledge Test

Course

Modules 1, 2 and 3

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Module 3   Managing the teaching and learning process

Introduction

The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3

The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3 is the second edition of *The TKT Course*. In this second edition you will find a range of new material that makes this edition different from the first edition:

- Revised and expanded information on the key concepts related to each area of the TKT syllabus
- An additional unit on 'Approaches to language teaching' reflecting the TKT syllabus
- New tasks in each unit for the Follow-up, Reflection, Discovery and exam practice sections
- New practice tests
- An expanded glossary reflecting the revised *TKT Glossary*
- A new section on 'Tips for preparing for the TKT', which aims to help you study by yourselves and make full use of all opportunities for working towards the TKT.

The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3 Online

The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3 is also available online. If you subscribe to the online version at cambridgetkt.english360.com you will get all the material from the print edition in an interactive format plus:

- Six additional interactive TKT practice tests, matching the latest Cambridge ESOL TKT computer-based tests
- 'Ask the author' videos giving an expert view on classroom issues focused on in the Reflection sections
- An interactive Glossary Quiz covering the TKT terms
- Extra support for TKT trainers.

What is the *Teaching Knowledge Test* (the TKT)?

The *Teaching Knowledge Test* (the TKT) is a test developed by Cambridge ESOL for teachers of English to speakers of other languages. It is designed to test candidates' knowledge of concepts related to language and language use, and the background to and practice of language teaching and learning.

The TKT consists of seven modules: TKT Module 1, TKT Module 2, TKT Module 3, TKT: KAL (Knowledge About Language), TKT: CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning), TKT: YL (Young Learners) and TKT: Practical. The modules can be taken together, or separately, in any order and any number. With the exception of the TKT: Practical, the content of the TKT is tested by means of objective tasks, such as matching and multiple-choice, and each module consists of 80 questions. While the TKT: Practical focuses on classroom skills and the TKT: KAL on knowledge of English language systems, the other modules focus on knowledge about teaching.

The TKT has no entry requirements, such as previous teaching experience and/ or teaching or language qualifications, but candidates are recommended to have at

least an intermediate level of English, e.g. PET, IELTS band 4, CEFR/ALTE B1 for all the modules except KAL, for which the recommended level is B2. Candidates for all the modules are also expected to understand a range of over 500 terms describing the practice of English Language Teaching (ELT). A selection of these terms appears in each TKT module. A list of the terms is provided in the *TKT Glossary*, which is on the Cambridge ESOL website: http://www.cambridgeesol.org/TKT

To help them prepare for the TKT and reflect on their teaching, candidates are encouraged to keep an online Teacher Portfolio: https://www.teacherportfolio.cambridgeesol.org/

■ What is *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3*?

The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3 provides support material for Modules 1, 2 and 3 of the TKT.

The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3 has four main aims:

1 To introduce readers to the concepts and terms about teaching and learning that are central to the TKT, and to give them opportunities to do exam practice with TKT practice test tasks and practice exam papers.
2 To introduce readers to the main current theories, approaches, practices and activities in ELT and to assess their usefulness for the classroom.
3 To share with readers details of some of the many resources, such as websites, grammar books, coursebooks and supplementary materials, available to English language teachers.
4 To provide materials and activities that give teachers opportunities for professional development and reflection on their own teaching by exploring the concepts which have been introduced.

■ Who is *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3* written for?

The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3 is written for:

- Teachers intending to take Modules 1, 2 or 3 of the TKT. They may be studying for it on a course, or alone as self-access students.
- Teachers following introductory teacher development courses in teaching English, or retraining to become English language teachers.
- Teachers working (by themselves) to improve their knowledge of ELT.
- People considering becoming teachers.
- Teachers already teaching in primary or secondary schools or adult learning institutions.
- Both first and other language speakers of English.

■ What are the contents of *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3*?

The contents of *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3* follow the contents and order of the TKT syllabus for the TKT Modules 1, 2 and 3. The course contains:

- Tips for preparing for the TKT: the 4 Rs (Reading, Reference, Record-keeping and Reflection).
- Three modules, each focusing on one module of the TKT. Each module is divided into units covering the contents of the TKT syllabus for that module. The units focus on topics from the module, and then provide tasks and activities exploring the topics and preparing the reader for the TKT.

- Thirty-three inter-related units. The units in the course build on one another, so that the ideas introduced in one unit provide the foundation for the ideas introduced in the next unit. Similarly, each module provides a foundation for the next module.
- The ELT terms from the *TKT Glossary*. Terms are highlighted in **bold** when they are defined. They are also highlighted in **bold** when they appear in a unit for the first time.
- Three TKT practice tests, one for each module.
- Exam tips for taking the TKT.
- Answer keys for the Follow-up activities, TKT practice tasks and TKT practice tests.
- Two lists of ELT terms from the *TKT Glossary* that are used in the book. The first alphabetical list gives the terms that are defined and the page where their definition can be found. The second list shows the terms that are defined in each unit. These lists can be used as an aid for working on a unit, or for revision purposes.

The language used in *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3* is at the same level as the language used in the TKT test for Modules 1-3, i.e. intermediate level English at approximately IELTS band 4 or CEFR (Common European Framework) B1. Glossary words are additional to this.

The material in the book is designed to provide approximately 70-100 hours of study.

■ How is each unit organised and how can it be used?

The advice in this table is intended for those using the book on a taught course or for self-access readers. It can also be adapted for use by trainers.

Each unit in *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3* follows the same structure.

Section	Purpose	Suggestions for use
Starter question and answer	To provide a definition of the key terms in the title of the unit.	Try to answer the question before reading the comments in the introductory paragraph.
Key concepts	To introduce the main ideas of the topic of the unit and to explain the key ELT terms.	There is a short question at the beginning of this section. Try to answer it before reading the text that follows. This section could be read outside class.
Key concepts and the language teaching classroom	To discuss how the key concepts influence English language teaching and learning.	Think about how each point might influence what you do in the classroom.
Follow-up activities	To allow the reader to work with the key concepts in order to understand them more fully. N.B. These activities sometimes use tasks with different formats from those used in the TKT.	These activities are designed for use in or outside the training classroom. Completing them leads to a fuller understanding of the unit's key concepts. There is an answer key for these activities on pages 237-244.

Reflection	To encourage the reader to develop his/her opinions on the key concepts by considering questions or comments from teachers.	Discuss these points with others if possible. As this section is about opinions, it does not have an accompanying answer key. You could make use of the online Teacher Portfolio to record your thoughts: https://www.teacherportfolio.cambridgeesol.org/
Discovery activities	To help the reader find out more about the key concepts, to experiment with them in the classroom and to assess their usefulness.	These activities involve doing things outside the training classroom, e.g. reading chapters from books, finding websites, seeing how key concepts are applied in coursebooks, trying out ideas in the classroom and writing reflective comments. You will see that the book again suggests you make use of the Teacher Portfolio to write up and keep a record of your comments. This portfolio is designed by Cambridge ESOL for teacher reflection, and is completely private. You may, of course, prefer to keep your reflections in your own folder or notebook.
TKT practice task	To review the unit's content and to help readers become familiar with the TKT task formats and level. N.B. These tasks use the same question formats and numbers of questions as in the corresponding sections of the TKT.	Do these tasks to familiarise yourself with the formats of the TKT and to test yourself on the contents of the unit. You can check your answers in the answer key on page 245.

We suggest that readers using this book by themselves choose an English language teaching coursebook and think of a specific group of learners to work with for the Discovery and Reflection activities.

We also recommend readers to look at the tips for preparing for the TKT in the next section.

Enjoy your teaching and your reflection on your teaching, and good luck to all those who take the TKT.

Tips for preparing for the TKT

Four helpful ways of preparing for the TKT are the 4 Rs: Reading, Reference, Record-keeping and Reflection.

■ 1 Reading

The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3 already provides core reading for taking the TKT, but you can usefully supplement this by reading the books, magazines and websites recommended in the Discovery activities. Some examples of these are mentioned below. You could also try to combine your reading with your teaching, using your lessons as an opportunity to investigate different areas you are working on in the classroom, e.g. reading skills, classroom management, methods of assessment.

- Books about language
  Look at *Discover English* by Rod Bolitho & Brian Tomlinson, Macmillan 2005 and *About Language* by Scott Thornbury, Cambridge University Press 2001. Both books consist of language awareness tasks with keys that include detailed comments and explanations.

- Books about methodology
  There are a huge number of books about particular skills, types of material and teaching techniques, but the most useful ones for preparing for the TKT are those that deal with a wide range of aspects of methodology. These books are some that have been recommended in various units of *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3*:
  How to Teach English (Second edition) by Jeremy Harmer, Longman 2007
  The Practice of English Language Teaching (Fourth edition) by Jeremy Harmer, Longman 2007
  Learning Teaching (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005
  A Course in Language Teaching by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press 1999
  Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom by Tricia Hedge, Oxford University Press 2000
  Teaching Practice Handbook (Second edition) by Roger Gower, Diane Phillips & Steve Walters, Macmillan 1995
  Children Learning English by Jayne Moon, Macmillan 2000

- Teachers' magazines
  Many teachers' magazines include articles, interviews and reviews written by trainers, well-known authors, and teachers. They discuss successful lessons, a favourite book, a new teaching idea, etc. If there is a teachers' association in the area where you live, they may have their own magazine or newsletter, but you could also look at some of the international magazines, such as *English Teaching Professional* (http://www.etprofessional.com) or *Modern English Teacher* (http://www.onlinemet.com), where you can find articles by teachers from different parts of the world.

- Websites and discussion lists
  There are many websites that provide useful professional reading for English language teachers. Two sites with short informative articles by ELT specialists are Onestopenglish (http://www.onestopenglish.com) and Teaching English (http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk) You could also join internet forums, sometimes called discussion lists or message boards, to access another kind of ELT reading, and exchange ideas and experiences by email with other teachers (for example, http://www.britishcouncil.org/morocco-english-teach-links-efl-organisation.htm).

- TKT practice and preparation materials
  You can find practice papers and preparation materials on the Cambridge ESOL website (http://www.cambridgeesol.org/resources/teacher/tkt.html) as well as in the TKT Handbook, which tells you all about the TKT.

2 Reference

Make regular use of reference materials such as dictionaries and grammar books when you prepare for your lessons. This will help you become familiar with their terms, approaches and ideas, and get you ready for the TKT.

In addition, the *TKT Glossary* can be downloaded as a pdf document from the Cambridge ESOL website (http://www.cambridgeesol.org/assets/pdf/tkt_glossary.pdf). The glossary is arranged by topic in the same order as in the syllabus. Use this to study for the exam, but also as you read materials on teaching methodology, as part of your general professional development.

3 Record-keeping

As suggested in many of the Discovery activities in *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3*, it's a good idea to get into the habit of keeping lesson plans and making notes on methods and materials that you have used successfully. Also make notes about your lessons, on what worked well and what you would do differently next time. Looking back at these notes is a good way of reminding yourself of all the knowledge you have about language and about teaching.

4 Reflection

In the Discovery activities throughout *The TKT Course Modules 1, 2 and 3* we suggest you collect information (data) about your teaching from the classroom, make notes about your findings and think about how you might want to change the way you do things. We can learn from these reflections to help both with the TKT and with improving our teaching.

Reflection is one stage of the classroom research cycle: we start by looking at what happens in the classroom (observation) and by collecting data, then we try to understand the data and decide (reflection) what we can do to improve the situation, and finally, we try out our plans (action) in the classroom.

action   observation

reflection
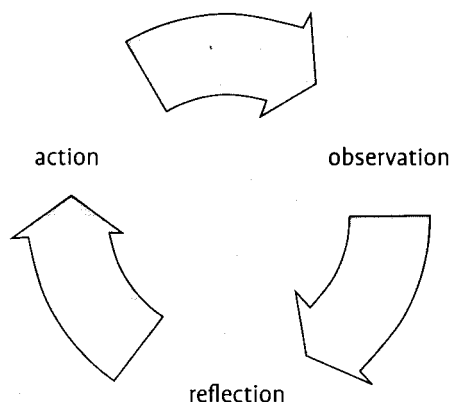
For example, a teacher might want to improve the way they give instructions for classroom activities. By collecting data from a number of lessons, they notice that the instructions are often quite long and confusing and decide to try giving shorter instructions. But when they do this, they see that learners are still quite confused. So they try a different solution: typing out the instructions and giving them to learners on a handout. This seems to be more effective.

We can collect data in many different ways, for example:
- making audio or video recordings of lessons
- giving learners questionnaires to complete
- interviewing learners
- asking learners to keep diaries
- inviting a colleague to observe a lesson
- making our own notes about a lesson.

Reflection is an important approach to developing as a teacher, and a very productive way to prepare for the TKT, especially if you are working alone, or do not have many opportunities to exchange ideas and experiences with colleagues. Remember to write your reflections in your Teacher Portfolio at https://www.teacherportfolio. cambridgeesol.org/ as this will help you keep a record of your reflections so that you can refer back to them later to get ideas for teaching or when preparing for the TKT.

Study for the TKT but also use your everyday classroom teaching to help you prepare for it.

Module 1 | Language and background to language learning and teaching

Part 1 | Describing language and language skills

Unit 1 | Grammar

What is grammar?

Grammar refers to how we combine, organise and change parts of words, words and groups of words to make meaning. We use grammar unconsciously when we speak, listen, read or write. We also use it, particularly as teachers, to describe language. We do this by referring to its **forms** and its uses. Grammar includes a large number of forms and uses.

Key concepts

What are *grammatical forms*?

These refer to how words are made up and presented in speech or writing. For example, the form of the plural of regular **nouns** in English is '**base word** + *s*'; the form of the gerund is 'infinitive + *-ing*'.

We can identify grammatical forms in **parts of speech**, grammatical **structures** and words that contain **prefixes** (a group of letters added at the beginning of a base word) and **suffixes** (a group of letters added at the end of a base word).

There are nine parts of speech in English: nouns, **verbs**, **adjectives**, **adverbs**, **determiners**, **prepositions**, **pronouns**, **conjunctions** and exclamations. A **part of speech** or word class describes how words behave in sentences, i.e. how they operate and combine grammatically with other words. For example, in English:

- a noun can act as the subject of a verb but an adjective by itself cannot
  e.g. *The tall girl ran very fast* (✓) but not *Tall ran very fast* (✗)
- an adverb can combine with an adjective but an adjective cannot combine with another adjective
  e.g. *well organised* (✓), *good organised* (✗)
- a noun can combine with another noun
  e.g. *a car park.*

The form of some parts of speech varies according to the **function** the parts of speech have in a sentence. So, for example, these two sentences show different forms of the adjective *old*: *The boy thought he would never grow old; he's older than most of his friends.*

The table below shows the functions of the different parts of speech. It also shows how most of the parts of speech can be broken down into subcategories.

Part of speech	Examples	Function(s)	Some subcategories
Nouns	*children* *sugar*	to name people, places, things, qualities, ideas, or activities to act as the subject/object of the verb	countable, uncountable, proper, common, abstract, collective
Verbs	*see* *run* *take off*	to show an action, state or experience	transitive, intransitive, regular, irregular, participles, gerunds, infinitives, modals, multi-word verbs, phrasal verbs, tenses, active voice, passive voice, imperative
Adjectives	*easy*	to describe or give more information about a noun, pronoun or part of a sentence	comparative, superlative
Adverbs	*completely* *yesterday* *at the end*	to say more about how, when, where, etc. something happens by adding information to adjectives, verbs, other adverbs or sentences	degree, manner, time, focus, frequency, quantity, attitude markers
Determiners	*my* *the* *this* *both*	to make clear which noun is referred to	possessive adjectives, articles, demonstrative adjectives, quantifiers
Prepositions	*after* *at* *in the middle of*	to show the relationship between a noun, noun phrase or pronoun and another word or phrase	time, place, direction, contrast, exemplification, exception, cause and effect, dependent
Pronouns	*she* *mine* *who* *myself*	to replace or refer to a noun or noun phrase mentioned earlier or about to be mentioned	personal, possessive, relative, reflexive
Conjunctions	*as* *and* *but*	to join words, sentences or parts of sentences	reason, addition, contrast, time, condition, purpose, result
Exclamations	*er* *ow*	to show a (strong) feeling – especially in informal spoken language	feelings of doubt or pain

We also see different grammatical forms in a **grammatical structure**, i.e. the arrangement of words into patterns which have meaning. There are many grammatical terms to describe different grammatical structures. Here are some examples:

Structure	Form
Past continuous/ progressive	subject + past tense of verb *to be* + *-ing* form of verb e.g. *he was running*
Passive voice	subject + *to be* + past participle (+ *by* + agent) e.g. *the road was built* (*by the company*)
Comparative of 'long' adjectives	*more* + long adjective (+ *than*) e.g. *he was more embarrassed than his friend*
Prepositional phrase	*preposition* + (*article/determiner/...*) + *noun* e.g. *for an hour*
Contrast clauses	subordinating conjunction of contrast + finite clause e.g. *Nobody listened <u>although she spoke very slowly and clearly</u>*

As we can see from this table, we find grammatical structures not just in different forms of the parts of speech but also at the level of sentences, phrases and clauses.

We can also talk about how words are formed through word building. One important way in which English forms words is through the use of two kinds of **affixes** (a group of letters added at the beginning or end of a **base word** which change its meaning): prefixes and suffixes. Affixes can give grammatical information, showing whether a verb is singular, for example, or marking a tense, parts of verbs, the plural of nouns, possessives, e.g. *talk<u>ed</u>, go<u>es</u>, go<u>ing</u>, book<u>s</u>, girl<u>'s</u>*. Many other prefixes and suffixes are used in English to make new words, by changing their part of speech and adding a meaning to the base word, e.g. *<u>dis</u>appear, care<u>ful</u>, friend<u>ly</u>*. Some common prefixes in English are *un-/dis-/re-/im-/in-/over-/un-/il-/pre-*. Some common suffixes are *-ment/-ous/-able/-less/-ful/-tion/-ly*.

What are grammatical uses?

Grammatical uses refer to how grammatical structures are used to **convey** (or communicate) **meaning**. A particular grammatical structure, e.g. the present continuous (or progressive), does not always have the same meaning. Its meaning or use comes from the **context** in which it is used. For example *She is doing her homework* might mean:

a) she is doing her homework now/at the moment: the present continuous used for actions at the moment of speaking.

b) she has decided to do her homework at a specific time in the future. The reader or listener understands from the context that this refers to an arrangement for the future, e.g. the question *What is she doing this evening?*, the present continuous used for firm plans and intentions.

c) she has improved her study habits and regularly does her homework, which she didn't do before: the present continuous used for temporary actions happening around the time of speaking.

Many grammatical forms have more than one use. Here are some other examples:

Structure	Some uses

Present simple	a) to describe a present state
	   e.g. *I live in London.*
	b) to describe actions or situations which happen repeatedly but which might not be happening at the moment
	   e.g. *I read newspapers and magazines.*
	c) to refer to the future in a scheduled timetable
	   e.g. *The plane leaves at 10.30.*
	d) to tell a story
	   e.g. *They get to the bus stop early and start talking to the other people. Suddenly ...*
	e) to provide a commentary
	   e.g. *Now here's Jones. He shoots but the goalkeeper manages to save it – another lucky escape!*

Present perfect	a) to describe past actions which have some connection to the present
	   e.g. *I've seen that film.*
	b) to describe an event or situation which is part of one's life experience
	   e.g. *I've visited most of the countries in Europe.*
	c) to describe a temporary state or action that started in the past and still continues
	   e.g. *We've been staying in university accommodation all summer.*

Adverbs	a) to describe how something is done
	   e.g. *She ate her food quickly.*
	b) to focus on something
	   e.g. *He only likes pizza.*
	c) to show an attitude to something
	   e.g. *They can't come, unfortunately.*

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Grammar rules describe the way that language works, but language changes over time, so grammar rules are not fixed. They change, too. But grammar rules and grammar books don't always change as quickly as the language, so they are not always up-to-date. For example, some grammar books say that we should use *whom* rather than *who* after prepositions. But in fact, except in some situations, *who* is generally used, with a different word order, e.g. 'I've just met the girl who I talked to on Friday' is much more common and accepted than 'I've just met the girl to whom I talked on Friday'. Teachers need to keep up-to-date with what parts of the language are changing and how.
- Grammar rules traditionally describe written language rather than spoken language. For example, repetition, exclamations and **contractions** (two words that are pronounced or written as one, e.g. *don't, isn't, won't*) are common **features** (important parts) of spoken language, but they are not always described in grammar books. Some grammar books are now available which describe spoken language, too.

- Very often, speakers of a language can speak and write it well without **consciously** knowing any grammatical rules or terms.
- Teachers need to consider whether it is helpful to teach grammar to learners simply by making them aware of patterns and practising them, or by also teaching them grammar rules and some grammatical terms. Learning some grammatical rules and terms makes language learning easier for some learners. Other learners, e.g. young children, may not find it useful at all.
- Just learning grammatical rules, terms and structures doesn't teach learners how to communicate, which is the main purpose of language. So, much language teaching nowadays also focuses on functions, language **skills**, fluency and communication.
- It is important that exercises and activities **focus on form** *and* use to give students practice of both, e.g. how the second conditional is formed, and that the second conditional is used to talk about situations that are unlikely to happen. Learners need to develop **accuracy** in both form and use.

See Units 9-14 for how we learn grammar, Units 15 -17 for teaching grammatical structures, Units 19, 20 and 21 for planning lessons on grammatical structures, and Unit 32 for ways of correcting grammar.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 237 for answers)*

1 Put these words into the correct category below. Some may belong to more than one category.

as   really   take advantage   both   on the left of   often   very   hard
that   lovely   turn on   London   dining table   either   his   because of
even though   mmm   theirs   usual   only   faster   nobody

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs	Determiners

Prepositions	Pronouns	Conjunctions	Exclamations

2 Use prefixes and suffixes to make maps, as in the example, from these words:
decide, luck, able
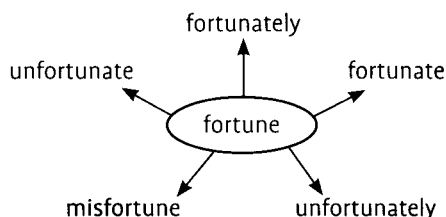
3 Complete the table with an example, a term or a description of form.

Examples of structures	Term	Form
A cold day in Prague	Noun phrase	Indefinite article + adjective + common noun + preposition + proper noun
The most expensive	Superlative adjective	
The girl who I saw last night	Defining relative clause	
	The present simple passive	
	Verb + gerund	
As he didn't understand		
	Indirect command	
You ought to hurry up		

4 Read through the text below and identify the uses of the grammatical forms underlined.

A: The most amazing thing happened to me yesterday. I <u>was leaving</u> the house and I noticed that <u>it was going to</u> rain, so I ran back inside for my umbrella. <u>As soon as</u> I got out of the door, it started to pour down. I tried to open the umbrella but it <u>wouldn't</u> open. If <u>I'd stood</u> under the bathroom shower with my clothes on, I wouldn't have got any wetter! Then I felt something land <u>on my head</u>. It was <u>bigger and heavier</u> than a raindrop. I looked on the ground and I <u>couldn't</u> believe my eyes. There were <u>lots of</u> tiny frogs falling in the rain.

B: Oh no. Are you sure?

A: Absolutely!

B: <u>I've heard</u> of it raining cats and dogs, but never frogs!

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 My students say learning grammar is really boring and doesn't help them speak.
2 Children don't learn grammar when they learn their first language but adults who learn a second language really need to.
3 We need to learn grammar terms to help us learn a language more easily and quickly.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 What grammar reference materials are available in your school? Do they describe spoken or written English? Are they up-to-date? How could they help you with your teaching?
2 Compare any two of these books on grammar or the grammar information on the two websites. Which do you prefer? Why? Are they more useful for you or your learners?
   Practical English Usage (Third edition) by Michael Swan, Oxford University Press 2005

> *English Grammar In Use* (Third edition) by Raymond Murphy, Cambridge
> University Press 2004
> *Cambridge Grammar of English* by Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy,
> Cambridge University Press 2006
> http://www.britishcouncil.org/learnenglish-central-grammar-current.htm
> http://www.englishclub.com/grammar/index.htm
> 3 Look at 'Teaching grammar effectively' at:
>   http://www.cambridge.org/elt/tkt
> 4 Read the grammar section of the *TKT Glossary*. Can you think of examples of all
>   the terms mentioned?

N.B. The TKT always contains a task on grammatical form and a task on grammatical
use. For this reason this unit contains two practice tasks.

TKT practice task 1A *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the sentences and the three words from each listed
A, B and **C**.

Two of the words have the same grammatical function in the sentence. One does **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A, B** or **C**) which does **NOT** have the same grammatical function.

---

1 She told us it was very cold there.

   A she

   B it

   C there

2 It was built when they were young, so they don't remember the old building.

   A was

   B were

   C don't

3 Nobody understood his spoken French because his accent was so 'strong'.

   A understood

   B spoken

   C was

4 He studied IT for his job but he made very slow progress so he gave up.

   A for

   B but

   C so

5 They took off their coats and went to the table near the window.

   A off

   B to

   C near

6 She found it really hard to concentrate as it was so noisy there.

A really

B so

C noisy

7 The young cat ran too fast for the dog to catch it easily.

A young

B fast

C easily

TKT practice task 1B *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-6**, choose the best option (**A**, **B** or **C**) to complete each statement about the uses of the grammatical structures underlined in the sentences.

1 You *should arrive early if you want to make a good impression.* Here *should* is used to

A give advice.

B talk about obligation.

C speculate.

2 *He stopped driving as he was worried about pollution.* Here *as* is used to

A introduce a comparison.

B introduce a reason.

C introduce a time period.

3 *I can't see the girl who she's talking about.* Here *who* is used to

A signal a question.

B give extra information.

C introduce a definition.

4 *My holiday starts next week and I come back the week after, on the 10th.* Here *come back* is used to

A refer to the present.

B refer to the future.

C refer to the past.

5 *I don't know if he's coming.* Here *if* is used to

A talk about a condition.

B discuss a doubt.

C introduce a reported question.

6 *She is living with her sister while she's at university.* Here *is living* is used to

A describe a permanent state.

B describe a continuing action.

C describe a temporary state.

Unit 2   Lexis

■ What is lexis?

Lexis refers to individual words or sets of words, for example: *tree, get up, first of all, all's well that ends well*, i.e. units of vocabulary which have a specific meaning,

■ Key concepts

What kinds of meaning can words have?

We often speak of the meaning of words. In fact words have different kinds of meaning. Firstly, there is the meaning that describes the thing or idea behind the vocabulary item, e.g. a tree is a large plant with a wooden trunk, branches and leaves. This meaning is called 'denotation', and we speak of 'denotative meaning'. Then there is figurative meaning. We speak, for example, of 'the tree of life' or 'a family tree'. This imaginative meaning comes from, but is different from, a word's denotative meaning. There is also the meaning that a vocabulary item has in the **context** (situation) in which it is used, e.g. in the sentence 'We couldn't see the house because of the tall trees in front of it' we understand how tall the trees are partly from knowing the meaning of *tall* and partly from knowing how tall a house is, so the meaning of *tall* in this sentence is partly defined by the context.

The meaning of some vocabulary items can also come from their **form**, e.g. from **prefixes**, **suffixes** or **compounds** (nouns made from two or more separate words). Adding prefixes or suffixes to **base words** (the basic words or parts of a word from which other words can be made) can, for example, give them an opposite meaning (e.g. *unsafe, illegal*) or a comparative (e.g. *easy–easier*), or superlative meaning (e.g. *new–newest*). It may also change their part of speech (e.g. *instruct–instruction, quick–quickly*). The process of adding **affixes** is called **affixation**. **Compound nouns** get their meaning from being together (e.g. *telephone number, bookshop*). They have a different meaning from the individual words they are made up of.

There are also words that regularly occur together, such as **collocations**, fixed expressions and **idioms**. **Collocations** are words that often occur together (e.g. *to take a holiday, heavy rain, arrive at, depend on*). There are many words which collocate in a language, and the degree of collocation can vary. For example, *watch out* is a very strong collocation as these words very often occur together, whereas *watch a video* is less strong and *watch the postmen* is not a collocation. The words in *watch the postmen* can occur together but don't do so often enough to make them a collocation.

Fixed expressions are expressions which can't be changed (e.g. *to tell you the truth, new born, it's up to you*). **Idioms** are a kind of fixed expression as they can't be changed, but their meaning is usually different from the combination of the meaning of the individual words they contain (e.g. *to be under the weather, to have green fingers, once in a blue moon*). Collocations, fixed expressions and idioms are all different kinds of **chunks**. 'Chunks' refers to language that occurs in (semi-)fixed units and that we usually learn as one piece. *Have a good trip, I'd like to ..., how about ..., my name's ...* are further examples of chunks.

Words also have different relationships with one another. They may, for example, be **synonyms** (words with the same or similar meanings) or **antonyms** (words with opposite meanings). They may be part of the same **lexical set** (groups of words that belong to the same topic area, e.g. *family, furniture, food*). They may also belong to the same **word family** (words that come through affixation from the same base word, e.g. *real, really, realistic, unreal*).

False friends, **homophones**, **homonyms** and **varieties of English** are other ways in which words can relate to one another. **False friends** are very important in language teaching and learning. They are words which have the same or a similar form in two languages but a different meaning. *Embarazado*, for example, means *pregnant* in Spanish. It does not mean *embarrassed*, though it looks as if it does to an English speaker! Homophones and homonyms are important, too, in language learning. **Homophones** are words with the same pronunciation but a different meaning or spelling (e.g. *know–no; whether–weather; there–their*). **Homonyms** are words with the same spelling and pronunciation as another word, but a different meaning, e.g. 'they sat on the river <u>bank</u>', 'he put all his savings into the <u>bank</u>'. Words can also relate to one another through being examples of different **varieties of English**, i.e. different kinds of English spoken around the world, e.g. Indian, Australian, US, South African, British. These varieties sometimes affect lexis as the same things can be called by different names in different varieties, e.g. *flat* (British English), *apartment* (US English), *unit* (Australian English), or *cookie* (US English) and *biscuit* (British English).

The table below shows examples of some of the form and meaning relationships of two words.

Lexical features	clear (adjective)	paper (noun)
Denotations	1 easy to understand 2 not covered or blocked 3 having no doubt	1 material used to write on or wrap things in 2 a newspaper 3 a document containing information
Synonyms	*simple* (of denotation 1) *certain* (of denotation 3)	(none)
Antonyms/Opposites	*confusing* (of denotation 1) *untidy, covered* (of denotation 2) *unsure* (of denotation 3)	(none)
Lexical sets	well-written (of denotation 1)	*stone, plastic, cloth*, etc.
Word families	*clearly, unclear, clarity*	(none)
Homophones	(none)	(none)
Homonyms	(none)	(none)
False friends	*French 'clair', i.e. light in colour*	possibly in some languages
Prefixes + base word	*unclear*	(none)
Base word + suffixes	*clearly, a clearing*	*paperless*
Compounds	*clear-headed*	*paper knife, paper shop, paperback*
Collocations	*clear skin, a clear day*	*lined paper, white paper*

Figurative meanings	a clear head	on paper (e.g. It seemed a good idea on paper)
Idioms	to clear the decks (to start afresh)	to put pen to paper

We can see from this table that words sometimes have several denotations. The context in which we are writing or speaking makes it clear which meaning we are using. Words can also change their denotations according to what part of speech they are, e.g. the adjective *clear* and the verb *to clear*. We can also see from the table that not all words have all the kinds of form or meaning relationships.

Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Fully knowing a word involves understanding its form and meaning, e.g. what **part of speech** it is, how it is pronounced and spelt, all the meanings it can have. This cannot take place the first time a learner meets a new word. It takes learners a long time to fully understand and use a word. At first they will probably just learn its most frequent denotative meaning, its spelling and pronunciation.
- Learners need to meet the same words again and again as they advance in their language learning. In this way their memory of them will be **consolidated** and they will get to know more about the word, e.g. other meanings, collocations, the lexical sets they are part of. They can meet words again in texts, or in vocabulary **extension** activities (i.e. activities that give more practice), such as **brainstorming**, labelling, categorising, making lexical sets.
- Whether we are learning our first or our second language, we often recognise a word before we can use it, and we can often recognise the meaning of many more words than we can use. The words we recognise are called our 'receptive' vocabulary; the words we can use are called our 'productive' vocabulary. A teacher usually teaches learners **key** (important) **words** and **exposes** them to many more. The learners **pick** these words **up**, initially only recognising their meaning, then eventually using them productively.
- As words can get part of their meaning from context, and context helps to show the meaning of words, it is useful to teach them in context rather than in isolation, e.g. through texts, stories or descriptions of events that we tell the students about.
- We can use the relationships in meaning between words (synonyms, lexical sets, word families, etc.) and the ways in which they can be built (prefixes, suffixes, compounds) to make activities to help our students extend their knowledge of words, e.g. making opposites, building words through affixation, brainstorming lexical sets and word families.
- When we teach learners new words we can check if these words have any false friends in their language or if these words are homophones or homonyms of other they know. Then we can point this out to the learners and help to save them from misunderstandings.
- At beginner level and with young learners, we often teach general words for categories first, then gradually introduce different items from that category. For example, we may teach *clothes* before teaching *jeans, shirt, T-shirt*, etc.

- A lot of language often occurs in chunks, e.g. collocations, fixed expressions. Experts think that children learning their first language learn the chunks as a whole rather than in parts. This helps them to remember them better and **recall** (remember) them more quickly. As teachers we can **highlight** (draw learners' attention to) chunks of language for learners.
- It is useful for learners to keep vocabulary records in which they record the meaning of the new words, their part of speech, examples of use, any collocations, their pronunciation, any synonyms, etc. Students can return to add information about individual words as they learn more about them.

See Unit 11 for factors affecting the learning of vocabulary, Units 16, 18 and 22 for techniques for the teaching and assessment of vocabulary, and Unit 23 for resources for teaching vocabulary.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 238 for answers)*

1 What does each of these sets of words have in common? Are they synonyms, antonyms, lexical sets, compounds, idioms, collocations, word families, homophones, words with prefixes or words with suffixes?

A table, chair, sofa, bed, bookcase, chest of drawers, desk
B old–young, bright–dark, loud–quiet, fast–slow, first–last, long–short
C to be over the moon, all roads lead to Rome, pay through the nose
D a straight road, a brilliant idea, hard work, no problem, extremely grateful
E neat–tidy, precisely–exactly, to doubt–to question, nobody–no one
F microwave, toothbrush, paper clip, lampshade, bottle top
G illness, badly, useless, doubtful, affordable, ability, practical
H imperfect, rewrite, unable, illiterate, incorrect, ultramodern
I learn, learner, learning, learned
J bear–bare, flour–flower, sea–see, which–witch, right–write

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 There are some advantages in using translation to teach meaning, but some disadvantages, too.
2 I think it's really important for my learners to keep a vocabulary notebook in which they write the word, its meaning(s), its pronunciation, its collocations, etc.
3 Getting to know words is like getting to know a friend – you learn more about them bit by bit.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look up three words from your coursebook in an English–English dictionary. What kinds of information are given for each word? Decide which information is important for your students.
2 Look at Chapter 7 'Vocabulary' in *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005. It tells you more about the meaning of words and gives lots of ideas for teaching vocabulary.

3 Look at 'How to teach lexis' at:
http://www.cambridge.org./elt/tkt
4 Look at these sites. How could they be useful for you as a teacher?
http://dictionary.cambridge.org/
http://www.macmillandictionary.com/
Would they be useful for your students? Write your answers in your Teacher
Portfolio in the section 'Beliefs about teaching and learning'.
5 Would these vocabulary activities websites be useful for your students to use to
extend their vocabulary?
http://www.englisch-hilfen.de/en/words_list/alle.htm
http://www.manythings.org/
6 Use a dictionary or the *TKT Glossary* to find the meanings of these terms:
phrasal verb, multi-word verb, root word.

TKT practice task 2 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-6**, read the text about the city of York. Match the underlined words and
phrases with the lexical terms listed **A-G**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Lexical terms

A compound
B word family
C lexical set
D multi-word verb
E synonym
F word with suffix
G word with prefix

Text

If you are looking for a cultural experience or a **(1)** <u>weekend</u> break, then visit York and
be inspired. Famous for its beautiful **(2)** <u>architecture</u>, <u>streets</u> and <u>cathedral</u>, York is fast
developing an active, lively cultural life.

Take time out to enjoy some of the country's most talented street entertainers or simply
(3) <u>watch the world go by</u> while having a drink by the river. **(4)** <u>Broaden</u> your mind with
a visit to world-class museums or a variety of festivals for all ages and interests held
throughout the year.

A city of contrasts and exciting discoveries, York is a place where the old and the new have
(5) <u>met</u>, and the ordinary <u>meets</u> with the **(6)** <u>unusual</u>.

Unit 3 Phonology

■ What is phonology?

Phonology is the study of the sound **features** used in a language to communicate meaning. In English these features include **phonemes**, **word stress**, **sentence stress** and **intonation**.

■ Key concepts

Do you know what these symbols represent?

/dʒ/ /æ/ /ð/ /ɪ/

All these symbols represent phonemes. A **phoneme** is the smallest unit of sound that can make a difference to meaning in a language. For example, the *s* in *books* in English shows that something is plural, so the sound /s/ has meaning and is a phoneme. Different languages use a different range of sounds and not all of them have meaning in other languages. For example, the distinction between /s/ and /sh/ is an important one in English, where it helps **distinguish** (notice or understand the difference between two things) between words such as *so* and *show*, *sock* and *shock*, *sore* and *shore*, etc. But in Cantonese, you can use either the /s/ or /sh/ sound in words without changing their meaning, i.e. in Cantonese these sounds are not two separate phonemes.

The phonemes of a language are represented in writing by phonemic symbols, such as /iː/, /aɪ/ and /ʃ/. Each phonemic symbol represents only one phoneme, unlike the letters of the alphabet in English where, for example, the letter *a* in written English can represent the /æ/ sound in *hat*, the /eɪ/ sound in *made* and the /ə/ sound in *usually*. Phonemic symbols help the reader know exactly what the correct pronunciation is. The phonemic script is a set of phonemic symbols which show in writing how words or sounds are pronounced, e.g. *beautiful* is written /ˈbjuːtɪfl/, *television* is /ˈtelɪvɪʒn/ and *yellow* is /ˈjeləʊ/. When the symbols are written one after the other to represent a word or group of words they make a phonemic transcription. The phonemes of English are often shown in a chart, called the **phonemic chart**.

iː we	ɪ fit	ʊ look	uː boot	ɪə dear	eɪ say	⤢
e fed	ə alone	ɜː hurt	ɔː ought	ʊə sure	ɔɪ toy	əʊ so
æ hat	ʌ but	ɑː far	ɒ pot	eə fair	aɪ die	aʊ how
p pen	b bin	t tin	d did	tʃ chin	dʒ gentle	k kid	g get
f fin	v very	θ thin	ð these	s sat	z zone	ʃ shirt	ʒ pleasure
m men	n not	ŋ wing	h hen	l let	r red	w we	j yet

(adapted from *Sound Foundations* by Adrian Underhill, Macmillan 1994)

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The chart groups the sounds into **vowels** (sounds made with the mouth partly open and where the air is not stopped by the tongue, lips or teeth, e.g. /e/) in the top left-hand corner, **diphthongs** (a movement from one vowel sound to another within a single syllable, e.g. the vowel sound in *make* /meɪk/ or in *so* /səʊ/) in the top right-hand corner and **consonants** (the flow of air is partly blocked by the tongue, lips or teeth when these sounds are made, e.g. /b/) in the bottom three rows. The consonants are arranged in an order according to how and where in the mouth they are pronounced and whether they are **voiced sounds** (spoken using the vibration of our voice, e.g. /b/, /d/, /dʒ/, /g/) or **unvoiced sounds** (spoken without using our voice, e.g. /p/, /t/, /tʃ/, /k/).

Dictionaries always give phonemic transcriptions of words to show their pronunciation. They usually have a list of all the phonemic symbols at the beginning or end of the book, together with an example of the sound each symbol represents. There are several phonemic scripts with some small differences in the symbols they use. TKT and most learner dictionaries use symbols from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), as does the chart above.

In the transcription of the word /ˈstjuːdənt/ you can see phonemic symbols and also another sign ˈ. Dictionary entries for words also use this symbol. The symbol is used to show **word stress**. Sometimes you see word stress marked in other ways, e.g. /stjuːdənt/. When we give word stress to a **syllable** we say it with greater energy and usually higher, i.e. with more length and sound on its vowel sound. Compare the **stress** in the vowel sounds in the underlined stressed syllables with the other syllables in these words: *pencil, children, important*. We pronounce the other syllables with less energy, especially the unstressed or weak syllables, whose vowels get shortened or sometimes even disappear, e.g. the vowel sound in the last syllable of *important*, which is pronounced as a **schwa** /ə/. There are many languages which, like English, give especially strong stress to one syllable in a word, e.g. the Portuguese spoken in Portugal. Other languages give equal length to all the syllables.

In English, stress also influences how sentences and groups of words are pronounced. We say different parts of the sentence with more or less stress, i.e. slower and louder, or quicker and more softly. This is called **sentence stress**. Normally one word in the sentence has **primary** or **main stress**. This is the word which the speaker thinks is most important to the meaning of the sentence. Other words can have **secondary stress**. This is not so strong as main stress and falls on words which are not so important to the meaning of the sentence as the word with main stress. Other words in the sentence are unstressed. For example, in 'She came home <u>late</u> last night' or 'I can't understand a <u>word</u> he says', the words with the main stress would probably be the underlined ones, the words with secondary stress would probably be *came, home, last, night* and *can't, understand, says*, and the unstressed words *she, I, a* and *he*.

Main and secondary stress usually occur on content words which carry meaning rather than structural words. Content words are nouns, verbs, adverbs or adjectives, i.e. words that give information. Structural words are prepositions, articles, pronouns or determiners, i.e. words we use to build the grammar of the sentence. For example, in the sentence 'The girl ran to the sea and jumped in quickly' the content words are: *girl, ran, sea, jumped, quickly*. The others are grammatical words. You can see that normally these would not be stressed. Of course, there are exceptions to this. It is possible to stress any word in a sentence if the speaker thinks it is important. Putting the stress on an unexpected word in a sentence is called **contrastive stress**. For

example, 'The girl ran <u>to</u> the sea and jumped in quickly.' This stresses that she ran towards the sea and not, for example, away from it. Changing the stress of a sentence changes its meaning. Look at these examples:

✓ The <u>girl</u> ran to the sea and jumped in quickly. (i.e. not another person)

The girl ran to the <u>sea</u> and jumped in quickly. (i.e. not to any other place)

The girl ran to the sea and jumped in <u>quickly</u>. (i.e. not in any other way)

Sentence stress is a characteristic of **connected speech**, i.e. spoken language in which all the words join to make a connected stream of sounds. Some other characteristics of connected speech are **contractions**, e.g. *don't, haven't,* vowel shortening in unstressed words and syllables, e.g. the schwa sound /ə/ in *at home* /ət həʊm/ or *London* /lʌndən/ and **weak forms** (unstressed forms of words, e.g. /kən/ for *can*). These characteristics help to keep the **rhythm** (pattern of stress) of speech regular. The regular beat falls on the main stress, while the weaker syllables and words are made shorter to keep to the rhythm. Try saying the sentences above and beating out a regular rhythm on your hand as you say them.

Another feature of connected speech which helps to keep it smooth is **linking.** In connected speech we join (i.e. link) words together at the **word boundaries** (where one word ends and the next one begins) rather than saying them separately. This happens particularly when one word ends in a consonant sound and the next one starts with a vowel sound, e.g. *up above* /ʌp‿əbʌv/, *he did it* /hiː dɪd‿ɪt/, or when one ends with a vowel sound and the next starts with a vowel sound, e.g. *her English* /hɜːr‿ɪŋglɪʃ/, *go away* /gəʊwəweɪ/. Linking is often represented in a phonemic transcription as ‿.

Intonation is another important feature of connected speech. It is the way a speaker changes the level of their voice to show meaning, i.e. the meaningful tune of a sentence or a group of words. Through it we can show emotions and attitudes, **emphasise** (i.e. give special force to a word) or make less important particular things we say, and signal to other people the **function** of what we are saying, e.g. that we are stopping speaking, asking a question or making a statement.

To hear some of these uses, try saying 'School's just finished' with these meanings:

as a statement of fact

with surprise

with happiness

as a question

to emphasise 'just'.

You should hear the level of your voice rising and falling in different patterns. For example, when you say the sentence as a statement of fact, your intonation has a falling tone as follows: '↘school's just finished'. When you say it as a question, it has a rising tone, as follows: '↗school's just finished', and when you say it with surprise, you will probably say it with a fall-rise tone, as '∨school's just finished'. Different intonation patterns can show many different meanings, but there is no short and simple way of describing how the patterns relate to meanings. If you want to learn more about intonation, look at the book suggested in the Discovery activities on page 25.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- English has become a global language. This means learners need to understand a wide variety of accents in English and be understood by people from many different places. Listening to recordings of speakers from a range of countries helps them with this. They can also, of course, try to listen to TV, radio programmes, and some websites in English.
- Learners need practice in hearing and recognising sound features before they are asked to produce those features themselves.
- A regular focus in lessons on different aspects of pronunciation helps to make learners aware of its importance. This can be done as we teach new language by asking learners to repeat **models** of the new language. We can also encourage clear pronunciation by correcting or asking learners to correct their pronunciation mistakes. We can use activities, too, which focus just on e.g. word stress, sentence stress or **minimal pairs**, i.e. words distinguished by only one phoneme, *ship* and *sheep*, *hut* and *hat*, *thing* and *think*, *chip* and *ship*.
- Teachers can find out which phonemes are problematic for their learners and focus on them.
- Many classrooms have a copy of the phonemic chart on the wall. This can help direct learners' attention to particular sounds when they learn new language or for correction. Learners may not need to learn all the symbols on the chart but just the sounds that are problematic for them.
- Teachers often introduce phonemic symbols to their classes a few at a time rather than all at once. This can help them remember them better.
- It is the teacher's decision whether to use (some of the) phonemic symbols with their classes or not. Some learners, e.g. 5-year-olds or learners unfamiliar with English script, may not find these symbols useful at all. Older learners may appreciate them, particularly as they help them to make good use of dictionaries.
- Teachers themselves will probably find it very useful to know all the symbols in the phonemic script as it helps them use dictionaries with **confidence** and in the preparation of their lessons.

See Units 21 and 23 for how to incorporate the teaching of pronunciation into lesson plans and the resources that can be used to do this.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 238 for answers)*

1 Look at the phonemic symbols in the chart on page 21. Practise saying each symbol. Test yourself or a colleague to see how well you know the symbols.
2 Look at the phonemic chart. Try to think of words which contain each sound.
3 How many phonemes are there in each of these words? What are they?
   word   game   board   afternoon   exercise   thirty
4 Underline the main stress in each of these words:
   thirty   vegetable   impossible   persuade   connection
5 On which word would you put the main stress in each of these sentences?
   I live in Manchester, not London.
   Brasília is in the middle of Brazil, not on the sea.
   The girl was very tall, but her brother was really short.

6 Say 'Fantastic' with different intonations to express these meanings:
  A enthusiasm
  B doubt
  C surprise

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I don't think we need to teach 'correct' pronunciation these days because people all over the world speak English with different accents.
2 You can't improve the pronunciation of adults – there's no point in trying.
3 Knowing about phonology can help teachers when they plan and give their lessons.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at the phonemic chart on page 21 and underline the sounds that your learners find difficult to say.
2 Choose five words you will soon teach your learners. Check their pronunciation in a dictionary. Decide which sounds might be problematic for your learners.
3 Look at *Sound Foundations* by Adrian Underhill, Macmillan 1994. It has lots of useful information about different aspects of phonology.
4 Do some of the pronunciation activities on this website: http://www.cambridgeonline.com/Phonetics_Focus Are any of them useful for you and/or your learners?
5 Do you know the meaning of these words: *rhyme, strong form, contrast, discriminate*? Use a dictionary and/or the *TKT Glossary* to check your definition.

TKT practice task 3 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-8**, look at the questions about phonology and the three possible answers listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the correct answer (**A**, **B** or **C**).

1 Which word contains a schwa sound in connected speech?
  A fantastic
  B expert
  C photograph

2 Which word has two voiced consonants?
  A side
  B tall
  C big

3 Which word contains a diphthong?

    A male

    B meat

    C music

4 Which set of words is a minimal pair?

    A sink – single

    B these – those

    C their – there

5 Which set of words has linking in connected speech?

    A fish and chips

    B baby boy

    C nice food

6 Which is the correct phonemic script for *magazine*?

    A /mægæˈziːn/

    B /mægəˈziːn/

    C /mɑːgɪˈziːn/

7 How many phonemes are there in the word *dangerous*?

    A seven

    B eight

    C nine

8 Which word is stressed on the third syllable?

    A alphabet

    B interrupt

    C decision

Unit 4   Functions

■ What is a function?

A **function** is a reason why we communicate. Every time we speak or write, we do so for a reason. What we say has a purpose or function. Here are some examples of functions:

apologising **greeting clarifying** inviting advising agreeing disagreeing refusing thanking interrupting expressing obligation expressing preferences

We can describe language itself in terms of its grammar or its **lexis**. Functions are a way of describing how we use language. When we describe the functions of language we focus on the use of the language and its meaning for the people who are in the **context** where it is used.

■ Key concepts

Look at this table. What do you think an 'exponent' is?

Context	Exponent	Function
A boy wants to go to the cinema with his friend tonight. He says:	'Let's go to the cinema tonight.'	Suggesting/making a suggestion about going to the cinema
A girl meets some people for the first time. She wants to get to know them. She says:	'Hello. My name's Emilia.'	Introducing yourself
A customer doesn't understand what a shop assistant has just said. The customer says:	'Sorry, what do you mean?'	**Asking for clarification** (asking someone to explain something)
A girl writes a letter to a relative thanking her for a birthday present. She writes:	'Thank you so much for my lovely ...'	Thanking someone for a present

The language we use to express a function is called an **exponent**. The sentences in the middle column in the table above are examples of exponents. In the third column, the functions are underlined. You can see from the table that we use the *-ing* **forms** of verbs (e.g. *suggesting, asking*) to name functions. The words after the function in the third column are not the function. They are the specific topics that the functions refer to in these contexts.

An exponent can express different functions at the same time. It all depends on the context it is used in. For example, think of the exponent 'I'm so tired'. This could be an exponent of the function of describing feelings. But who is saying it? Who is he/she saying it to? Where is he/she saying it?, i.e. what is the context in which it is being said? Imagine saying 'I'm so tired' in the following different contexts:

Context	Possible function
A boy talking to his mother while he does his homework	**Requesting** (asking) to stop doing homework
A patient talking to his doctor	Describing a physical state

One exponent can express several different functions because its function depends on the context. One function can also be expressed through different exponents. Here are five different exponents of inviting someone to lunch. In what different situations would you use them?

Informal

Lunch?
Coming for lunch?
Come for lunch with us?
Why don't you come for lunch with us?
Would you like to come to lunch with us?
We would be very pleased if you could join us for lunch.

Formal

These exponents express different **levels of formality**, i.e. more or less relaxed ways of saying things. Generally speaking, **formal** (more socially distant) **language** is used in more official and important situations amongst people who do not know each other very well. **Informal** (more socially casual) **language** often occurs in relaxed situations, amongst friends, people who know each other well or treat each other in a relaxed way. Informal exponents are sometimes **colloquial**, i.e. very casual and conversational, such as *He's off his head*, i.e. crazy. There are also **neutral** exponents which we use when we want to show neither great respect nor too much casualness towards the person we are talking to. They fall between formal and informal. 'Why don't you come for lunch with us?' is an example of a neutral exponent.

People usually choose to use the level of formality that suits a situation. This is called **appropriacy**. A teacher greeting her class could choose to say 'I'd like to wish you all a very good morning' or 'Hi, guys!'. Both of these are likely to be **inappropriate** (unsuitable) in many classroom situations, the first because it is too formal and the second because it is too informal. It would probably be **appropriate** (suitable) for the teacher to say 'Good morning, everyone' or something similar. Of course, we sometimes use inappropriate language on purpose to create some effect, e.g. a shop assistant using great formality with a customer may be signalling that he would like the customer to leave. Language that reflects the situation in which it is used is often referred to as **register**. 'Hi' is an example of informal register, 'A very good morning to you' an example of formal register.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- **Coursebooks** in the 1980s and 1990s were often organised around functions. Each new unit focused on a new function, e.g. Unit 1 Expressing likes and dislikes, Unit 2 Making suggestions, Unit 3 Agreeing and disagreeing. These books were based on the **Functional Approach** (see Unit 15).

- A focus on functions in the classroom can lead to an **emphasis** on communication and learning language in **chunks**.
- Writing is sometimes taught through functions, e.g. when learning to write letters of complaint, learners can learn exponents for greeting, explaining your reason for writing, describing your complaint, asking.for satisfaction, signing off.
- Nowadays, we usually find functions taught together with the **structures** they contain so that learners do not become confused by meeting a wide range of grammatical patterns together at the same time. We can see this in the **extract** from a map of a coursebook below. In the third column a grammatical structure is given together with exponents of the function 'Expressing likes' which are expressed through this structure.

	Functions	*Grammar*
Unit 6	Expressing likes	First and third person present simple affirmative: I like …, he/she likes …
Unit 7	Expressing dislikes	First and third person present simple negative: I don't like …, he/she doesn't like …

- Combining functions and grammar helps to give grammar meaning and context. It also helps learners to learn functions together with grammatical structures that they can then transfer to other contexts for use.

See Unit 15 for more on the Functional Approach, Units 16 and 17 for teaching activities for functions, Units 19 and 21 for lesson planning, and Units 27–28 for classroom functions.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 238 for answers)*

1 List at least three different exponents for each of these functions and choose a different register for each exponent: agreeing, clarifying, giving an opinion, thanking.
2 Go through the list of exponents you made in 1 and mark them F (formal), N (neutral) or I (informal). Think of situations in which it would be appropriate or inappropriate to use these exponents.
3 Look at your list of exponents. Which would you teach to classes of secondary school learners, 5-year-old beginners, advanced business students?

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 Learners prefer learning functions to learning grammar.
2 Learning functions is more useful for intermediate or advanced learners than for beginners.
3 It is very useful for learners to learn functions for essay writing and letter writing.
4 Primary learners do not need to learn functions.

1 Look at your coursebook. Does it teach functions? Why / why not?
2 What kinds of activities are used in your coursebook to introduce and practise functions? How does the coursebook help learners deal with the grammar of the functions?
3 In your Teacher Portfolio list six functions your learners might need to help them use English outside the classroom. List the most useful exponents for them, too.
4 To find out more about functions and exponents, look at Chapter 5 of *Threshold 1990* by J.A. van Ek and J.L.M. Trim, Council of Europe, Cambridge University Press 1998.
5 Here are some common functions: *declining an invitation, enquiring, expressing obligation, expressing preference, expressing ability, expressing intention, expressing necessity, expressing permission, expressing probability, expressing prohibition.* Use a dictionary and/or the *TKT Glossary* to find their meanings. Can you think of two exponents for each one?

TKT practice task 4 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-6**, read the conversation between two friends in a restaurant. Match the underlined sentences with the functions listed **A-G**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Functions

A predicting
B making an excuse
C making a suggestion
D asking for clarification
E ordering
F agreeing
G disagreeing

Conversation

Janet: This meal really isn't nice. Nothing's fresh and everything tastes a bit strange.
Chris: Yes, you're right. **(1)** We could complain to the manager.
Janet: **(2)** That's a bit rude, isn't it? Maybe we could ask the waiter for something else.
Chris: **(3)** Are you saying you'd like the same dish again?
Janet: No, that's not really a good idea. **(4)** It would probably be as bad as this one.
Chris: But it's better than doing nothing.
Janet: **(5)** True.
Chris: OK, call the waiter and tell him.
Janet: Oh no, not me. **(6)** I hate doing those kinds of things.

Unit 5   Reading

■ What is reading?

Reading is one of the four language **skills**: reading, writing, listening and speaking. It is a **receptive skill**, like listening. This means it involves responding to text, rather than producing it. Very simply we can say that reading involves making sense of written text. To do this we need to understand the language of the text at word level, sentence level or whole-text level. We also need to connect the message of the text to our knowledge of the world. Look at this sentence, for example:

The boy was surprised because the girl was much faster at running than he was.

To understand this sentence, we need to understand what the letters are, how the letters join together to make words, what the words mean and the grammar of the words and the sentence. But we also make sense of this sentence by knowing that, generally speaking, girls do not run as fast as boys. Our knowledge of the world helps us understand why the boy was surprised.

■ Key concepts

Can you think of reasons why learners may find reading difficult?

A text is usually longer than just a word or a sentence. It often contains a series of sentences, as in a letter or even a postcard. Connected text is referred to as **discourse**. Discourse is connected by grammar and vocabulary and/or our knowledge of the world. Reading involves understanding these connections. For example:

The boy was surprised because the girl was much faster at running than he was. But after he found out that her mother had won a medal for running at the Olympic Games, he understood.

The second sentence gives us a possible reason why the girl was so good at running. But we can only understand that this is a reason if we know that Olympic runners are very good. This means we need to use our knowledge of the world to see the sense connection between these two sentences (**coherence**). The grammatical links between the sentences (**cohesion**) also help us see the connection between them. For example, in the second example sentence 'he' refers to 'the boy' in the first sentence, and 'her' refers to 'the girl', and linking the sentences there is the **conjunction** 'after'. So, understanding a written text involves understanding the language of each sentence and the relationship between sentences using our knowledge of language and our knowledge of the world.

Reading also involves using different reading skills. They include:

Reading for **specific** information (**Scanning**)	Reading for gist (**Skimming**)
Reading for detail	**Inferring**
Deducing meaning from context	**Predicting**
Understanding **text structure**	

These are sometimes referred to as reading skills and sometimes as reading **subskills**. They help us read in different ways according to our purpose for reading. When we read, we do not necessarily need to read everything in a text. How we read depends on what and why we are reading. For example, we may read a travel website to find a single piece of information about prices. But we may read a novel in great detail because we like the story and the characters, and want to know as much as we can about them. So, our reasons for reading influence how we read, i.e. which reading subskill we use.

If we read a text just to find a specific piece or pieces of information in it, we usually use a subskill called reading for specific information or scanning. When we **scan**, we don't read the whole text. We glance over most of it until we find the information we are interested in, e.g. when we look for a number in a telephone directory.

Another reading subskill is **reading for gist** or **skimming**. This is sometimes also called **reading for global understanding**. It involves glancing through a text to get a general idea of what it is about. For example, you skim when you look quickly through a book in a bookshop to decide if you want to buy it, or when you go quickly through a reference book to decide which part will help you write an essay, or glance at a newspaper article to see if it is worth reading in detail.

A third reading subskill is **reading for detail**. It involves getting the meaning out of every word and out of the links or relationships between words and between sentences. If you read a letter from someone you love who you haven't heard from for a long time, you probably read like this. Sometimes in books on English language teaching, but not in the TKT, this skill is called **intensive reading**.

Inferring is another skill readers sometimes use to get meaning from a text. When they read, they work out what the writer's opinion on a topic is or what his/her feeling is. To **infer** these things we notice what words, register, grammar or style the writer has used to refer to something.

There are other skills the reader can use. **Deducing meaning from context** involves reading the words around an unknown word or thinking about the situation the unknown word is used in to try and **work out** its meaning. For example, imagine you see a text in Portuguese which you know gives facts about Portugal. You see this sentence: *Lisboa é a capital de Portugal*. You can probably deduce the meaning of *Lisboa*. To do this, you use what you have been told about this text and you deduce from your knowledge of English that *capital* means 'capital' and *Portugal* means 'Portugal'! From your general knowledge you know that Lisbon is the capital of Portugal, so you work out that *Lisboa* means 'Lisbon'. And you are right! When we read we don't always know the meaning of all the words we meet. This skill helps us understand unknown words without making use of a dictionary or some other **reference resource**.

Predicting means using clues before we begin reading, to guess what a text may be about. We might, for example, look at a newspaper's headlines or photos, the title of a chapter or unit, the name of a writer or even the stamp and address on an envelope to make an informed guess about the general contents of the text. **Prediction** helps us decide if we wish to read the text (if the stamp and address on the envelope suggest the text is probably a bill, we may not be so keen), and to make sense of it when we start reading it, because it gives us the opportunity to link the topic of the text to our knowledge of the world, and more especially to our knowledge of the topic of the text. As we read through a text, we continue predicting, using what we are reading to sense what will come next.

Understanding **text structure** involves understanding how certain types of text generally develop. For example, if we read a problem-solution essay, we expect that it will first discuss the problem, then suggest a **solution**, then draw a conclusion. If we read a letter of complaint in English, we generally expect the first paragraph will say why the writer is writing, the second will give the details of the complaint and the third what the writer wants in answer to his complaint. Readers expect certain information to come in certain **sequences**. They use this knowledge to know where they are in the text and find their way through it. Understanding the meaning of conjunctions is an important part of this skill as they often signal how an argument will continue or is about to change.

Extensive and intensive reading are ways of reading. **Extensive reading,** sometimes called reading for pleasure, involves reading long pieces of text, for example a story or an article. As you read, your attention and interest vary – you may read some parts of the text in detail while you may skim through others, so you might use a variety of reading subskills.

Sometimes, especially in language classrooms, we ask learners to read texts so that we can examine the language they contain. For example, we might ask learners to look for all the words in a text related to a particular topic, or work out the grammar of a particular sentence. The aim of these activities is to make learners more aware of how language is used. These activities are sometimes called **intensive reading**. This way of reading does not involve reading for meaning or **comprehension** (understanding) of the text. It involves reading for language study. Sometimes in books on English language teaching, but not in the TKT, this skill is called reading for detail. When we read about reading we need to be quite clear what skill is being referred to in order not to get confused!

Understanding different **text types** is something else good readers can do. Some examples of written text types are letters, articles, postcards, stories, information brochures, leaflets and poems. All these kinds of text types are different from one another. They have different lengths, **layouts** (the ways in which text is placed on the page), topics and kinds of language.

We can see that reading is a **complex** process. It involves understanding letters, words and sentences, understanding the connections between sentences, understanding different text types, making sense of the text through our knowledge of the world and using the **appropriate** reading subskill. Reading may be a receptive skill but it certainly isn't a passive one!

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- If learners know how to read in their own language, they can transfer their reading skills to reading in English. Sometimes though, they find this difficult, especially when their language level is not high, so they need help to transfer these skills. Teachers can check which reading subskills their learners are good at, then focus on practising the subskills they are not yet using well. They can also help them by **pre-teaching vocabulary** (teaching vocabulary from the text before the learners read the text), by asking learners to predict text content and with certain kinds of learner, **encouraging** them to predict text structure.

- To help learners bring their knowledge of the world to understanding a text the teacher can do **lead-in** activities before the class looks at the text. **Lead-in** activities generally involve looking at the pictures around a text or at the title and trying to predict what the text will be about. They can also involve using **brainstorming** (thinking of and listing ideas or vocabulary about a topic) to predict what vocabulary the text might contain, discussing the general topic of the text or talking about experiences of it.
- Giving learners lots of opportunities for extensive reading, in or out of class, helps them to develop their fluency in reading. **Graded readers** (books with language made easier for language learners) are a very useful way of giving learners extensive reading practice, helping them build up their **confidence** in reading and **consolidate** the language they know and gradually extend it to include new language. Nowadays you can find graded readers on a very wide variety of subjects and at a large number of language learning levels.
- Which reading skills we need to teach depends on the age and first language of the learners. Some learners of English, e.g. young children, may not yet know how to read in their own language. They need to learn how letters join to make words and how written words relate to spoken words both in their language and in English. Other learners may not understand the script used in English as their own script is different, e.g. Chinese, Arabic.
- We can choose the right texts for our learners. Texts should be interesting in order to motivate learners. Texts should also be at the right level of difficulty. A text may be difficult because it contains **complex** (complicated) language and/or because it is about a topic that learners don't know much about.
- To make sure learners get used to a range of text types we can give them different kinds of texts to read, e.g. articles, stories, postcards, emails, brochures, leaflets, etc.
- The activities in a reading lesson often follow this pattern:
  1 **Introductory activities**: activities focusing on the topic of the text, pre-teaching vocabulary and possibly asking learners to predict the content of the text.
  2 Main activities: a series of comprehension activities developing different reading subskills, focusing initially on general then more detailed comprehension.
  3 Post-**task** activities: activities asking learners to talk about how the topic of the text relates to their own lives or to give their opinions on something in the text. These activities require learners to use some of the language they have met in the text.
- Notice that the list of reading skills on page 31 does not include reading aloud. The purpose of reading aloud is not reading to get information from a written text, and it is not something that a user of a language usually does. Reading aloud takes place mainly in the language classroom where it is often used to check learners' pronunciation or to check their understanding of a text. Reading aloud well is a difficult thing to do as it relies on understanding a text very well, and on being able to predict what will come next in the text. If it is used in the classroom, it is most usefully done after other work on comprehension of the text has been completed successfully and the learners have a good understanding of the details of the text.

See Unit 17 for activities practising different reading subskills, Units 19-21 for lesson planning, and Unit 23 for resources to help plan lessons.

1 Look at these activities from a coursebook for intermediate level teenagers and young adults and an extract from the reading passage they accompany. Which of the terms about reading in the box match which activities?

> Scanning
> Learning key vocabulary
> Consolidating language or evaluating opinions in the text
> Relating the topic to your knowledge of the world
> Reading for detail

Life stories

▶ Present perfect simple
▶ *for, since* and *ago* and Present perfect continuous
▶ Reading: *Parallel lives*
▶ Pronunciation: Strong and weak forms of *have*, Linking
▶ Vocabulary: Describing life events, Positive characteristics
▶ Task: Talk about someone you admire
▶ Wordspot: *take*
▶ Writing: A curriculum vitae

Reading

1 Work in pairs. Have you got any brothers or sisters? In what ways are you similar/different? Which of your parents/grandparents do you take after? Think about the following things.

facial expressions	opinions and attitudes
health	personality
looks	tastes and interests

> People say I look like my sister.

> I'm completely different from my mother – she's … but I'm …

> I think I take after my grandmother because I'm very …

2 Do you know any twins? If so, are they identical or not? What kind of relationship have they got?

3 Read the text quickly. Which twins do each of these statements refer to?

a They seemed almost telepathic.
b They got married on the same day without knowing.
c The similarities between their lives were truly remarkable.
d They had their own special language.

4 Check the words and phrases in the box in your mini-dictionary. Then read the text again and tick the statements that are true about Professor Bouchard's research.

to be adopted	a coincidence	genes/genetic
to influence someone		to be separated at birth
your upbringing / to be brought up		

a He contacted both identical and non-identical twins separated at birth.
b He collected as much information about them as he could.
c He found that the similarities between Terry and Margaret were very unusual.
d He found that twins who are brought up together always have more in common than twins who are brought up separately.
e He doesn't think upbringing has an important influence on personality.
f He has found that genes can influence:
– the things we do in our free time.
– how intelligent we are.
– our political opinions.
– the illnesses we have.
– the things we like and dislike.

5 Discuss the following questions in small groups.

• Which of the similarities between the 'Jim Twins' do you find the most amazing?
• Which of the similarities do you think might be genetic, and which must be a coincidence?
• Which do you think is more important to our personality – our genes or our upbringing?

Margaret Richardson and Terry Connelly have almost identical taste in clothes, both have four children of more or less the same age, and both were married on exactly the same day. Not surprising, perhaps, Margaret and Terry are identical twins. What is surprising is that they didn't even meet until they were in their mid-thirties – after their children were born.

It is well known that twins are closer than most brothers and sisters – after all, they spend more time in each other's company. Occasionally, this closeness becomes extreme: for example, Grace and Virginia Kennedy who as children invented their own language; or Greta and Freda Chapman who can speak the same words at the same time in the same voice, as if linked by telepathy.

But what happens if, like Terry and Margaret, identical twins are separated at birth and brought up in different families? Will their backgrounds make them completely different, or will their shared genes still mean that they have a lot in common? Professor Tom Bouchard from the University of Minnesota, set out to find the answer to this question. He traced more than a hundred pairs of twins who were adopted by different parents at birth, sixty-four of whom were identical twins. Each twin was then tested and interviewed about every detail of their life and personality.

It turned out that Margaret and Terry were not unusual. As well as looking very similar, many twins had the same IQ, the same health problems, the same hobbies and interests, the same attitudes and even the same tastes. Several pairs of twins arrived at their first meeting in the same clothes, and one pair of middle-aged women were wearing identical jewellery. Others had made the same career

(from *New Cutting Edge* Intermediate by Sarah Cunningham and Peter Moor, Longman 2005)

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I think reading for detail is the most important reading skill.
2 My learners really like me to read them stories, even if they don't understand everything.
3 Some of my learners try to understand each new word in a text; then they often don't understand what the whole text is about.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at one reading text in your coursebook. What text type is it? What reading subskills do its exercises and activities focus on? Is the text interesting and at the right level for the learners? Write your answers in your Teacher Portfolio.

2 Teach a reading skills lesson. Put your plan and your materials in your Teacher Portfolio. Include some comments about what was successful / not successful and why. Also comment on how you would improve the lesson next time.

3 Look at these websites. Would you recommend them to your learners?
http://learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org/short-stories – reading texts and activities for primary-age learners
http://kids.mysterynet.com – mystery stories to read and solve
http://www.thenewspaper.org.uk – newspaper extracts with sports, news and music for teens
http://www.roythezebra.com/index.html – reading activities and games

4 Use the *TKT Glossary* to find the meaning of these terms: *theme, develop skills*. How do they relate to the teaching of reading?

TKT practice task 5 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the readers' statements with the ways of reading listed **A-D**.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Ways of reading

> **A** reading for detail
> **B** intensive reading
> **C** deducing meaning from context
> **D** predicting

Readers' statements

1 Sometimes I know from just looking at the photo beside a text whether it's worth reading.

2 Looking at words around a word you don't understand can help you guess its meaning.

3 I always read the headline of an article to help me decide whether to read it further or not.

4 When I'm studying, I need to make sense of every bit of the writer's arguments so I have to read very carefully.

5 Thinking about your knowledge of a subject can sometimes help you understand words.

6 Sometimes I underline all the conjunctions in texts I read – it helps me follow the writer's argument.

7 I had to sign a contract last week so, before I read it, I made sure I understood completely every sentence in it.

Unit 6 Writing

What is writing?

Writing is one of the four language **skills**: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Writing and speaking are **productive skills**. That means they involve producing language rather than receiving it, as in listening and reading. Very simply, we can say that writing involves communicating a message by making signs on a page. To write we need to have something to communicate, and usually someone to communicate it to. We also need to be able to form letters and words, to join these together to make sentences or a series of sentences that link together and to communicate our message in such a way as to get our message across. We will look at how we do this.

Key concepts

Make a list of what you have written in your language in the past week.

Maybe you haven't written anything in the past week! But perhaps you have written a shopping list, a postcard, a birthday card, some emails, your diary, some text messages, or maybe a story. If you are studying, perhaps you have written an essay. All of these are examples of written **text types**. You can see from this list that text types involve different kinds of writing, as each text type has different characteristics, e.g. single words only, short sentences or longer sentences; use or non-use of note form, addresses or paragraphs; different degrees of **formality**; different **layouts**; different ways of ordering information, i.e. structuring the text. When we learn to write, we need to learn how to produce these characteristics for each text type we write and to know how to vary the characteristics within text types depending on who we are writing to. For example, if you write a letter to a close friend, you will probably use a different layout, and different levels of **complexity** of grammar, **register** and range of vocabulary from those you use in a job application letter.

Writing also involves using writing **subskills**. Some of these are related to **accuracy**, i.e. using the correct forms of language. The others relate to communicating our ideas.

The writing subskills related to accuracy are spelling correctly, forming letters correctly, joining letters together correctly, writing legibly, punctuating correctly, using correct layouts, choosing the right vocabulary, using grammar correctly, joining sentences correctly and correctly using **paragraphs** (a part of a longer piece of writing, which starts on a new line and usually focuses on one idea).

The writing subskills related to communicating our ideas include using appropriate style and register, organising ideas in a helpful way, using the **features** typical of the text type we are writing, joining our words and sentences clearly and using **appropriate functions** to express our meaning, e.g. **narrating** (telling a story), complaining, **requesting**, thanking, **summarising** (expressing main points or ideas in a few clear words), concluding.

Look at this **extract** (part of a text) from the contents page of a pre-intermediate coursebook. It shows the writing **syllabus**. Note on the right the different aspects of writing it focuses on.

Module 1	Write a fact file Punctuation	accuracy
Module 2	Linking ideas in a narrative Linkers: *but, so, because, then*	cohesion accuracy
Module 3	Writing a paragraph	cohesion
Module 4	Write an invitation A letter of invitation	text types
Module 5	Write a newspaper report Writing a description	text types functions
Module 6	Write a postcard More postcards	text types
Module 7	A mini-biography	text types
Module 8	Giving written directions Notes giving directions	text types functions
Module 9	Saying thank you	functions
Module 10	Time words in narratives Time phrases	accuracy
Module 11	Replying to invitations	functions
Module 13	Completing an application form Error correction (1)	text types accuracy
Module 14	Paying online	functions
Module 15	Write a letter back to Earth Error correction (2)	text types accuracy

(adapted from *New Cutting Edge* Pre-Intermediate by Sarah Cunningham and Peter Moor, Longman 2005)

The writers of this coursebook have chosen to focus here on two aspects of **cohesion**: making use of linkers to link ideas and writing a paragraph. Other ways of making a text **cohesive** (linked together) include the use of reference words to refer backwards or forwards to other words in the text, the use of a **logical** way of organising the information in a text and the use of paragraphs and **topic sentences** (a sentence that gives the main point or subject of a paragraph). There are many examples of these **cohesive devices** (ways of linking a text) in this extract from an article entitled 'My favourite lesson', written by a teacher of English. Some are **highlighted**.

(a) Topic sentence

(b) Pronoun referring back to 'academic subjects'

(d) Conjunction of contrast

(c) Conjunction of reason

(f) Topic sentence

(e) Pronoun referring back to the previous sentence

(g) Pronoun referring back to 'teaching English'

(a) <u>I'm not sure I could say what my favourite lesson was</u>. I sort of liked everything. I liked academic subjects, and chose to take exams in (b) <u>them</u>, but I also liked practical subjects like woodwork and cookery.

I suppose history must have been my favourite, (c) <u>because</u> 5 it's what I chose to do at college. Maybe it sounds strange (d) <u>but</u> I wanted to understand the world and I think history helps. It's definitely a way of understanding the world around you. Twenty years ago the map of Europe was shaped by the Second World War, and how would you know (e) <u>that</u> if you 10 didn't know history?

(f) I <u>studied French at school, too, and I'm much more interested in languages now than I was then</u>. I like the way that language reflects culture, and the other way round. I taught English in Guatemala for a year, and I found that 15 Spanish in South America is much softer than in Spain.

I don't see my job as spreading English round the world – I would not want that to happen. (f) <u>But I do enjoy meeting the different nationalities that I teach and watching them interacting.</u> The other day I had a French Catholic priest, 20 Muslims from Iran and Turkey and Buddhists in one class and they were all very respectful of one another.

The national stereotypes do come out though, and they're often true: getting the Italians or Spanish, for example, to stop talking and the Japanese and Koreans to say something. 25

The best thing about teaching English is that (g) <u>it</u> gives you the opportunity to get out there and learn about the world.

('My favourite lesson' by Arlo Kitchingman from the *Guardian* 15.03.05)

A writer not only employs various subskills when writing, but also goes through a number of **stages** of writing. These often involve, particularly for longer or more important pieces of writing, the stages of:

- working out what you want to say, i.e. getting or developing ideas
- working out the order in which you want to say it, i.e. planning/organising ideas
- **drafting**/writing the first **draft** (the first **version** (or form) of a piece of writing, that may well be changed)
- **editing** (correcting and improving the content of the text)
- **proofreading** (checking for mistakes in accuracy and correcting)
- **re-drafting** (writing a second/final version of your piece of writing).

These stages form part of the writing process. We can see from them that writing in fact begins before we put pen to paper or start word processing, and that it involves the writer in carrying out several **steps** which each lead in to the next one and **aim** to improve the quality of the final product.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

- The subskills of writing that we choose to teach will vary, depending on our learners' age and needs. At primary level we may spend a lot of time teaching learners how to form letters and words, how to join them together and how to write short texts of a few words or sentences, often by copying. Learners at primary level are not just learning how to write in English but also how to write letters and words. This may also be true for learners whose first language does not use the Roman alphabet.
- At secondary level we may need to focus more on other kinds of accuracy and the communication skills required to write longer texts such as letters, emails or compositions.
- Before they start writing it's useful to **encourage** learners to think about why they are writing (their reason for writing) and who they are writing to (their audience). This helps them focus on what they want to say (content) and how to say it (register and style).
- Many activities exist to help learners practise accuracy in writing, e.g. labelling, copying, sentence completion, **gap-filling**, **sentence transformation** exercises, dividing texts into paragraphs, putting **punctuation** into an unpunctuated text, proofreading exercises to correct **errors** in texts.
- Many activities exist to help learners practise communicating through writing, e.g. story completion, **jumbled picture stories**, writing birthday cards, writing emails of invitation.
- We can support learners in their writing by moving on to writing after doing some listening, reading or speaking on a topic. In this way, learners have already worked on the language of the topic and may have developed ideas about it.
- Teachers sometimes work with **models** (clear examples) of text types when teaching writing. Models can show learners what patterns of language, vocabulary, register or layout to use, or how to structure their writing. They can also help learners get ideas about what to write. Models are used in **guided/product writing**.
- We can also **guide** or support learners in their writing through the use of a **process writing** approach. With this approach the teacher gives learners the opportunity to work through the stages in the writing process. They move from planning their work, to drafting it, and then on to editing, re-drafting and proofreading. This approach allows learners to focus on different aspects of writing at different times. At the planning stage they focus on developing ideas and organising them. At the drafting stage they focus on finding the language to express themselves, and at the editing, re-drafting and proofreading stages they focus on **evaluating** (looking at the strengths and weaknesses of) their ideas, the organisation of their writing and the accuracy of their language.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See pages 238-9 for answers)*

1 Go back to the text 'My favourite lesson'. Find all the other pronouns that refer back or forward to other things, find all the other conjunctions and any other topic sentences.

2 Look at this writing activity. Match the terms about writing skills in the box to the different steps. Some terms may match more than one step.

Extending ideas	Drafting	Practising spelling	Structuring ideas/
Providing a model	Thinking about	Developing ideas	planning
	your reader		Understanding
			the task

Worksheet 2   Dream on!   **Writing 1**

A You are going to write your own magazine article related to this topic.

  1 Read the task carefully.

> **Writing Task**
>
> Write a magazine article of 250–300 words describing a future dream of yours. Say how you plan to achieve it.

  2 Before you start writing, make notes in answer to these questions:

Questions	Notes
a What exactly is your dream?	
b How easy/difficult will it be to achieve?	
c What do you plan to do to help you achieve your dream?	
d How will you feel if you don't achieve it?	

  3 Compare notes with a partner. Discuss the similarities and differences between your dreams.

B Referring to the notes you have just made, organise your ideas into paragraphs. Try to interest, involve, amuse or surprise the reader.

  Here is a possible five-paragraph plan based on the notes you have made:

Title	Give the article a catchy title. Remember, you want to attract people's attention to read the article.
Paragraph 1	Introduce your subject. You want to involve the reader, so your first sentence is very important. You could start with a question. Say briefly what your dream is.
Paragraph 2	Say how easy it will be to achieve your dream.
Paragraph 3	Say what you will need to do to achieve this dream.
Paragraph 4	Say what you will do and how you will feel if you don't achieve it.
Paragraph 5	End in an interesting way, for example, with another question or a dramatic statement.

C Write your article. Use your paragraph plan and some of the expressions below. As you write, also think about the style and tone of the article 'Why not do something less boring?'

> **Useful language**
>
> Have you got a dream?
> I wonder what your dream is. Mine is to …
> It's not going to be easy to …
> I'm going to do everything I can …
> I might have to …
> (Even) If I don't achieve it, I'll …

(from *Advanced Skills* by Simon Haines, Cambridge University Press 2006)

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I don't write confidently in English myself. I don't really know how to improve either.
2 When I teach writing I usually focus more on accuracy than on communicating ideas.
3 My learners find writing really boring. I do it as little as possible.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Go back to the list you made of text types you have written this week. Beside each, note your reason for writing and who you wrote to. Note, too, what characteristics of text types you used, e.g. register, layout, order of information. Write your answers in your Teacher Portfolio.

2 Write an email or a note to a friend. As you write, decide which of these subskills you used: developing ideas, ordering ideas, forming letters correctly, writing sentences grammatically, linking sentences, proofreading.

3 Look at the contents page of one of your coursebooks. What aspects of writing does it focus on, e.g text types, functions, cohesion, finding ideas, accuracy?

4 Look at these resources. Which would be useful for your learners? And for you?
http://tqjunior.thinkquest.org/5115/s_writing.htm
http://web.archive.org/web/20050207033517/www.hio.ft.hanze.nl/thar/writing.htm
http://www.britishcouncil.org/kids-writing-storymaker.htm
Chapter 9, *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan, 2005
Simple Writing Activities by Jill and Charles Hadfield, Oxford University Press 2001

5 What do these terms related to writing mean: *note-taking, literacy*? Use the *TKT Glossary* to check your answers.

TKT practice task 6 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, choose the best option (**A**, **B** or **C**) to complete each statement about writing skills.

1 Using cohesive devices does **NOT** require us to
   A replace nouns.
   B check tenses.
   C include conjunctions.

2 Process writing does **NOT** require us to
   A proofread.
   B summarise.
   C draft.

3 Brainstorming does **NOT** require us to
   A note down ideas.
   B think of ideas.
   C edit ideas.

4 Writing a topic sentence does **NOT** require us to
   A include examples in a paragraph.
   B write the main point of a paragraph.
   C focus on a paragraph's meaning.

5 Re-drafting does **NOT** require us to
   A write a clearer version.
   B evaluate what we have written.
   C include different ideas.

6 Writing in a suitable register does **NOT** require us to
   A think about appropriate language use.
   B consider who we are writing to.
   C use models for writing.

7 Structuring a text does **NOT** require us to
   A present information in an accepted order.
   B use complex grammar.
   C link paragraphs and sentences.

Unit 7   Listening

■ What is listening?

Listening is one of the four language **skills**: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Like reading, listening is a **receptive skill**, as it involves responding to language rather than producing it. Listening involves making sense of the **meaningful** sounds of language. We do this by making use of **context**, language and our knowledge of the world.

■ Key concepts

Listening involves understanding spoken language. Spoken language is different from written language.

What differences can you think of between spoken and written language? List some before reading this table.

Written language	Spoken language
Stays on the page; doesn't disappear.	Disappears as soon as it is spoken. Sometimes it is spoken fast and sometimes slowly, with or without pauses.
Uses **punctuation** and capital letters to show sentences.	Indicates sentences and meaningful groups of words through **stress** and **intonation**.
Consists of letters, written words and sentences, and punctuation joined together into text.	Consists of sounds, single words, sentences, utterances (complete sense units) and incomplete sentences joined together in **connected speech**.
Often has no visual support.	The speaker uses body language to support his/her communication; for example, **gestures** (movements of hands or arms to help people understand us), and **facial expressions** (the expressions on our faces).
Is usually quite well organised: sentences are complete, follow one another in a **logical sequence** and are joined to previous or following sentences. Topics are usually separate from one another.	Is not so well organised; e.g. it contains interruptions, **hesitations** (pausing when speaking because you're not sure what to say or how to say it), repetitions and frequent changes of topic.
Usually uses quite exact vocabulary and more **complex** grammar.	Often uses rather general vocabulary and simple grammar.

As we can see, spoken language is generally less planned and less well structured than written language. There are very good reasons for this. When we speak we usually don't have time to organise our thoughts and our language beforehand, so we just say things as we think of them. Also when we listen, we need to listen to simply structured messages. As spoken texts usually disappear as soon as they are said, they need to be simple enough for us to **process** and understand in the time that is available. We can see that written and spoken language have different **features**

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because they are produced and understood in different kinds of circumstances. Their features respond to these circumstances.

To understand spoken language we need to be able to deal with all the characteristics of spoken language listed in the table above. Here is an example of spoken language. You can see that it can be less well organised and less exact than written language:

Father:	How's your homework? You know, your history?
Son:	Easy.
Father:	You sure?
Son:	It's just ... I mean all we need to do is, well, just read some stuff.
Father:	But d'you understand it?
Son:	Yeah. Can I go and play with Tom?

The conversation contains examples of incomplete sentences, **utterances**, hesitations, sudden topic change, simple grammar and general vocabulary. We make sense of it partly through our understanding of language but also through making use of the context the language is spoken in and our knowledge of the world. In this example, our knowledge of relationships between fathers and sons, and of children's attitudes to homework, may give us some help in understanding, but if we knew the exact context of the conversation (e.g. where it took place, the father's and son's body language, their attitudes to homework, their relationship), we would understand more.

Like written language, spoken language has different **text types**, e.g. conversations, stories, announcements, songs, instructions, lectures and advertisements. Generally, they contain different ways of organising language and information, different grammatical patterns, a particular range of vocabulary, different **interaction patterns**, fewer or more participants, etc. Learning to listen involves learning to be able to understand a range of **relevant** (suitable) text types.

Listening also involves understanding different speeds of speech and different accents. Some people speak more slowly and with more pauses. Others speak fast and/or with few pauses. Features such as speed of delivery and accent are part of **connected speech**, i.e. spoken language in which words join together to form a connected stream of sounds. Other features of connected speech are word and sentence stress, **linking** sounds and words together and the use of contracted forms. One reason why learners have problems understanding spoken language is because they are not used to dealing with features of connected speech.

But we do not listen to everything in the same way. There are several different listening **subskills**. Which subskill we use depends on our reason for listening. We might **listen for gist/global understanding**, **specific** information, **detail** or to **infer attitude** (listening to see what attitude a speaker is expressing). Other ways of listening are **listening intensively** and **extensively**. Our reason for listening influences the amount and kind of information we need to listen for. So, for example, when listening to a train announcement for specific information we might simply need to hear some times, but when listening to the details of some important news we might want to make sense of every word to find out what exactly happened and why. See Unit 5 Reading, page 31 for an explanation of the terms for the subskills.

We can see that listening involves doing many things besides understanding the grammar, vocabulary and **functions** of what we hear. It also involves dealing with the characteristics of spoken language; using the context and our knowledge of the world; understanding different text types; understanding different speeds of speech and accents, making sense of connected speech and using appropriate listening subskills.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- In the classroom, we can give learners the opportunity to listen to many sources of spoken language, e.g. the teacher, other learners, visitors, CDs, DVDs. This **exposes** learners to a range of accents, speeds of delivery, text types and listening skills.
- When we listen to a recording we can't see the speaker's body language or the context he/she is speaking in, and we can't ask the speaker to repeat or explain what they said. This makes listening to recordings more difficult than listening to live speakers. For this reason, it is a good idea to help students listen to recordings by e.g. **pre-teaching key words**, setting pre-listening **tasks**, focusing initially on gist listening to establish context, and playing the recording a second or even a third time.
- Some listening texts in **coursebooks** are **authentic material**, i.e. they contain all the features of real spoken language. Other texts are written especially for language learners and are graded to make them simple enough for particular levels of learners. Authentic texts allow learners to develop strategies for dealing with the challenge of real language, while **simplified** texts (texts that have been made easier) allow them to build up their **confidence**.
- Understanding and showing you have understood are not the same thing. For example, maybe you can understand all of a story, but you can't tell the story. This means that learners may have understood something but be unable to explain what they have understood. **Tasks** such as completing tables, **true/false**, ticking correct answers in lists, and putting events in order allow learners to show whether they have understood or not, without needing to use much language.
- We have seen that there are many different aspects to listening, e.g. identifying different **phonemes** and other features of connected speech. A teacher can focus on these through a listening text or may sometimes prefer to do short activities just focusing on one of these aspects, e.g. a 5-minute activity on **minimal pairs**, **word stress**, **sentence stress** or dictation.
- We can make a difficult text easier for learners to understand by giving them easy listening tasks, or we can make an easier text more difficult by giving them harder listening tasks.
- The activities in a listening lesson often follow this pattern:
  1 **Introductory activities**: an introduction to the topic of the text and activities focusing on key vocabulary in the text – to pre-teach important vocabulary, and to encourage learners to activate their knowledge of the world in relation to the topic.
  2 Main activities: a series of listening activities developing different listening subskills and moving from general to more detailed listening.

3 Post-task activities: activities which ask learners to talk about how the topic of the text relates to their own lives or give their opinions on parts of the text. These activities require learners to use some of the language they have met in the text.

● You may sometimes just want to ask learners to listen to something and not give them any task, e.g. listen to a story, a song, an explanation. This gives learners the opportunity to listen in a relaxed way and enjoy the experience of listening to a foreign language.

See Unit 16 for listening activities and Unit 21 for planning lessons.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 239 for answers)*

Complete this table with at least two examples of each category.

Characteristics of spoken language	Listening text types	Different accents	Features of connected speech	Listening subskills

REFLECTION

Think about this teacher's comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 To improve their listening, what my students need most is to learn more vocabulary. Learning listening skills won't help them.
2 I don't think my learners should listen to me for listening practice. There is no point in them listening to English spoken with my accent.
3 My learners always try and understand every word when they listen, so I give them transcripts to read as they listen.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Find a listening section in your coursebook. Teach it to your learners, and then after the lesson, complete this table in your Teacher Portfolio.

What the learners found easy and why	What the learners found difficult and why

What would you do differently if you taught these activities again?

2 For more information about listening and listening activities, read Chapter 10 of *How To Teach English* by Jeremy Harmer, Pearson Education Ltd 1998, and Unit 3 of *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005.
3 Which of these websites could you use in class or ask your learners to browse at home?
http://www.eslpartyland.com/teachers/nov/music.htm
http://www.lyrics.com

http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/teachingenglish/
watchandlisten/
http://storynory.com/
http://www.freewebs.com/nuanchawee/pronunciationlistening.htm

TKT practice task 7 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the teachers' comments with the aspects of listening
listed **A-H**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Aspects of listening

A listening for specific information
B listening extensively
C listening for detail
D listening for gist
E activating students' knowledge of the world
F working with authentic texts
G deducing meaning from context
H dealing with connected speech

Teachers' comments

1 My students find it hard to recognise the pronunciation of individual words and sounds
   when they hear people speak in the street.
2 Students only need to recognise words like numbers and names to practise this subskill.
3 I always ask my students what information they can tell me about the topic before we
   start listening.
4 I tell my students that they can use the situation to help them understand meaning.
5 It's nice if learners can just listen to a story and enjoy it without doing a task on it.
6 Some listening texts in the coursebook are extracts from real TV programmes and real
   conversations. The students think they're challenging but useful.
7 The first listening task I give my students is usually one in which they have to decide on
   the general meaning of the text.

Unit 8   Speaking

■ What is speaking?

Speaking is one of the four language **skills**: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Speaking and writing are **productive skills**. That means that unlike listening and reading, they involve producing language rather than receiving it. Very simply, we can say that speaking involves using speech to communicate meanings to other people. In this unit we look at how we do this.

■ Key concepts

Tick the things on this list which we often do when we speak.

1 pronounce words	12 ask for and give information
2 answer questions	13 use grammar and vocabulary
3 use **intonation**	14 use **word** and **sentence stress**
4 **ask for clarification** and/or explanation	15 start speaking when someone else
5 **monitor** and correct ourselves	stops
6 take part in discussions	16 tell stories
7 use an **appropriate register**	17 use language accurately
8 take part in conversations	18 **paraphrase**, i.e. find other ways of
9 **greet** people	saying things
10 plan what we will say	19 interrupt other speakers
11 smile	20 **hesitate**

When we speak we usually do all these things, except we don't usually plan what we will say, nor do we use language completely accurately, i.e. use correct forms of grammar and vocabulary. As we saw in Unit 7 Listening, pressure of time does not allow us to do these things when speaking, unless we make prepared speeches or presentations. You can see from this list that speaking involves several **subskills**:

- making use of grammar, vocabulary and **functions**
- making use of register to speak appropriately
- using features of **connected speech**
- using body language
- producing different **text types**
- **oral fluency** (speaking at a normal speed, with little **hesitation**, repetition or **self-correction**, and with smooth use of connected speech)
- using **interactive strategies** (ways of keeping people interested and involved in what we are saying).

Our purpose in speaking is to communicate meaning and we do all these things to achieve this.

We can see that speaking involves a lot more than just using grammar and vocabulary accurately in speech. When we speak we constantly have in mind the person we are speaking to and our wish to communicate our meaning successfully

to them. We use interactive strategies to help us achieve this. These include using body language such as **gestures**, eye contact, **facial expressions** and movement to put our message across more strongly and clearly, and functions such as **clarifying** our meaning (e.g. 'I mean …', 'What I'm trying to say is …'), asking for opinions (e.g. 'What do you think?'), agreeing (e.g. 'Yes, that's right') to keep the **interaction** (communication) going and check that it is successful. **Turn-taking** is another interactive strategy we use. It involves using intonation, language or body language to show you want to join a conversation or end one, keep speaking or invite other participants to join in. We use it to make sure we get our message across. Paraphrasing can also be thought of as an interactive strategy. We paraphrase when we judge our communication cannot be or has not been understood. We use other words to say the same thing in order to get our message across.

Speaking also involves making use of all the **features** of connected speech to convey our message. We use intonation, word and sentence stress, accurate individual sounds, **linking** and **contractions** to help **convey** our **meaning**.

Fluency, **accuracy** and **appropriacy** also play a major part in successful oral communication. Fluency helps ensure that our listener will keep on listening to us without getting bored or irritated by too many hesitations or too slow a **pace** of speaking. Accuracy of grammar, use of vocabulary and the production of sounds help keep our message clear, and appropriacy is another way of keeping our listeners involved. We use the right register to treat our listener with the appropriate degree of **formality** or **informality** in order not to upset them or make them feel uncomfortable.

Finally, as with the other language skills, speaking also involves being able to deal with different **text types**, e.g. taking part in conversations, discussions or telephone calls, giving presentations, telling stories. All these text types have different features. Buying sweets in a shop, for example, involves different speaking skills from telling your friends about the exciting thing that happened to you at the weekend or presenting the results of project work to classmates. They involve using different functions, different levels of formality, different amounts of speaking, different amounts of interaction, different **structures** and vocabulary.

There are many aspects of speaking for a learner to learn. We can see that as with the other language skills, speaking is a **complex** activity.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Speaking involves a range of different subskills. Learners can benefit from practice in each of these to develop their speaking. We can help our learners get this practice by focusing regularly on particular aspects of speaking, e.g. fluency, pronunciation, register, grammatical accuracy, body language, interactive strategies, interactive speaking (e.g. conversations, discussions), speaking at length (e.g. presentations, giving points of view, etc.).

- In many classrooms, **controlled practice** activities (activities in which the learners are required to repeatedly use the language that they have just been taught) make up a large part of speaking practice. These activities include **drills**, repetition and saying things **learnt by heart** (things that are **memorised**). They focus on accuracy in speaking by helping students to use grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation

correctly. They can **motivate** learners by giving them **confidence** that what they are saying is right. Controlled practice activities provide useful, if limited, preparation for speaking, as they do not give practice in fluency, interaction or successfully communicating a message.

- Fluency activities allow learners to choose the language they use to speak. They include tasks such as **information-gap activities**, problem solving, project work, discussions, explaining **solutions**. All these tasks involve learners in communicating new information with one another. As they speak, learners need to try to get their message across to one another. These activities give learners the opportunity to practise communication, interaction and fluency.

- Pair and group work increase the opportunity for communication in the classroom as more people speak than if just one learner is speaking to the teacher while the rest of the class listens. In bigger classes, and in classes that are not used to working in pairs and groups, the teacher may need to introduce these activities carefully to make sure learners see the point of them and make good use of them.

- In controlled practice activities, the teacher usually corrects learners' accuracy, as accuracy is the purpose of these activities. In fluency activities it is advisable not to correct learners immediately. In this way learners are given the opportunity to focus on communicating their message. The teacher can note down mistakes and work on them with the class after the activity.

- Because speaking is such a complex skill, learners in the classroom may need a lot of help in preparing for speaking, e.g. practice of necessary vocabulary, time to organise their ideas and what they want to say, practice in pronouncing new words and expressions, practice in carrying out a **task**, before they speak freely. Or teachers may prefer to ask learners to carry out tasks and then focus on language problems afterwards. Some experts believe that focusing on language after rather than before a task makes learners more interested in learning about the language, as it helps them see the purpose of focusing on the language.

- Learners, especially beginners and children, may need time to take in and **process** all the new language they hear before they produce it in speaking. In some classrooms, especially primary ones, learners are allowed a **silent period** at the beginning of a course, so that they have time to listen to and process the language first.

- The activities in a speaking lesson often follow this pattern:
  1 **Lead-in**: an introduction to the topic of the lesson plus activities including a focus on the new language.
  2 Practice activities or tasks in which learners have opportunities to use the new language – these activities may move from controlled to freer activities or a teacher may choose to do them in the opposite order, depending on the class and learning **context**.
  3 Post-task activities: activities in which learners do free speaking activities on the topic and/or work on the language used in the tasks.

- Reading, listening and **integrated skills** lessons (lessons combining use of several language skills) also give opportunities for speaking practice as learners focus on language before the text and discuss its topic, and then after they have worked on understanding the text they can go on to do speaking activities related to its topic.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 239 for answers)*

Here is a list of titles for speaking activities from coursebooks. What aspect of speaking (A-F) do they focus on? Some focus on more than one aspect.

A Accuracy
B Connected speech
C Appropriacy
D Fluency
E Functions
F Interaction

1 Word and sentence stress
2 Language for asking for clarification politely
3 Informal language for greeting
4 Language for suggesting and recommending
5 Using conjunctions and past tenses in stories
6 Distinguishing minimal pairs of sounds
7 Using intonation to show doubt
8 Taking part in discussions
9 Getting your partner to agree with you
10 Telling stories
11 Intonation in tag questions
12 Interrupting politely

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 My students get really embarrassed talking and making mistakes in front of their classmates, so I don't often ask them to speak in class.
2 I like asking my class to tell one another stories – they get so interested that they don't worry about the mistakes they make.
3 I can't do speaking activities in my class – the students make so much noise that the teachers in the other classes complain.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at a unit in your coursebook. Which aspects(s) of speaking does it focus on? What other aspects of speaking do your students need to focus on?
2 Find a story you like, then record yourself telling the story in English. Listen to your recording, then record yourself telling it again. How have you improved? Why?
3 Practise your pronunciation or find out more about speaking at:
http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/language/
http://teachingenglish.org.uk/think/knowledge-wiki/input

4 These resources have lots of speaking activities. Are there any you can use with your classes?

√ *Elementary Communication Games* by Jill Hadfield, Pearson Education Ltd 1992

√ *Simple Speaking Activities* by Jill and Charles Hadfield, Oxford University Press 1999

√ *500 Activities for the Primary Classroom* by Carol Read, Macmillan, 2009

Quizzes, Questionnaires and Puzzles by Miles Craven, Cambridge University Press 2005

http://www.link2english.com/english_secondary.asp#SPEAKING

http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?catid=59893&docid=156005

TKT practice task 8 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the trainer's comments with the aspects of speaking listed **A-D**.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Aspects of speaking

A fluency
B interaction
C accuracy
D appropriacy

Trainer's comments

1 That student really helped the group work by inviting people to speak, summarising ideas and stopping some students talking too much.

2 That student pauses and hesitates too much. He needs to sound more confident.

3 I'm afraid I couldn't understand what he was saying. I didn't know if he was saying /p/ or /b/, or /l/ or /n/, for example.

4 In some ways, that student gave an excellent presentation but he'll need to speak more formally when he presents it to all the teachers.

5 She kept confusing her tenses so nobody understood what she was talking about.

6 He was very good at continuing to speak smoothly even though he needed to paraphrase a lot.

7 I think they sound a bit rude. Maybe you can teach them some other exponents for these functions.

Part 2 | Background to language learning

Unit 9 Motivation

■ What is motivation?

Motivation is the thoughts and feelings which make us want to and continue to want to do something and which turn our wishes into action. Motivation influences:

- why people decide to do something
- how long they keep wanting to do it
- how they work to achieve it.

Motivation is very important in language learning. It is one of the key **factors** that helps make language learning successful.

■ Key concepts

Why were/are you motivated to learn English? List your reasons.

There are several different **factors** (things that influence) which can influence motivation. They include:

- The usefulness to us of knowing the language well. Many people want to learn a language because it can help them **achieve** practical things such as finding a (better) job, getting onto a course of study, getting good marks from the teacher, or booking hotel rooms.
- Our interest in the **target language culture** (the culture of the language we are learning). We might want to get really good at Russian, for example, so that we can read books by famous Russian authors, or understand the world which produced their great artists and composers. This is learning a language because of interest in culture with a capital C, i.e. high culture. Many people are also interested in culture with a small c. They want to learn Japanese, for example, so they can understand Manga comics better, or learn English to read about their favourite celebrities. We may also be interested in the target culture because we actually want to become part of that culture, perhaps because we are moving to the country. In this case we might be interested in aspects of the country's customs and lifestyle, and see the **target language** as a key to understanding and becoming part of that culture.
- Feeling good about learning the language. If we are successful at something, that success makes us want to continue doing it and achieve greater things. Managing to communicate in a foreign language can make us want to communicate more and better. **Confidence** (feeling that we can do things successfully), **learner autonomy/independence** (feeling responsible for and in control of our own learning) and a sense of **achievement** (being successful at something we have worked at) are all part of feeling good about learning a language. If we think we are good at something, we want to do it.

- **Encouragement** and support from others. We may live in a country or family or go to a school where learning a foreign language is highly valued and much **encouraged**. This helps us to realise the importance of the foreign language and gives us emotional support as we learn. People who live in a country where people can't see the point of learning a foreign language may have little motivation to learn a foreign language.
- Wishing to communicate fully with people who matter to you. People may have friends, boy or girlfriends, business partners, etc. who speak another language. They want to develop their relationship with them. This is a strong motivation to learn a language.
- Our interest in the learning process. Sometimes we want to learn a foreign language simply because we enjoy our language class; we like the teacher, how he/she teaches, the classroom activities, the **coursebook** or maybe the topics the class deals with. All these are factors related to learning itself, which come from the classroom.

We can see that there are different kinds of motivation. Some come from inside the learner and some come from the learner's environment.

Learners may differ in their motivations; some may have strong motivation of one kind but little of another, other learners' motivation may be a mixture of kinds. There are also learners, of course, who are **unmotivated**, i.e. who have no motivation or are **demotivated**, i.e. they have lost their motivation. And motivation can change, too. A learner may, for example, be quite uninterested in learning a particular language, then meet a teacher who helps them love learning the language. Motivation can change with age, too, with some factors becoming more or less important as learners get older.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Two researchers in motivation, Z. Dörnyei and K. Csizér, have suggested there are ten key areas in which the teacher can influence learners' motivation, and have provided a list of strategies for motivating learners in these areas.

Read the strategies and tick the ones which are most important for you.

The teacher	1	Show a good example by being committed and motivated
	2	Try to behave naturally
	3	Be as sensitive and accepting as you can
The classroom atmosphere	4	Create a pleasant, calm, secure and ordered atmosphere in the classroom
	5	Bring in humour and laughter, and smile
The task	6	Give clear instructions
	7	Point out the purpose and usefulness of every **task**
Rapport	8	Treat each learner as an individual
Self-confidence	9	Give positive **feedback** and **praise**
	10	Make sure your students experience success
	11	Accept mistakes – they are a natural part of learning

Interest	12 Select interesting tasks and topics
	13 Offer a variety of materials and activities
	14 Make tasks challenging to involve your students
	15 Use learners' interests rather than tests or grades, to encourage learning
Autonomy	16 Encourage creative and imaginative ideas
	17 Encourage questions and other contributions from students
	18 Share as much responsibility for organising the learning process with your students as possible
Personal relevance	19 Try and **personalise** tasks to make them **relevant**
Goal/Target (aim for learners or teachers)	20 Set up several **specific** learning goals for the learners
	21 Encourage the learners to set goals and work towards them
	22 Do a needs analysis of the learners' goals and **needs**
Culture	23 Make learners familiar with the cultural background of the language they are learning
	24 Invite native speakers to some classes
	25 Find penfriends for your learners

(adapted from 'Ten commandments for motivating language learners: results of an empirical study' by Z. Dörnyei and K. Csizér, *Language Teaching Research*, Hodder Arnold 1998)

Some of these strategies will work better in some learning **contexts** than others. For example, with young learners, it can be very helpful to give praise and positive feedback as well as bring examples of the culture into the classroom. Some classes may love games and competition while others may react badly to them. The teacher can choose from the list the strategies for motivating students that are likely to work best for their learners in their learning context.

See Units 31-33 for how motivation influences classroom management.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 239 for answers)*

1 Here are some classroom activities. Which areas of motivation from the table above do you think they put into practice?
A Reading with the class a story about a social networking site because you know many of them love using these sites.
B Only teaching 10 new words in one lesson rather than the 20 suggested in the coursebook.
C Arranging to talk to a learner after a class about problems they are having with group work.
D Giving learners some websites for making school partnership penfriends.
E Giving learners a test which you know they will do well in.
F Putting smiley faces ☺ on learners' homework even when it's not very good.
G Asking learners which activity they would prefer to do in their next lesson.
H Planning a series of short activities for your lesson rather than two long ones.
I Showing learners TV programmes about studying in an English-speaking country.
J Giving a demonstration of a role-play the learners are going to do.
K Returning homework as quickly as possible and including helpful advice on it.

2 Are there any strategies you would like to add to the list above?

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I have such big classes that it's impossible for me to try to motivate each learner.
2 I always put my learners' work up on the wall even if their English isn't very accurate.
3 You can give goals to 7-year-olds but not to 17-year-olds.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at these resources. Are any of them suitable for motivating your learners?
   http://www.eslpartyland.com/teachers/nov/music.htm
   http://www.english-zone.com
   http://www.jamiekeddie.com/
   Beginner's Communication Games, Elementary Communication Games, Intermediate Communication Games by Jill Hadfield, Longman 1999, Nelson 1987, Nelson 1990
   English Vocabulary In Use (Second edition) Elementary, by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell, 2010, Pre-intermediate & Intermediate by Stuart Redman, 2003, Upper-intermediate by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell, Cambridge University Press, 2001, Advanced by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell, Cambridge University Press 2002
2 Watch a video of another teacher teaching, and note how he/she motivates the learners.
3 Take one of your lesson plans or a coursebook unit and look at where and how you could build in more motivation. Put your ideas in your Teacher Portfolio and/or share them with a colleague.
4 Underline two strategies in the table on pages 54-5 that you will try next week (or very soon).

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TKT practice task 9 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-5**, look at the advice for motivating learners and the three classroom activities listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the activities match the advice. One activity does **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** match the advice.

1 Promote learner autonomy.
   A Give learners advice on how to use study resources.
   B Go over the answers with the whole class.
   C Give learners a set of goals to choose from.

2 Familiarise learners with the target culture.
   A Explain that culture covers many kinds of activities.
   B Watch and discuss soap operas from an English-speaking country.
   C Show the class photos of your last holiday in London.

3 *Personalise the learning process.*

   A Discuss with learners the personal hobbies of some famous politicians.

   B Ask learners to evaluate the opinions in a text according to their own experience.

   C Give learners a task in which they draw and label their favourite foods.

4 Increase the learners' awareness of their goals.

   A Ask learners to tick on a checklist the language functions they think they need to learn.

   B Ask learners what they will learn from completing today's homework.

   C Ask learners which learning strategies helped them learn best.

5 Increase the learners' self-confidence.

   A Ask learners to predict what the answer to a problem might be.

   B Allow learners to move around the classroom whenever they want.

   C Show learners how a dictionary is organised and what it contains.

Unit 10 Exposure and focus on form

■ What are exposure and focus on form?

Across the centuries people have studied how foreign languages are learnt. Many experts now believe that one main way we learn a foreign language is by **exposure** to it, i.e. by hearing and/or reading it all around us and without studying it. They say we then **pick it up** automatically, i.e. learn it without realising. This, of course, is the main way in which children learn their **first language** (the language they learn as a baby).

Experts also say that to learn a foreign language, particularly as adults, exposure to language is not enough. We also need to **focus** our attention **on** the **form** of the foreign language, i.e. notice how it is pronounced and written, and how its grammar and vocabulary are formed and used. They say that to learn language we also need to use language to **interact**.

■ Key concepts

Have you learnt English more successfully from formal study or just by picking it up?

Research has identified three main ways in which we learn a foreign language. Firstly, experts talk of us **acquiring** language, or language **acquisition**. This means the same as picking up language. They say that to learn a foreign language successfully we need lots of exposure to it and that we learn from being surrounded by language. We need to hear and read language which is rich in variety, interesting to us and just difficult enough for us, i.e. just beyond our level, but not too difficult. Acquisition then takes place over a period of time without our realising that we are learning. We listen to and read items of language many times before we begin to use them (**silent period**), unconsciously **working out** (calculating/deducing) their meaning and form.

Secondly, experts believe that to learn language successfully we need to use it in **interaction** with other people. We need to use language to express ourselves and make our meanings clear to them, and to understand them. The person we are talking to will let us know, directly or indirectly, if they have understood us or not. If they have not understood, we need to try again, using other language (**paraphrasing**), until we manage to communicate successfully. It is this process of struggling to make meaning clear which helps learners experiment with language, forcing them to try out **structures**, **chunks** and vocabulary they have already learnt, to see if they help them get their message across.

Thirdly, research shows that foreign language learners also need to focus on form. This means that they need to pay attention not just to the meaning of language but also to its formal **features**, e.g. pronunciation, word order, **affixes**, spelling, grammatical structures.

Nowadays, it is thought that, depending on our age and **learning style**, we learn language best by picking it up, by interacting with others and by focusing on form. This suggests that several approaches to language teaching which were commonly

used in the past may not be sufficiently helpful to learners, e.g. the **Grammar-Translation method** which focused only on grammar and translating texts, the **Structural Approach** which focused only on learning and practising structures, or **communicative approaches** which just focused on using language fluently in communication. But the research still continues, and we do not yet fully understand how foreign languages are learnt.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- To acquire language, learners need to hear and read a wide variety of language at the right level for them. They need exposure to language both inside and outside the classroom. In the classroom they can listen to recordings of e.g. stories or songs, or they can read e.g. magazine articles – maybe without any accompanying **comprehension** or language **tasks**. Outside class, they can also read e.g. **graded readers** and maybe use the internet to either read or listen to things that interest them – without tasks to complete so that they can just take in the language.
- To acquire language it is not sufficient just to listen to or read language. It has to be language at the right level. This means language that is just a little challenging for learners because it's a little beyond their current level. Teachers can choose recordings and reading materials at the right level of difficulty.
- Learners need time to acquire language. They may need a silent period before they can produce new language and we cannot expect them to learn things immediately. Learning language is a slow process that necessarily involves making mistakes.
- Learners need to use language to interact. In the classroom this can be with classmates or the teacher. This gives them the opportunity to experiment with language and find out how successful their communication is. Pair and group work give the opportunity for interaction, as do problem-solving activities and project work. When they try to communicate, learners will often make mistakes. When classmates don't understand these, the learners will be forced to paraphrase what they have said, which is a valuable learning process.
- Learners can benefit from opportunities to focus on forms of language. There are many ways teachers can help learners **notice** forms (become aware of particular language), e.g. by presenting new **target language** to learners, by asking them to find certain grammatical patterns in listening or reading texts, by pointing out useful language after they have completed a task, and also through correction.
- Some learners may like to learn and/or are used to learning in particular ways. This means that teachers should consider learners' age, learning experience and learning styles when deciding how to teach. For example, focusing on form by asking learners to **highlight** conjunctions in a text may be much more effective with older learners than with younger learners. Correction may be the most suitable way to focus on form with younger learners, but some older learners may dislike being corrected in front of classmates.

See Units 12, 13 and 14 for the different characteristics and needs of learners, Unit 15 for approaches to language teaching, and Unit 17 for ways of focusing on and practising language, and for examples of communicative tasks.

Put these classroom activities into the correct column in the table according to which way of learning they encourage most. Some may go into more than one column.

Acquisition	Interaction	Focus on form

1 Learners proofread and correct the first draft of their compositions.
2 A group of learners explains to the rest of the class how to make a paper plane.
3 A learner says 'I go to see a great film yesterday'; the teacher says 'past tense'.
4 Learners use the internet to find recipes for how to make their favourite dishes.
5 Learners explain to one another why a certain multiple-choice answer on a reading text must be correct.
6 The learners see how many different prefixes they can find in a text.
7 The learners complete gapped sentences with the right tense of the verbs in brackets.
8 The learners tell one another about a good book they have just read.
9 Learners listen to two songs which are their favourite English songs.
10 Learners look at a map of their town and discuss where to build a new sports centre.

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I learnt Russian at school through grammar translation. Then after I left school I went to live in Russia and just picked it up. The two ways of learning really helped me speak Russian well.
2 It's very difficult to bring interaction and acquisition into my classes – I have more than 30 students in each class and very few resources.
3 The exams my students have to take focus on correct grammar, so that's what we focus on in class. I know I'm not teaching my students English, but teaching them to pass an exam in English.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 To read more about how languages are learnt, see Chapter 3, *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (Fourth edition) by Jeremy Harmer, Longman 2007.
2 Watch your learners. Are there any who seem to prefer learning by acquisition, interaction or focus on form? Write down your observations and put them in your Teacher Portfolio.
3 Look at a unit from your coursebook. See what the focus of each activity is: acquisition, interaction or focus on form? Does the overall unit focus suit your learners' needs?

TKT practice task 10 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-5**, look at the terms about language learning and the three classroom activities listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the activities are examples of the term. One activity is **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) of the activity which is **NOT** an example of the term.

1 Interaction
   A The learner listened to a recording and wrote down the words he didn't know.
   B A learner discussed with his teacher why his answer was correct.
   C A group of learners designed a poster together.

2 Focus on form
   A The learners had to decide if certain verbs are followed by the gerund or the infinitive.
   B The learners matched words to explanations of their meanings to complete an exercise.
   C The learners ticked which word they heard in sets of minimal pairs.

3 Working out meaning
   A The learners completed a gapped text by reading the words around each gap.
   B The learners listened to a recording and counted the stressed syllables in each word.
   C The learners listened to short dialogues and deduced who the speakers were.

4 Exposure
   A The class invited an outside speaker to speak to them about the life of young people in her country.
   B The learners listened to their teacher read them a detective story.
   C The teacher gave her students an example of the target language.

5 Paraphrasing
   A The learners read one another's emails and underlined and corrected the mistakes.
   B The learners used prompts to write new sentences with the same meaning but different words from the original sentences.
   C The learner summarised the contents of his recent presentation for his classmates.

Unit 11   The role of error

■ What is the role of error?

Making mistakes plays an important and useful part in language learning because it allows learners to experiment with language and measure their success in communicating. This unit focuses on the kinds of mistakes learners make when they speak or write a foreign language, why they make these mistakes and the part that mistakes play in language learning.

■ Key concepts

What are the main reasons why your learners make mistakes?

Mistakes are often categorised into **errors** and **slips**. **Errors** occur when learners try to say something that is beyond their current level of knowledge or language **processing** (working on the language unconsciously to try to understand and learn it). Usually, because they are still processing or don't know this part of the language, learners cannot correct errors themselves because they don't understand what is wrong.

Slips are the result of tiredness, worry or other temporary emotions or circumstances. We make them because we are not concentrating on what we are saying or writing. They are not a result of incomplete language processing or a lack of knowledge. They happen simply because our attention is somewhere else at that moment. These kinds of mistakes can be corrected by learners themselves, once they realise they have made them.

There are two main reasons why second language learners make errors. The first reason is influence from the learner's **first language (mother tongue/L1)** on the second language (**L2**). This is called **interference** or transfer. Learners may use sound patterns, **lexis** or **grammatical structures** from their own language in English.

The second reason why learners make errors is because they are unconsciously (without knowing or being aware) **working out**, organising and experimenting with language they have learnt, but this process is not yet complete. This kind of error is called a **developmental error**. These errors are common to all learners, whatever their L1, and are often similar to those made by a young first language speaker as part of their normal language development. Common developmental errors in English are using the past tense for the present perfect tense, or making mistakes with past verb forms. For example, very young first language speakers of English as well as English language learners often say things like 'I goed' instead of 'I went'. Errors such as this one, in which learners wrongly apply a rule for one item of the language to another item, are the result of **overgeneralisation**, i.e. applying a rule too widely. Once children develop their L1 language abilities, these errors disappear, and as a second language learner's language ability increases, these errors often disappear, too.

Errors play a necessary and important part in language learning. They are part of learners' **interlanguage**, i.e. the learners' own **version** of the second language which

they speak as they learn. Learners unconsciously process, i.e. analyse and reorganise their interlanguage. Interlanguage is not fixed. It develops and progresses as learners learn more. Experts think that interlanguage is an essential and unavoidable stage in language learning. In other words, interlanguage and errors are necessary to language learning. L1 learners go through a stage similar to the interlanguage stage: when children learn their mother tongue they seem to speak their own version of it for a while, to make progress on some language items, then to go backwards, and to make mistakes for a time before these mistakes finally disappear, usually without obvious correction.

Errors are a natural part of learning. They usually show that learners are learning and that their internal mental processes are working on and experimenting with language. By making mistakes you realise that you don't know something and you try to put it right. For example, if you fall off a bicycle through your own fault you realise that you did something wrong, and you make sure you don't make the same mistake again. Similarly, as we communicate with others and see that our communication isn't working, we try again, using other words or aiming for greater **accuracy**. We go through stages of learning new language, and each new piece of language we learn helps us learn more fully other pieces of language that we already know – like pieces of a jigsaw puzzle which only make full sense when they are all in place.

Developmental and interference errors can disappear by themselves, without correction, as the learner learns more language. In fact, experts say that correction may only help learners if they are ready for it, i.e. they are at the right stage in their individual learning process, or interlanguage. There are three main ways of helping learners develop their language. Firstly, learners need **exposure** to lots of interesting language at the right level; secondly, they need to use language to interact; and thirdly, they need to focus their attention on language **forms**.

Sometimes errors do not disappear, but get **fossilised**. Fossilised errors are errors which a learner does not stop making and which last for a long time, even for ever, in his/her foreign language use. **Fossilisation** of errors often happens when learners, particularly adults, are able to communicate as much as they need to in the foreign language and so have no communicative reason to improve their language. These fossilised errors may be the result of lack of exposure to the L2, the result of a learner's **conscious** (knowing/aware) or unconscious lack of motivation to improve their level of accuracy, or the fact that they cause no problem in communication.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- It is important for teachers to think hard about whether, when and how to correct learners.
- We can't expect instant or immediate learning. Learning is gradual, and errors will occur.
- It's useful to think about what kind of mistake the learner is making – a slip or an error. If the mistake is a slip, the learner can correct him/herself, maybe with a little **prompting** from the teacher or another learner. Or, there may be no point in correcting a slip.

- Sometimes, particularly in fluency activities, it is better not to pay attention to learners' mistakes, (i.e. **ignore** them), so that the learners have an opportunity to develop their **confidence** and their fluency, and to experiment and make mistakes with language.
- Some errors may be more important to correct than others. Errors which prevent communication are more important than those which do not, e.g. missing the final *s* off the third person singular of a present simple tense verb doesn't prevent communication. But using the present simple tense instead of the past simple tense sometimes does.
- Some learners within the same class may need to be corrected, while others may not, depending on their stage of learning, **learning style** and level of confidence. They may also need to be corrected in different ways.
- Learners, particularly older ones, may find it useful to know that they make interference errors, and to be told which they are. Knowing about interference errors can help learners avoid them, especially in writing.
- Learners can react well to being told what their fossilised errors are, their danger areas! In this way, they become conscious of them and can try to avoid them, particularly in writing.
- Ways of helping learners get beyond their errors are:
  - exposing them to lots of language that is just beyond their level of linguistic ability through reading or listening. This provides an unconscious challenge to learners' language learning processes and helps fit the pieces of the jigsaw into place.
  - giving them opportunities to **focus on** the **form** of language, e.g. through exercises, **reformulation** (when the teacher corrects what the student has said by repeating their words correctly, but without drawing the learner's attention to their mistake) or correction.
  - providing them with time in class to use language to communicate and **interact** and see if they can do so successfully.
- Errors are useful not only to the learner but also to the teacher. They can help the teacher see how well learners have learnt something and what kind of help they may need in future. Errors can show that a learner is making progress and learning.

See Unit 10 for processes involved in language learning, Unit 29 for categories of mistakes, Unit 32 for how to correct learners, and Unit 33 for how to give feedback.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 240 for answers)*

Here is an extract from a conversation between two lower intermediate level learners of English. They are doing a fluency activity in which they talk about dates that are important to them. The woman is Japanese and the man is Italian.

Read the extract and notice how the learners are trying their best to communicate, and giving one another help in communicating. Is it possible to say which mistakes are slips, developmental errors, interference errors or fossilised errors? Would you correct them?

N.B. The words in *italics* in brackets (...) are spoken by the other speaker while the main speaker is speaking.

Man: Er, what you doing in er November 24th of er two years ago, three years ago?

Woman: Two years ago, yes, this day I was er I going to my high school (*um*) and um I belonged to um English drama club. Maybe I, um I did exercise too, yes, but I'm not sure (*in the morning, in the morning*) Morning!

Man: No, I ask you in the morning (*ah yeah*) you … you, go, you went to the school?

Woman: Yes, yes, that's right.

Man: Um me (*mm*) um at 24 (*what are you doing, yes?*) I, I went to, is my birthday (*ah, is your birthday, oh*) yes, birthday, and er is, was important for me because er (*yes*) when um, in this years I, I was er eighteen years old (*mm*) and for me very important because er I like very much er to do um in um in um by car and er when (*it's a present*) yes, yes, for, for my, my present was a car.

Woman: Oh, it's great present.

Man: Yes, very great present. (*laughter*)

(adapted from *English for the Teacher* by Mary Spratt, Cambridge University Press 1994)

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 If my students make mistakes, it means I haven't taught them well.
2 My students like me to correct all their mistakes, so I do.
3 Teachers can only correct each mistake and each student in the same way.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at a piece of writing or listen to a recording from one of your learners and identify all the mistakes. What might be the cause of the mistakes? Would you correct them all? Write your thoughts in your Teacher Portfolio.
2 For more about why learners make mistakes and how we can correct them, read Chapter 8 of *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (Fourth edition) by Jeremy Harmer, Pearson Education Ltd 2007.
3 What do these terms mean: *cognitive, natural order, independent study*? Use a dictionary or the *TKT Glossary* to check their meaning.

TKT practice task 11 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-5**, match the teachers' comments with the types of mistake they are talking about listed **A-F**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Types of mistake

A	lexical slip
B	lexical interference error
C	pronunciation slip
D	grammatical slip
E	lexical developmental error
F	fossilised grammatical error

Teachers' comments

1 A good student of mine said, *The clouds were sick and it was raining a lot* but he quickly corrected himself and said 'thick'.

2 I have several students in my top class who still say things like *is very nice; he do; I am doctor*. I just don't know what to do about it.

3 At the beginning, all my students used terms like *nice* or *good*, for anything positive, then they gradually started to use language more precisely.

4 During his presentation this morning, my best student was so nervous that he said *My mother, she is coming to visit me*.

5 Nearly all the students in that class who share the same language say *brothers* when they mean *brothers and sisters*. I don't know why.

Unit 12 Differences between L1 and L2 learning

■ What are the differences between L1 and L2 learning?

When we learn our **first language** (**L1**) we are likely to learn it in a different **context** and in different ways from when we learn a second language (**L2**). We are also likely to be a different age.

■ Key concepts

What differences can you think of between L1 and L2 learning? Think about the learners' age, ways of learning, and the context that they are learning in.

	L1 learning	L2 learning (in the classroom)
Age	• Learning starts when the learner is a baby, continues through the early years of childhood, and lasts into adolescence for some kinds of language and language **skills**, e.g. **academic** writing (writing for school or university).	• Usually starts in primary school and/or secondary school. It may also start or continue in adulthood.
	• Babies learn language at the same time as their **cognitive** skills (the mental processes involved in thinking, understanding or learning) develop.	• Primary learners are still developing many of their cognitive skills. • Secondary school learners have already developed many of their cognitive skills by the time they start learning a foreign language. Their attitudes towards learning and learning the foreign language may or may not be **mature** (fully developed). • Adult learners have fully developed cognitive skills. They are likely to show **maturity** in their attitudes to language learning.
	• Learners are **motivated** to learn language as they need to communicate.	• Adult and some secondary learners may already have **expectations** (beliefs that something will or should happen) about how languages should be learnt, may have past experience of learning a foreign language, and may or may not be fully motivated to learn the language.

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	L1 learning	*L2 learning (in the classroom)*
Context and ways of learning	• By **exposure** to and **picking up** language, hearing the language around him/her all the time. • By learning a lot of language in **chunks**.	• Sometimes through exposure but often by being taught **specific** language items. • Often by focusing on **structures** and individual words.
	• By wanting and needing to communicate, i.e. with strong **motivation**. • Through **interaction** with family.	• With strong, little or no motivation to communicate. • Through interaction with a teacher and sometimes with classmates.
	• By talking about things present in their surroundings, and by doing things. • By listening to and taking in language for many months before using it (**silent period**). • By playing and experimenting with new language.	• Often by talking about life outside the classroom. • Often by needing to produce language soon after it has been taught. • Often by using language in **controlled practice** activities and being corrected. Sometimes by playing and experimenting with new language.
	• By having lots of opportunities to experiment with language.	• The learner is not exposed to the L2 very much – often no more than about three hours per week.
	• By getting lots of **praise** and **encouragement** for using the language.	• Teachers vary in the amount of praise or encouragement they give learners. • The learner may receive little individual attention from the teacher, and not interact much.
	• By hearing **simplified** speech.	• Teachers usually simplify the language they use.
	• By rarely being corrected. Instead people often **reformulate** what the child has said.	• Teachers often correct learners. Learners are often asked to produce correct language. They may or may not be given opportunities to make mistakes and experiment.

It is not always easy to describe L2 learning in the classroom because it happens in different ways in different classrooms. The description in the table above may not be true of all classrooms.

L2 learning sometimes takes place outside the classroom when children or adults pick up language. In this situation, L2 learning is more similar to L1 learning, except that the learner often does not get as much exposure to the language as the L1 learner, and may not be so motivated to learn.

Another big difference between L1 and L2 learning is that L1 learning is nearly always fully successful, while L2 learning varies a lot in how successful it is.

# Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- How we teach learners language will depend a lot on what age they are. The younger they are the more they benefit from learning language in the same ways as L1 learners learn, i.e. through exposure, interaction and learning through doing. Older learners with more developed cognitive abilities are able to and can sometimes benefit from also **focusing on** the **form** of language in a more **abstract** (less **specific**, not **concrete**) or general way.
- Motivation is necessary for successful language learning, but learners may not be very motivated, so teachers can make use of strategies to motivate their students.
- Learners are different from one another (in **learning style**, age, personality, etc.). Some may like to analyse language, for example; some may hate doing that. Some may love to take risks and communicate, others may prefer not to make mistakes. It is useful for teachers to find out about their learners' learning styles, learning needs and expectations, and match their teaching to them. Teachers can do this by varying their teaching style, approaches, materials, topics, method of correction, etc.
- Some learners may find a silent period useful, but some learners, especially adults, may not, as they expect to use the language straight away.
- Exposure to language is important for learning. We can encourage learners to use English as much as possible in their out-of-class time. They could, for example, listen to radio programmes or songs, read books or magazines, use websites, download podcasts, make English-speaking friends, talk to tourists, write emails to English-speaking penfriends, etc.
- Interaction is a way of learning. Pair and group work or class presentations are a way of encouraging interaction.
- We can try to simplify our language to a level that learners can learn from, and avoid correcting them too much. They need to build up their fluency, motivation and **confidence**, and have opportunities to pick up language and experiment with it.
- In the classroom, praising learners can be very motivating. Younger learners, especially, respond well to praise. We can also try to give learners as much individual attention as possible and interact with them on a small group or individual level.

See Units 9, 13 and 14 for factors affecting L2 learning, and Unit 18 for approaches to language teaching.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 240 for answers)*

1 Look at these two pictures. What differences that influence language learning can you imagine between the two language learning situations? Think of at least five.
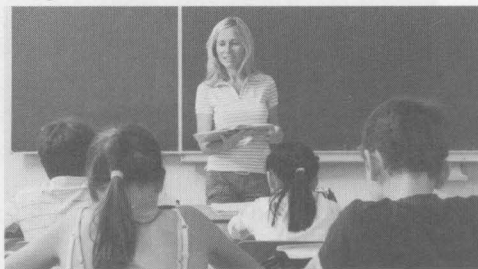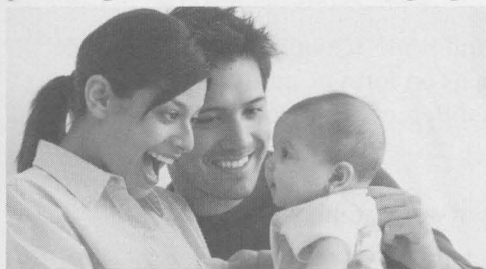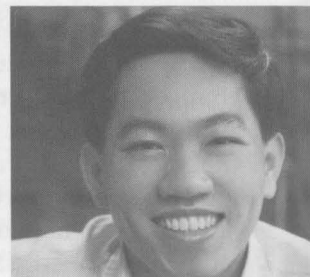
2 Here are three learners. Look at the list below. Which ways do you think would help them learn English best?

Miriam is 7. She has just started learning English at school for 3 hours a week. She is from Tunisia.
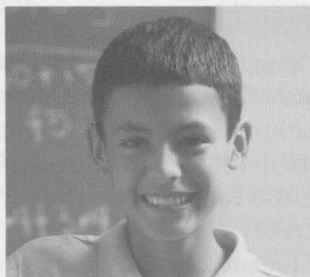
Santiago is 13. He is in his second year of English at secondary school in Argentina. He doesn't like learning English. He finds it boring and irrelevant to him.

Bao is 33 and is from Vietnam. He learnt English at secondary school but has not studied it since. He needs to learn to speak English for his new job as a hotel manager.

A Watching DVDs, playing games in English, miming English songs
B Using English to play games in the classroom
C Doing lots of extra homework
D Using websites to chat online
E Studying grammar books
F Doing lots of communicative activities
G Learning through interesting topics
H Chatting to foreign tourists

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 My learners get exposure to English when they listen to me. That should be enough for them.
2 Grammar is a quicker way of learning than exposure. It works well with older learners.
3 When you just expose your learners to English, you have no idea if they're learning or not.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at a unit in your coursebook. Find some activities which encourage interaction, exposure to language, focus on form or motivation.
2 Look at these websites for articles on differences between L1 and L2 learning or how to teach different age groups:
http://www.eltforum.com
the 'methodology archive' in http://www.onestopenglish.com
http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/

3 Watch a young child you know who is learning their first language. Make notes in your Teacher Portfolio on the similarities and differences between how they learn their L1 and how your students learn L2. Can you learn anything useful for your teaching from this?

4 Do you know the meaning of these terms: *linguistic, proficiency*? Check their meaning in the *TKT Glossary*.

5 Look at 'English teachers and their English' at: http://www.cambridge.org./elt/tkt

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TKT practice task 12 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-5**, choose the best option (**A**, **B** or **C**) to complete each statement about L1 or L2 learning.

---

1 L1 learners' friends and family

   A often correct the learners' mistakes.

   B often reformulate the learners' mistakes.

   C often discuss the learners' mistakes with them.

2 L1 learners' motivation to learn their first language

   A is part of their wish to communicate.

   B varies according to their personalities.

   C comes from their wish to learn school subjects.

3 L1 learners' long silent period helps them

   A avoid making mistakes.

   B produce complex grammatical structures.

   C become familiar with language patterns.

4 Some L2 learners prefer formal language learning to acquisition because

   A they have an analytical learning style.

   B they like taking risks.

   C they learn well autonomously.

5 L2 learners' errors

   A are always very similar to those made by L1 learners.

   B can sometimes fossilise.

   C need to be corrected immediately.

....

Unit 13 Learner characteristics

■ What are learner characteristics?

Learner characteristics include a learner's **motivation**, **learning style**, **learning strategies**, **maturity** and past language learning experience. They are **factors** which influence learners' attitude to learning a language, how they learn it, how they respond to different teaching styles and approaches in the classroom, and how successful they are at learning a language.

■ Key concepts

How might your motivation, past learning experience and age influence how you learn a new language?

Learning styles

Learning styles are the ways in which a learner naturally prefers to take in, **process** and remember information and **skills**. Our learning style influences how we like to learn and how we learn best. Experts have suggested several different ways of classifying learning styles. They relate to the physical sense we prefer to use to learn, our way of **interacting** with other people and our style of thinking. Here are some commonly mentioned learning styles:

visual	the learner learns best through watching and looking
auditory	the learner learns best through listening and hearing
kinaesthetic	the learner learns best through being physical, while moving or touching things
group	the learner learns best through working with others
individual	the learner learns best through working alone
reflective	the learner learns best when given time to consider choices
impulsive	the learner learns best when able to respond immediately
analytic	the learner learns best when given the opportunity to analyse things
autonomous	the learner likes to decide what he/she learns and how to learn

You can see from these descriptions how learners with different learning styles learn in different ways, and need to be taught in different ways. We must remember, though, that learners may not fall exactly into any one category of learning style as they may have several styles. It's also true that different cultures may use some learning styles more than others and that learners may change or develop their learning styles.

Learning strategies

Learning strategies are the ways that learners choose and use to learn language. They include ways to help themselves **identify** what they need to learn, process, remember, and use new language. Using the right strategy at the right time can help us learn the language better, and help to make us more able to learn without depending on the teacher, i.e. to become more independent or autonomous learners. Some examples of learning strategies are:

- repeating new words in your head until you remember them
- experimenting / taking risks by using just-learnt language in conversations
- asking the teacher or others to give you **feedback** on your language use
- deciding to use the foreign language as much as possible, e.g. by talking to tourists
- recording yourself speaking, then judging and correcting your pronunciation
- asking a speaker to repeat what he/she has said
- deciding what area of vocabulary you need to learn and then learning it
- thinking about how to **memorise** (remember) all the new words you meet in each lesson
- deciding to write each new vocabulary item on a separate card and display it on your fridge
- **paraphrasing**.

Different learners use different strategies. Experts think that the strategies that learners use most successfully depend on their character and learning style. This means there are no best strategies. But research shows that using strategies definitely makes learning more successful and that learners can be trained to use strategies.

Maturity

Maturity involves becoming grown up physically, mentally and emotionally. Children, teenagers and adults have different levels of maturity, which means they learn in different ways. Here are some of the main differences in maturity that influence language learning.

Children	Teenagers	Adults
Need to move	Starting to keep still for longer periods but still need to move	Able to keep still for longer periods
Can concentrate for shorter periods (short **attention span**)	Concentration developing	Can concentrate for longer periods
Learn through experience and doing	Beginning to learn in **abstract** ways, i.e. through thinking, as well as experiencing	Can learn in more abstract ways
Are not very able to control and plan their own behaviour	Beginning to control and plan their own behaviour	Usually able to control and plan their own behaviour
Are not afraid of making mistakes or taking risks	May worry about what others think of them	May not be so willing to make mistakes or take risks

Are not aware of themselves and/or their actions	Sometimes uncomfortably aware of themselves and/or their actions	Aware of themselves and/or their actions
Pay attention to meaning in language	Pay attention to meaning and increasingly to **form**	Can pay attention to form and meaning in language
Have limited experience of life	Beginning to increase their experience of life	Have experience of life
Developing **cognitive** skills	Cognitive skills generally believed to be developed at around age 15	Have mature cognitive skills
Motivation to learn language is part of general motivation to communicate and learn	Motivation varies considerably and may not be fixed or may be absent	Motivation often **conscious** and controlled

Of course, every learner is different, so any one learner may not fit exactly into these descriptions. The descriptions are generalisations that show likely, but not fixed, characteristics. But from looking at these differences we can see that each age group generally needs to be taught in different ways.

Past language learning experience
Teenage and adult learners may have learnt English before. They may be used to learning in a particular way and have definite ideas about how to learn best. For example, an adult may have learnt English at school through learning lots of grammar and may have been successful in learning this way. If he then finds himself in a class where the teaching is done only through **communicative activities** (i.e. activities where learners communicate with each other in speaking or writing), he may feel he is not learning. But, he may, of course, prefer it. Another adult may have learnt by using translation at school and then come to a class in which translation is never used. He may or may not like this change. Teachers of adults (and sometimes teachers of teenagers) need to be aware of how their learners have learnt previously and how they want to learn now. The learners may welcome a change in method, but they may want to learn in the same way as they learnt before.

Other learner characteristics which can vary from learner to learner are their level of language, their motivation (see Unit 9), and their general personality. Are they, for example, shy, outgoing, patient, curious, sensitive, etc.? All these qualities will affect how and how much each learner engages in different kinds of activities in the classroom.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

*Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.*

- It can be useful for teachers to become aware of their own learning styles, past learning experience and learning strategies, and to compare these with how they teach. Teachers sometimes teach in the same style in which they themselves like to learn. This is unlikely to be the same style as all their learners prefer.

- Some learner characteristics, such as past language learning experience and learning strategies, are more relevant to teaching teenagers and adults than to teaching children.

- We can find out what our learners' characteristics are by e.g. asking them, observing them, giving them questionnaires, asking at the end of a lesson whether they liked the activities done in class and why, and in what different ways they might like to work.

- We can train learners to become aware of and use different learning strategies. This is part of **learner training**. We can, for example, give learners a list of strategies for remembering words and ask them which they prefer and why; or we can ask them how they arrived at a solution to a problem to raise their awareness of useful learning strategies.

- *Teachers may need to discuss their methods with learners who are unhappy with new methods. They may need to introduce the new methods gradually and explain the reasons for them. This is also part of learner training, i.e. helping learners adapt their own ways of learning. Teachers may also need to change their teaching to make the learners more comfortable and* **confident** *in their learning, if they see that learners can't or won't change their learning style.*

- Teachers can build into their lessons activities which match different learning styles, e.g. a listening activity followed by a reading activity followed by group work followed by a **mingle** (an activity which involves learners walking round the class talking to other students), followed by an exercise.

- When teachers consider their learners' maturity it will strongly influence their lesson planning and what they do in the classroom, e.g. how many activities they do in a lesson, the length of activities, how abstract the activities are, how much the activities involve experiencing and doing, how much to **focus on** meaning rather than **form**, what features of motivation to work with, how much they ask students to talk in front of others.

- It is not possible for the teacher to match the learner characteristics of each learner all the time. Across a number of lessons teachers can try to vary how they teach so that they can match the learner characteristics of a range of learners.

*See Units 19, 20, 21 for planning lessons that reflect learner characteristics.*

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 240 for answers)*

1 Look at these brief profiles of three learners of English. How might their learner characteristics influence how they like to learn and how successful they are at learning English?

> Hello. My name's Raquel. I'm from Portugal and I'm 6. I love sports and playing with my friends. I don't like reading – it's really hard.
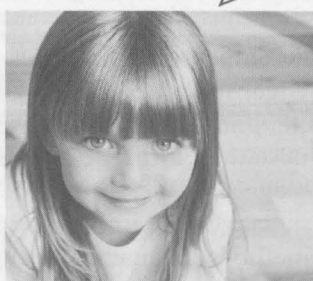
> Hi. I'm Mahmoud and I'm from Egypt. I'm 16 and I've been learning English for 10 years. I like studying hard and learning rules. Maths and physics are my favourite subjects. I don't like English much as all we do is chat – that's not serious learning.
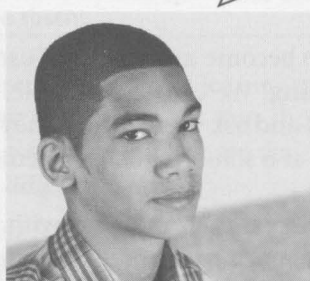
> Nice to meet you. My name's Xiu Xiu and I'm from Shanghai. I'm 26 and I'm about to start a new job as a sales representative in an international firm. I speak a little English, because I learnt it at school. We learnt lots of words and lots of grammar rules. That was good, but now I need to speak to customers. Fortunately, I'm a very sociable person.

2 Look at these classroom activities and at the list of learning styles on page 72. Match the activities with the learning styles they are most suitable for.

A Giving learners lots of thinking time to answer questions

B Touching objects with your eyes closed to describe them

C Solving problems with others

D Looking at sentences containing the second conditional, and working out how to form this tense

E Listening to songs and stories

F Asking learners to decide on their own homework

G Asking learners to brainstorm answers in one minute

H Doing a role-play activity

I Asking learners to imagine a scene and describe it to you

J Asking learners to label a picture

Which of these activities are suitable for both adults and young children?

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 My learning style is auditory and I think most of my teaching is auditory, too.

2 I spent two lessons explaining learning strategies to my students when they started secondary school. They just weren't interested, so I haven't tried it again.

3 Some of my students are really good at learning things by heart, but I think that's old-fashioned.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Observe two of your learners next week and work out which learning style(s) they have. Write a description of their learning style(s) and put it in your Teacher Portfolio.
2 What is your learning style? Find out at:
http://www.engr.ncsu.edu/learningstyles/ilsweb.html
3 Read more about learning styles at:
http://www.learning-styles-online.com/
4 Read more about learning strategies at:
http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?docid=155562

TKT practice task 13 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-5**, look at the learners' characteristics and the three possible activities listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the activity (**A**, **B** or **C**) which matches the characteristic.

1 These learners are mainly kinaesthetic.

 A The learners in groups tell a story based on a series of pictures they look at.
 B The learners go round the class reading posters made by the other groups.
 C The learners listen to a recording about an athlete and fill in a table.

2 These learners have a short attention span.

 A The learners spend the lesson doing lots of different choral drills.
 B The learners spend the lesson reading an article on the computer about a favourite topic.
 C The learners read a story, then discuss it, then draw pictures describing it.

3 These learners have not yet developed their abstract thinking skills.

 A The learners read a story, then underline all the verbs ending in *-ed*.
 B The learners watch a DVD about healthy eating then discuss their opinions of it.
 C The learners describe their house to one another.

4 These learners don't like taking risks.

 A The learners write stories, practise reading first silently then aloud, and then tell them to their partners.
 B The learners look at pictures of a story and then tell their partner their story.
 C The learners each make up a story then tell it to their partner.

5 These learners are age 7-8.

 A The learners explain the difference between guessing and deducing meaning.
 B The learners give one another their homework for proofreading.
 C The learners use pictures to talk about their favourite sport.

Unit 14 Learner needs

■ What are learner needs?

When a learner learns a foreign language he or she has various kinds of **needs** which influence his/her learning. They could be personal needs such as a need for **praise**, learning needs such as a need to become more fluent, or professional needs such as a need to learn English for giving presentations. Recognising and trying to meet learner needs are part of being a good teacher.

■ Key concepts

Look at this table and think how the different kinds of learner needs might affect what a teacher does in the classroom.

LEARNER NEEDS	
Kind of needs	*Reason for needs*
Personal needs e.g. security, challenge, support, praise, movement, **goals**, learning **expectations**, other psychological or physical needs	age gender cultural background interests educational background **motivation** personality
Learning needs e.g. specific ways of learning, **specific target language**, specific language **subskills**, exam strategies, **learner autonomy**, working at a suitable level	**learning styles** past language learning experience learning gap (gap between the learner's present level and the target level of language proficiency) learning goals and expectations for the course level of skill and knowledge availability of time exams
(Future) professional needs e.g. specific subskills, specific vocabulary and grammar, specific **functions**, specific **text types**	professional language requirements for employment, training or education

(based on 'What do teachers really want from coursebooks?' by Hitomi Masuhara in *Materials Development in Language Teaching*, ed. Brian Tomlinson, Cambridge University Press 1998)

Learners' needs can affect many things related to their learning, e.g. which methods or approaches they like the teacher to use, what topics interest them, what language and skills they need to focus on, what materials they prefer, etc. To meet learners' needs, schools often provide different kinds of courses, e.g. activity-based courses for younger learners, medical English for doctors, study skills courses for learners wishing to go to an **English-medium** (where all subjects are taught in English) **school** or university,

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) courses for students needing to learn another subject in another language. Meeting learners' needs helps to motivate learners, making their course more **relevant** to them.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Adults or older teenagers with specific professional, general or **academic** goals for learning English need courses that meet their needs. Here, for example, are some different kinds of professional, general and academic English courses. Notice the differences between them.

1 A 3-day intensive course on exam strategies for students taking a university entrance exam.
2 A series of one-to-one lessons over eight weeks on business presentation skills.
3 A six-month course for future tourists focusing on social and daily survival English.
4 A year-long course on writing academic essays and reading academic books and articles.
5 A short summer course in an English-speaking country for teenagers, involving lots of sports, trips to tourist sites and chatting with English teenagers.
6 A once-a-week course for a small group of accountants focusing on English for accountancy, and held in the learners' company, a large accountancy firm.
7 A four-week online course on writing business letters in English.

You can see that to meet the future needs of learners these courses vary in length, frequency, class size, language **skill** focused on, type of English, teaching methods and activities.

- Learners at primary or secondary school may not yet have professional or academic needs, but they do have personal and learning needs. Primary age learners, for example, have a particular need for praise and for play, teenage learners may have a need for more autonomy and recognition of their individuality. Learners may also have special needs such as dealing with dyslexia.
- Teachers can find out about learners' needs through observation, questionnaires or through discussing them with students.
- Some choices the teacher can make to help to address learners' personal and learning needs are shown below:

Learner needs	How the teacher can address learners' needs
Personal needs	Choosing (a) suitable: • materials and topics • approach to teaching (e.g. activity-based or topic-based learning) • **pace** (speed) of lessons • activities • treatment of individual learners • skills and language • **interaction patterns** (e.g. whole class, group, pair or individual work) • types of **feedback** (comments on learning)

| Learning needs	Choosing (a) suitable:
	• materials and topics
	• approach to teaching and **assessment**
	• activities
	• interaction patterns
	• language and skills
	• level of language and skills
	• **learning strategies**
	• workload

- Meeting learners' professional needs is especially relevant to older learners who may be going to study at an English-medium university, get a new job or start new job duties. All these areas have their own uses of language. There are many books and websites available that have materials and activities for these kinds of needs, and that will help teachers understand what the language and skills characteristics of these areas are.

- Teachers cannot meet all their learners' needs all the time. Making use of **variety** within or across lessons can help though: for example, using different kinds of activities, different interaction patterns, different teaching approaches.

See Unit 9 for motivation in teaching and learning, Unit 13 for learner characteristics, Unit 15 for approaches to language teaching, and Unit 21 for lesson planning.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 241 for answers)*

1 Look at these descriptions of two learners. Make notes on their possible learning needs in the English classroom. What would be the best kind of course for them?

Pilar
Age 5, female,
Spanish father
and mother, lives
in Italy
Shy
Loves reading and
drawing
Will start learning English at primary
school next year
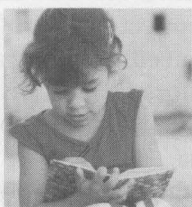
Kulap
Age 25, female,
Thai, lives in Thailand
Works as a shop assistant in
a tourist shop – speaks basic
English with tourists from
many different countries

Needs to improve her English for her new job
working in a call centre for a bank
Very sociable
Started learning English at age 7 in primary school
Has excellent grammar, weak speaking skills, good
reading and writing skills

Knows very little banking English
Wants to learn quickly and to a high level
Can only go to lessons after work

2 Here are some teacher choices. Which of the learner needs on pages 79-80 do they aim to meet? *Some choices may aim at more than one need.*

A Choosing to play the class an extract from a comedy show

B Asking the learners what they are learning English for and what they want to do with it

C Deciding to do more grammar work and fewer communicative activities with a class this term

D Letting one learner work with his friend for pairwork

E Deciding that three learners should do an easier task while the others do a more difficult one

F Choosing to focus on the language of negotiation with a class of business people

G Giving learners tips on how to do multiple-choice questions in preparation for an exam

H Focusing on the specific common grammar errors of the class

I Asking learners to decide what topics they would like to focus on this term

J Deciding only to focus on correcting a learner's pronunciation

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 There are 40 students in my class, but I can still find ways of meeting some of their needs.

2 Sometimes my students just want to chat in English rather than study for their exam.

3 I don't think my students have any particular needs – they just have to learn English.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Choose one of your learners, and over the next week or two try to identify his or her learner needs. You could interview the learner to help you do this. Write a description of the learner's needs in your Teacher Portfolio.

2 Look at some books on English for special groups, e.g. English for doctors, English for tourism, academic English. How are they different from the books you use at school?

3 How could you adapt some of the tasks in your coursebook units to meet your learners' needs?

4 Do you know the meaning of these terms: *intensive course, contribute, cooperation, learner-centred, energy levels, involvement, learner contract, raise awareness*? Use the *TKT Glossary* to check your understanding of them.

TKT practice task 14 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-5**, choose the best option (**A**, **B** or **C**) to complete each statement about learners' needs.

1 Bernardo keeps quiet most of the time because he hates making mistakes. He needs

   A accuracy practice.

   B paraphrasing techniques.

   C confidence building.

2 Chen's grammar and vocabulary are good but he speaks very hesitantly. He needs

   A pronunciation practice.

   B fluency activities.

   C sentence transformation exercises.

3 Ahmed rarely uses paragraphs or punctuation in his writing. He needs

   A grammar exercises.

   B controlled practice activities.

   C guided writing activities.

4 Fatima's English is really good but she still makes some elementary mistakes in writing. She needs

   A proofreading techniques.

   B peer correction.

   C grammar rules.

5 Noor always does what the teacher tells him but is unwilling to take decisions about his own learning. He needs

   A training in autonomy.

   B training in learning strategies.

   C training in fluency skills.

Unit 15 Approaches to language teaching

■ What is an approach to language teaching?

An approach to language teaching may refer to our view of language and our view of how language learning takes place. We may think, for example, that language is a set of grammar rules, and that language learning takes place by learning those rules and using them to work out the meaning of texts through translation. Sometimes approaches also refer to the ways or methods of teaching that we use in the classroom and that are based on these views. Supporters of **communicative approaches**, for example, believe that language is a tool to communicate meaning, and that, generally speaking, we learn language best by using it in **communicative activities** that focus on fluency.

   In this unit the terms 'approaches' and 'methods' will be used interchangeably, as they are in the TKT, to refer to views of language and language learning and the classroom practices that correspond to these views.

■ Key concepts

Here are some features typical of two approaches. What differences can you see between them?

	Structural Approach	Task-based Learning (TBL)
View of language	Language is a system of **structures** used to communicate meaning.	Language is a tool for communicating meaning through use of **functions**, vocabulary, structures, **discourse**.
View of language learning	Language is learnt through **controlled practice** of simpler structures, then more complicated ones. Mistakes should be avoided.	Language is learnt by using it.
Classroom practice	Oral **skills** are learnt before written skills.	Classroom activities are based around a series of problem-solving **tasks**. To solve the problems, learners need to communicate.
	Structures are practised in controlled conditions.	Grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation may or may not be focused on in class after the task is completed.

You can see that these two approaches differ in their view of language and language learning and in their classroom practices. Approaches involve our beliefs about teaching, language and language learning and how we translate these beliefs into classroom practices.

As you can imagine, there are many different approaches to teaching. These reflect people's different views on what language is made up of, how languages are learnt and what classroom practices effectively bring about learning. Certain approaches have had a great influence on English language teaching practices and materials. Let's look at some of them and their most typical characteristics:

Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP)

View of language: grammatical structures and functions are the most important aspect of language.

View of language learning: language is learnt by first seeing new language in a **context** which shows its meaning, practising it in controlled and **guided** conditions, then using it in freer conditions which give the learner less language support.

Classroom practices:

- The syllabus focuses on grammatical structures or functions.
- Lessons move from the **presentation stage** to the practice stage to the production stage.
- Learners should not be allowed to make mistakes during the practice stage.
- The teacher **inputs** language (provides examples and gives information about it), and guides students.
- The learners are guided by the teacher and do not make decisions about what or how to learn.
- Typical activities are **situational presentations** and **miming** at the presentation stage, **drills** at the controlled practice stage, role-plays and **information-gap activities** at the production stage.

Lexical Approach

View of language: vocabulary is the most important aspect of language. Vocabulary consists of individual words and different kinds of **chunks** (see Unit 2) such as **collocations**, **idioms**, fixed expressions.

View of language learning: language is learnt by learning chunks as whole and complete units. Chunks need to be **noticed** by learners in order to be learnt, i.e. learners need to become aware of chunks and focus on them.

Classroom practices:

- The **syllabus** focuses on **lexis**.
- Learners work with authentic written or spoken texts in the classroom.
- Learners are given activities which encourage them to notice chunks in texts, e.g. noting them down, underlining them.
- After noticing chunks, learners are asked to carry out tasks which will involve them in using the chunks.

Functional Approach

View of language: functions are the most important aspect of language.

View of language learning: as for PPP.

Classroom practices:

- The syllabus focuses on functions usually **graded** according to their frequency of use in practical daily life and to learners' communicative **needs**.
- The Functional Approach does not have any typical practices of its own. It often makes use of PPP stages in lessons, or of communicative activities.

Communicative approaches

View of language: communication is the most important aspect of language. Meaning is communicated through functions, grammar, vocabulary, discourse and skills.

View of language learning: the best way to learn language is to use it in **interaction**, rather than to learn about it.

Classroom practices:

- The syllabus focuses on tasks, functions and topic areas based on learners' communicative needs.
- Pair and group work enable lots of interaction to take place in the classroom, so they are a key part of classroom activities.
- Communicating meaning is very important.
- Fluency is more important than **accuracy**. Classroom activities focus on fluency much more than accuracy.
- **Authentic materials** (examples of real language used for real communication) provide useful input for learners and are therefore often used in the classroom.
- In the classroom, learners become active users of the language; the teacher's role focuses particularly on setting up communicative activities, providing correction after fluency activities, and inputting language when needed.

Grammar–Translation

View of language: language is made up of grammatical rules.

View of language learning: language is learnt by analysing and applying grammatical rules.

Classroom practices:

- Studying grammatical rules presented through grammatical terms, then applying them in exercises.
- **Working out** what language means by applying rules.
- **Learning** lists of words **by heart**.
- Translating texts and/or isolated sentences from **L1** to **L2** or vice versa.
- **Emphasis** on grammatical accuracy.

Total Physical Response (TPR)

View of language: grammatical structures and vocabulary are the most important aspect of language.

View of language learning:

- Learners learn by being **exposed** to language. **Comprehension** comes before production.
- Learners often need a **silent period** (a period of time during which learners hear language rather than produce it, as babies do) to take in language, so they should not be forced to speak before they are ready.
- Language is learnt best when it is accompanied by doing things physically.
- Learning takes place when learners are relaxed.

Classroom practices:

- Used mainly with young learners and beginners.
- The syllabus focuses on grammatical structures and vocabulary involved in giving and following instructions.

- Lessons involve the teacher giving instructions and the learners physically carrying out the instructions in the classroom, e.g. 'Walk to the table', 'Open the door'.
- At more advanced stages and after their silent period, learners give one another instructions.

Guided discovery

View of language: language has patterns of meaning and use.

View of language learning: learners learn language best if they work out patterns and rules of language themselves rather than being given them by the teacher.

Classroom practices:

- The teacher gives learners examples of a **target language** area, e.g. a text containing several examples of the past tense, a recording containing several sentences each with different patterns of **sentence stress**. The teacher then asks the learners to work out what the rules of use seem to be for the target language.
- The teacher often gives the learners the rules after they have worked them out or asks them to complete gapped rules.
- This approach is often used together with PPP, Task-based Learning and the Functional Approach.

Content-based learning

View of language: grammatical, lexical, functional areas and skills are all important.

View of language learning: language is learnt best if presented to learners through interesting topics which help them increase their knowledge of the world.

Classroom practices:

- The syllabus focuses on grammar, lexis, functions or skills.
- Used mainly in primary and secondary schools.
- Language is presented through topics related to school subjects or learning about the world.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

View of language:

- Language serves to communicate meaning.
- All aspects of language help communicate meaning, e.g. skills, discourse, lexis, grammar, functions.

View of language learning:

- Language is learnt mainly through **acquisition** and through using it. Language does not need to be obviously focused on.
- Language is learnt best when you use language to learn something else.

Classroom practices:

- The syllabus is based round learning about the subject matter and **cognitive** (thinking and learning) skills related to a school subject, e.g. maths, history, art.
- The school subject is taught in the L2 (L3/L4).
- The specific kinds of language learnt are the language needed for learning about the subject.
- Lessons focus on the subject rather than on language.

As you can see, the approaches outlined above vary in how **specific** they are about views on language and language learning and their typical classroom practices. Some are more developed in some areas than others. While these **features** are typical

of these approaches, they are not always totally accurate descriptions of them, as approaches change and individual teachers use them differently.

Many language teachers these days do not use one single approach. They may use one approach one week and a different approach the next, or they may include in one approach practices typical of another. For example, you sometimes see lessons in which the teacher asks learners to carry out a task before giving a PPP lesson on the same area, or you see a communicative lesson in which the learners are asked to do a drill on a common mistake. This 'mix and match' approach is called an **eclectic** approach, i.e. an approach which mixes techniques from different approaches. Many teachers, **coursebooks** and syllabuses use an eclectic approach because they think that it is not clear exactly how languages are learnt, so it may not be helpful for learners to use only one approach. Also, different learners have different **learning styles** and different ideas about how language should be learnt. Using an eclectic approach can allow the teacher to teach learners more appropriately. Experience shows that some approaches work better in some contexts than others. What works in one teaching context may not work in another.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Many teachers want to know which approach to teaching is best. But in fact it is difficult to say that one approach is better than another. For example, for a group of **motivated** upper-intermediate 18-year-olds who are learning English for their future jobs in the tourist industry, a communicative approach may well be very useful. However, for another group of 18-year-olds taking a grammar exam to get into university a Structural Approach might be more suitable.

- The best approach to use depends on who your learners are and what your teaching conditions are. Consider learners' age, level of English, **motivation** to learn, **expectations** of learning, previous learning experience. Think, too, about the **aims** of the course your learners are on, what **resources** are available to the classroom, class size and number of hours of English in the course.

- Some people believe in an eclectic approach which uses classroom practices from a variety of approaches/methods. This can be a successful approach, but it needs to be used carefully. If you are constantly changing your methods and approaches, your learners may become confused and begin to think that you are not very sure of your teaching style. It is important to mix techniques in a way which is coherent, so that all activities develop well out of one another and work towards the lesson's aims.

See Unit 10 for the differences between acquisition, interaction and focus on form, Units 13 and 14 for different characteristics and needs of learners, Unit 16 for ways to present language, and Unit 17 for ways of focusing on and practising language, and for examples of communicative tasks.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 241 for answers)*

Which teaching approach would be best for these learners? Match the learners (**1-5**) with the approaches **A-C**.

Approaches
A Task-based Learning
B Structural Approach
C Lexical Approach

Learners
1 A class of adult beginners. They are mostly in their 30s and 40s and have never learnt English before. They are very shy about making mistakes and looking stupid in front of their classmates.
2 A class of 14-year-olds in their third year of English who hate learning grammar but love talking, doing and finding out.
3 A class of young adults who want to go the UK/USA to work, study and see the world.
4 A class of advanced teenage learners who are very good at communicating but make lots of mistakes. They need fluent and accurate English for their future jobs in the tourist industry.
5 A class of beginner 11-year-olds. Their learning styles vary: some are risk-takers, some analytical, some social, some kinaesthetic.

What factors made you decide in favour of one approach or another?

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I want to look at each of the approaches and think about what the advantages and disadvantages are of each. Then I might try one out.
2 I like to pick the best out of different approaches to keep my students motivated and involved, and to make my lessons relevant to different kinds of learners.
3 I suppose I use the same approach my English teacher used, but I'm not sure what approach that is. It doesn't really matter which approach you use.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at some units from two or three different coursebooks to work out what approach they use.
2 Read more about some approaches: search for them on these websites:
http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?sectionType=listsummary &catid=59442&docid=146495
http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles
3 Find out about this approach: Test-teach-test.

TKT practice task 15 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-6**, look at the approaches and the three statements listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the statements match the approach. One does **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) of the statement which does **NOT** match the approach.

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1 Total Physical Response (TPR)

    A Students hear dialogues then repeat them.

    B Students focus on understanding before speaking.

    C Students move round the classroom to carry out instructions.

2 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

    A The teacher focuses on developing learners' cognitive skills.

    B Students often do activities that focus on language accuracy.

    C Language is used to communicate about school subjects.

3 Lexical Approach

    A Grammar is less important than vocabulary.

    B Each vocabulary item must be learnt by heart.

    C Students need to become aware of chunks of vocabulary.

4 Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP)

    A Teachers need to focus learners' attention on new target language.

    B Students need opportunities to get language right before they experiment.

    C Students always start learning a new piece of language by doing a task.

5 Grammar-Translation method

    A Language must be analysed in order to learn it.

    B Drills and pattern practice help us learn structures.

    C Exercises help us understand rules.

6 Task-based Learning (TBL)

    A Tasks must be done after students have practised target language.

    B The teacher does not control the language that students use in tasks.

    C Tasks aim to show students what language they need to learn.

Part 3 | Background to language teaching

Unit 16 Presentation techniques and introductory activities

■ What are presentation techniques and introductory activities?

Presentation techniques are the ways used by the teacher to **focus** learners' attention **on** the meaning, use and sometimes **form** of new language, when introducing it to them for the first time. **Introductory activities** are activities used by a teacher to introduce a lesson or teaching topic.

■ Key concepts

*Look at the presentation **stages** (the areas that are shaded) in these descriptions of two lessons for elementary-level secondary school students. How are the stages different? What different presentation techniques (ways of presenting) do they use?*

Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP) lesson	Task-based Learning (TBL) lesson
Aim: for students to learn the difference between **countable** and **uncountable nouns**, and when to use *a* and *some* with them.	Aim: for students to choose food and drink for a birthday party.
Procedure:	Procedure:
1 Ask students what food and drinks they like at a birthday party.	1 Hold a discussion with the students about when their birthdays are, what presents they would like, what good birthday parties they have been to, and what they like to eat and drink at birthday parties.
2 Stick on the board magazine pictures of different party foods (the pictures should be a mixture of countable and uncountable nouns, e.g. ice cream, sandwiches, cola, fruit, bananas, chicken legs, cake, a box of sweets).	
3 Ask students the names of the food items and write the names on the board under each picture.	2 Put students into small groups and give them a **worksheet** with pictures, names and prices of food on it.
4 Say to the students 'I'm having a birthday party this weekend. I'd like a box of sweets and a cake for my party. And I'd like some ice cream, some cola and some fruit, some sandwiches, some bananas and some chicken legs.'	3 Tell the students to do this task: choose the food and drink they would like for a birthday party for ten friends, keeping within a price limit, e.g. $10.
5 Say 'I'd like a box of sweets', 'I'd like a cake', I'd like some ice cream', etc. and ask the students to repeat each sentence chorally.	4 The students do the task while the teacher goes round the class listening and answering any questions.
6 Point out to the students that you can count some nouns but you can't count others. The ones	5 Each group tells the other groups what decisions they have made.

you can count are called countable nouns and the ones you can't count are called uncountable nouns. You use *a* with singular countable nouns and *some* with uncountable nouns or plural countable nouns. 7 Ask the students some **concept questions**, e.g. 'Which of the food items on the board are countable/uncountable/singular/plural?' 8 Students do a written **gap-fill** exercise, filling the gaps with *a* or *some*. 9 Students work in pairs with a worksheet of pictures of food and drink items. One student tells the other what they'd like for their party, e.g. 'I'd like some/a ...', while the other student takes notes. Then they swap roles.	6 The students ask the teacher questions about any language they needed for the task, and/or the teacher tells the students about any language she noticed they didn't know as they were doing the task, e.g. the pronunciation of some words, when to use *a* and *some*. 7 Students write a note to their parents saying what food and drink they would like at their birthday party.

These lesson plans show two common and different ways of presenting new language items. There are several differences in how they present them.

Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP) lesson:
- Language is a clear aim and focus of the lesson.
- The teacher first puts the **target language** (the language selected for learning) into a situation which shows what it means (a **situational presentation**). (Step 1)
- The teacher then makes sure that the students remember previously studied language needed to practise the new language by **eliciting** it, i.e. asking students to say the language rather than giving it to them. (Steps 2-3)
- The teacher next models the target language and the students just listen. (Step 4)
- The students then repeat the target language in a **choral drill,** a very **controlled** or **restricted practice** activity, i.e. one in which they can use only the new language and without making mistakes. (Step 5)
- The teacher tells students about the grammatical use of the new language. (Step 6)
- The teacher asks the students **concept questions**, i.e. questions that check their understanding of the use or meaning of the new language. (Step 7)
- The students then do a controlled practice activity focusing on form (Step 8), then further practice activities focusing on meaning. (Step 9)

You can see that at the presentation stage of a PPP lesson (Steps 4-7) the teacher firstly sets up a **context** for presenting the new language that shows its meaning, then **models** (provides a model for students to copy) the target language for students to repeat before **highlighting** the form and use of the language through drills and concept questions / **concept checking**, which give students the opportunity to **notice** and focus on these. The lesson then moves on to a practice stage.

Task-based Learning (TBL) lesson:
- The aim of the lesson is for students to complete a task.
- The teacher starts by **contextualising** the topic (putting it in a situation which shows its meaning). (Step 1)
- The teacher gives the students tasks to do. (Steps 3, 4, 5)

- The teacher and students discuss any new or problematic language they needed for the task. (Step 6)
- Lastly, the students do a task to **consolidate** the language. (Step 7)

You can see that in a TBL lesson the presentation of new language (Step 6) in fact follows the stage in which students use the new language. This allows the students to focus first on the meaning of the new language rather than its form.

A PPP approach to presenting new language focuses directly on both the meaning or use and form of target language and gives students an opportunity to practise language in a safe learning environment where it is difficult to make mistakes. It can therefore be quite a **confidence**-building approach for students. But it makes students learn language items they may not be interested in or ready to learn, and gives them few opportunities to really use the language for communication. The TBL approach, on the other hand, allows students to find new language when they want to, and to use language experimentally and creatively for real communication. In this way it puts second language learners in a situation which is quite similar to the one in which children learn their first language. Some learners may find this approach to language learning exciting and challenging. Others may wish for more guidance and structure to help them.

PPP and TBL are not the only ways of presenting new language. It is also possible, for example, to present new language to learners after they have met it in a reading or listening text which is first used for **comprehension**. The teacher could ask students to underline examples of the target language in the text and then **work out** the meaning or use of that language. This is an example of using **guided discovery** to present target **language**. Another possibility is to do an oral activity such as a discussion on a topic or a task such as designing a new playground for the school, then introduce new language while the discussion or task is happening.

Another way of focusing on new language is through **Test-teach-test**. In this, the teacher first gives learners a task that requires them to use target language. If this activity shows that the students don't know how to use the target language, the teacher will then present the new language, then give the students another task to practise the new language. If the first task shows that the students already know the target language sufficiently well, the teacher will move on to something else.

You can see that all the presentation techniques contextualise target language, i.e. they put the language in a context which shows its meaning. The context can be provided by building a situation, using a listening or reading text, doing a task, using **realia**, **mime** (using the body and no words to convey meaning), explanations, **visuals** or a combination of these. When learners learn target language they need to know what it means. Contextualising aims to help learners to notice and understand meaning. While all the techniques focus on the meaning of the target language, they may not all focus so much on its form. For example, PPP and guided discovery focus on form and meaning, whereas task-based presentations focus more on meaning. Teachers' different beliefs about how language learning takes place, the role of form and meaning in language learning, their preferred approach(es) to language teaching and the age and needs of their students will decide how much they prefer to focus on form.

Introductory activities are different from presentation techniques. They are the activities a teacher uses to introduce a lesson or teaching topic, or sometimes to

introduce new students to one another. If you look back at the PPP and TBL lessons on pages 90-1 you will see that they, too, include introductory activities. Step 1 in the PPP lesson provides a **lead-in** to the topic, and steps 2 and 3 a lead-in for language needed for the lesson's main aim. In the TBL lesson, steps 1 and 2 are lead-ins.

The introductory stage of a lesson helps students to settle into the lesson and focus on its content. There are two kinds of introductory activities: **warmers** and lead-ins. **Warmers** are often used to raise students' energy levels or to make them feel comfortable before the main learning of the lesson starts. They are not always connected to the topic of the lesson; for example, they could be a quiz, game or pairwork activity.

Lead-ins introduce the content of the lesson. Their aim is to focus and **motivate** students and make a link between the topic of the lesson and the students' own lives (**personalisation**). For example, if students are going to read a text about the internet, rather than giving them the text immediately, we could do one or more lead-in activities such as discussing with students how often they use the internet, what they use it for, what their favourite websites are, etc. Or if in another lesson they are going to listen to a conversation about favourite television programmes, the lead-in activities might be making a list of their favourite television programmes and

- What aids to use to help create the context, e.g. pictures, DVD, CD, a worksheet?
- How to show the meaning or use of the target language, e.g. explanation, translation, presenting through a situation?

• Using warmers as introductory activities makes the students feel comfortable and ready for the lesson. If learners arrive at a lesson ready to learn and all at the same time, you may not always need to do warmers.

• Lead-ins introduce the content of the lesson. They give the learners a chance to remember their thoughts and experiences of the content before they start actually working on it. In this way, they are better prepared for the work that follows.

• The ways you present new language or introduce lessons will depend on your learners – their level, interests, age, what language they already know, weaknesses and strengths in English and **learning styles**, and on the **resources** available to you in your school and the approach to presentation used in your **coursebook**.

See Unit 15 for approaches to language teaching, Unit 17 for types of activities and tasks, Unit 21 for selecting language for presentation and planning a lesson, Units 25-26 for resources and materials useful for presentations, and Unit 27 for classroom functions often used by the teacher to present new language.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 241 for answers)*

Look at the terms in the box below and see which of the seven presentation activities they can be used to describe.

| focus on form   contextualisation   focus on meaning   guided discovery |
| eliciting   concept checking   using aids   modelling   noticing   text as input |

1 The students read a text, then the teacher asks them to find and underline all the examples it contains of the second conditional.

2 The teacher shows the students a video of some children fighting and asks them to give her reasons why they might be fighting. She encourages them to say 'It might/could be because…'

3 The teacher shows the students pictures of people doing lots of boring duties, e.g. washing up, washing clothes, shopping, cleaning the house. After she has told the students which of the activities she <u>must</u> do tonight, she says 'Am I talking about something I want to do or something I have to do?'

4 The students listen to a recording of a dialogue between a shop assistant and a customer. The teacher asks the students to tell her what language they heard.

5 The students read a short advertisement advertising a new car. The teacher has underlined all the superlatives in the text. She then asks the students to look at the underlined words and work out when the *-est* form is used.

6 The teacher shows the students four drawings of what she did at the weekend and tells the students what she did. She then asks the students to draw four pictures showing what they did last weekend. Next she asks them to talk about their pictures, helping them to use the correct form of the past tense.

7 The teacher shows students a series of pictures showing the development of a butterfly. As she shows them, she tells the students what is happening to the butterfly and asks them to repeat the sentences after her.

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I think PPP is too controlled by the teacher – the students feel you are being bossy with them.
2 Whatever presentation technique I use, I always focus on pronunciation of the target language.
3 If you don't focus on form, students will never notice it.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at a unit in your coursebook that presents new language. What presentation techniques does it use? Does it focus on meaning or form or both?
2 If you have suitable classes, teach one class the PPP lesson at the beginning of this unit and the other the TBL lesson. Compare their reactions and write them up in your Teacher Portfolio.
3 For more ideas on presenting new language, read Chapter 12 of *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005.
4 Here are some suggestions for warmers. Choose one suitable for one of your classes, then teach it and note the effect it had on the learners and the lesson. Write up your observations in your Teacher Portfolio.
http://eltnotebook.blogspot.com/2007/01/my-favourite-efl-classroom-warmers.html
http://www.tefllogue.com/in-the-classroom/tefl-warmers-from-daves-esl-cafe-idea-cookbook.html
5 Use the *TKT Glossary* to find the meaning of these terms: *define, definition, illustrate meaning, teaching strategy, visualisation, arouse interest.*

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TKT practice task 16 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-6**, look at the terms about presentation techniques and introductory activities and the three possible examples listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the example (**A**, **B** or **C**) which matches the term.

1 concept questions
  A The teacher asks the students to repeat the target questions after her.
  B The teacher asks the students *Am I talking about something definite or something possible?*
  C The teacher puts quiz questions on the board and asks the students to answer them in pairs.

2 a situational presentation

A The teacher tells the students about something that happened to her one day at school.

B The teacher asks the students to present their group's ideas to the class.

C The teacher plays a recording then the students do a comprehension task on it.

3 modelling

A Two students demonstrate to the rest of the class how their design works.

B The students copy the target language from their exercise books into their vocabulary records.

C The students listen to the target language on the recording then say it themselves.

4 a lead-in

A The teacher starts the class by doing some revision before teaching some new language.

B The teacher chats to the class about what they did last weekend before playing them a song to listen to and then sing.

C The class describe pictures of capital cities before listening to a recording on visiting different cities.

5 focus on form

A The teacher explains the meaning of the new vocabulary by using synonyms.

B The teacher elicits the spelling of some new words then writes them on the board.

C The teacher mimes something she can do and something she can't do.

6 contextualisation

A The teacher gives the students a history quiz then uses this to introduce the past tense.

B The teacher explains to students that you use *should* to give someone advice.

C The teacher asks the students to discuss their favourite sport then corrects their mistakes.

Unit 17 Practice activities and tasks for language and skills development

■ What are practice activities and tasks for language and skills development?

These are activities and **tasks** designed to give learners opportunities to practise and extend their use of language, such as new vocabulary, **functional exponents** or **grammatical structures**, or of the **subskills** of reading, listening, speaking or writing. There are many different kinds of activities and tasks with different names and different uses.

■ Key concepts

Here are three writing activities. What differences are there between them in how much choice they give learners?

Activity 1	Activity 2	Activity 3
Complete these sentences about yourself with *can* or *can't*. 1 I .... swim. 2 I .... speak Mandarin. 3 I .... play the guitar. 4 I .... use a computer. 5 I .... run very fast.	Write an email to a language school asking them about their courses. Find out: - when the courses are - what the courses are about - how much they cost - how long the courses are.	Write an email to a friend asking them to come on holiday with you this summer.

We can see that these activities give learners an opportunity to use language, but in different ways.

Activity 1	Activity 2	Activity 3
• is a **controlled/restricted practice** activity (i.e. the learners can only use certain items of language) • gives students practice in using language accurately • is an exercise, i.e. it **focuses on** the **form** of language	• is a **less controlled / freer practice** activity (an activity in which learners have some choice over what language they use) • gives students practice in using language accurately and in communicating • is a **task** (an activity with a real-world outcome)	• is a free activity • gives students practice in communicating • is a task

Speaking and writing activities can be categorised according to how much they control students' use of language.

controlled	freer	free

Each category of activity has a different focus and purpose and uses different activity types.

Controlled activities give students repeated practice in **accuracy** and the **form** of language, and allow them to make few mistakes. They are mostly used to **guide** students in using the form of **target language**. Some examples of controlled activities are copying words or sentences, jazz chants, and **drills** (guided repetition). In drills students can either repeat some **model** language as a class (**choral drills**) or as individuals (**individual drills)**, replace a **key word** in given sentences (**substitution drills**) or use new words to create sentences with a different structure (**transformation drills**).

Free activities, by contrast, allow students to use whatever language they wish in order to complete a task. In free activities, the teacher may not be able to **predict** what language the students will use, and so can't use these activities to give practice in **specific** language. These activities focus on fluency, giving students practice in **recalling** and joining together the language they know and giving them opportunities to try to **interact** and communicate. Discussions, problem-solving activities, sharing or comparing ideas, information or experiences; **rank ordering / prioritising** (putting a list of things in order of importance), writing emails, stories, letters, invitations or compositions are all examples of free activities.

Between controlled and free activities are freer activities in which the teacher can predict to some extent what language the student will need to use. For example, you can see that in activity 2 above the students will need to use question forms, so the activity provides practice of question forms. But the students will also use other language which is not so predictable to complete the email. These activities provide repeated practice of target language, guiding students to use its form correctly and integrate new language with language students already know. Examples of freer activities are **role-plays**, **information-gap activities**, sentence completion, **gap-fills**, **surveys**.

We can see that controlled activities give students lots of guidance and support in using language accurately, freer activities give a little less guidance and support, and free activities do not give students guidance and support in the language they use.

It is not always possible to categorise activities as controlled, freer or free as it depends on how the teacher uses them. Let's take role-play, for example. A teacher could put students in pairs and ask them to reproduce a **dialogue** they have just heard on a recording. This would be a controlled activity. At the end of a lesson on asking for and giving personal information, students could do a role-play in which they meet a new person at a party and have to find out about them. As the students would be very likely to use the language they had just learnt, this would be a freer activity. Imagine now a reading text which discusses the advantages and disadvantages of social networking websites. After the students have done language and **comprehension** work on the text, the teacher asks one group of students to list ideas in favour of social networking sites and the other group to list all the arguments against. The teacher then pairs students from the different groups and asks them to argue in their roles about the advantages and disadvantages. This would be an example of a free role-play, as we don't know what language the students would use.

There are also many activities and tasks that are commonly used to develop reading and listening **skills**. These can't be divided into controlled, freer and free as they practise **receptive**, not **productive**, skills. Here are six activities. What reading or listening subskill do they focus on? What is the name of the type of activity?

1 **Read the article. Is it:**
 	
a mystery?
an adventure?
a love story?
	2 A Listen to the recording and choose the best answer:
	  The children's school is:
	  a near their house.
	  b near the shops.
	  c opposite the post office.
	  B Now listen again. Are these sentences true or false?
	  a The school is new.
	  b The classroom is big.
	  c The library has many books.

3 In your groups look at these pictures and then read the story. Discuss and agree on the correct order for the pictures. Write the correct number (1-6) under each picture.	4 Listen to the recording, and in pairs fill in this form:
	
	  Girl's name: ....
	  Girl's address: ....
	  Name of girl's friend: ....

5 Read the text on page 102 and answer the questions. Your partner will read the other part of the text on page 165 and answer questions. When you have both finished reading, ask one another the questions you have not found the answers to.	6 Listen to the recording and complete this table: Delhi / Madrid / New York — Population / Location / Languages spoken

Here are the answers to the questions above:

Activity	Subskill	Type of activity
1	**Reading for gist**	Choosing from a list / multiple-choice (an activity in which you choose the best answer from three or more possible answers)
2	Listening for specific information	A **Multiple-choice questions** B **True/false questions** (an activity in which you decide whether statements are correct or incorrect)
3	**Reading for detail, cohesion**	**Jumbled pictures** (jumbled = in the wrong order)
4	Listening for specific information	Form filling

5	Reading for specific information or detail	**Jigsaw reading** (where each student is given only part of a text and needs to tell other students about his/her part of the text, so that in the end each student has all the information from the text)
6	**Listening for** specific information or **detail**	Table completion

We can see that these activities can differ in several ways: the skill or subskill they focus on; their design and what **interaction patterns** they use. The kinds of skills they focus on and the interaction patterns they use are not fixed. So, for example, multiple-choice questions could be used for reading, listening or grammar activities and can be done individually, in pairs or in groups or **mingling**. Similarly, form filling could be used for reading, listening or grammar practice, and done individually, in pairs or in groups.

Activities 3 and 5 provide examples of another way of categorising activities. Both of these activities involve an information gap, i.e. the students need to talk to one another to exchange information they don't know in order to complete the activity. This means they are talking in order to communicate, not just to practise language or show they have got the answers right. Free role-plays and surveys are other examples of information-gap activities. There is no information gap in exercises or drills.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- When selecting activities for practising and developing language it is up to the teacher to decide whether to do a controlled practice, freer practice or free activity, or an activity that focuses on accuracy or on communication. The choice will depend on students' **needs** and preferences.
- When choosing activities and tasks for developing skills, the teacher can decide which skill or subskill to focus on. Again, students' needs and preferences should help us to make that choice.
- Using several kinds of activities in our lessons adds **variety**. This helps to keep lessons more interesting and **motivating**.
- Activities in lessons are usually linked so that the first one leads into and helps the next, etc. There are several different ways of linking activities in lessons. These are just some of them.

Language-focused lessons:
1 **Presentation** → controlled practice activities → freer practice activities
2 **Lead-in** → tasks → presentation → further tasks

Skills-based lessons:
warmer and/or lead-in → comprehension activities/tasks → post-task activities. Comprehension activities for listening or reading often start by focusing on more general levels of comprehension, then move on to subskills involving detailed or specific attention to the text, then to a focus on the language used in the text.

Example 1: A listening skills lesson
Lead-in: discussing the topic of the listening and learning any important new vocabulary → comprehension tasks: listening to the recorded conversation and answering multiple-choice gist questions about it → listening to the conversation again and completing a form with specific information → post-task activities: brief discussion of the topic of the conversation

Example 2: A topic-based skills lesson
Lead-in: speaking about the topic and doing related language work → tasks: listening to a recording about the topic → reading a text about the topic → post-task activities: discussing the topic and/or focusing on the language of the topic → writing a composition about the topic.
This is an **integrated skills** lesson, i.e. a lesson that involves working on a variety of skills, with each leading into the next.

See Units 19, 20 and 21 for planning activities for lessons and Unit 27 for language useful to the teacher for carrying out activities.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 241 for answers)*

1 Match the activity to its name. Please note that some of these activities have not been mentioned before in the unit.

Name	Activity
A Brainstorming	1 Tasks which involve discussing and/or getting information in order to solve a problem
B Sentence completion	2 Moving round the class to discuss or find out something from one classmate after the other
C Extension tasks	3 Making or completing diagrams showing relationships between words
D Making mind/word maps	4 Listing or shouting out ideas or language quickly
E Surveys	5 Imagining what something is like / building up a picture of something in your head prompted by another person (usually the teacher)
F Visualisation	6 Activities usually done at the end of the lesson to give further practice in target language or to consolidate language from a text
G Categorisation	7 Supplying words to finish a sentence
H Problem solving	8 Finding out what others think about a topic, often by completing a questionnaire
I Mingling	9 Putting words into groups according to a feature they have in common

2 What column do these activities belong in? Some may belong to more than one.

Controlled practice	Freer practice	Free practice

A choral drilling of pronunciation
B rank ordering
C chants
D discussions
E sentence completion exercises
F story writing
G copying words
H repeating minimal pairs
I learning conversations by heart

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I like to mix my practice activities so that some focus on accuracy and some on fluency – especially with elementary learners.
2 My learners don't like doing communicative activities. They prefer drills and controlled exercises, so that's what we do.
3 You can't do free activities with big classes.
4 My coursebook always uses the same activities for reading and listening. I don't like that.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look through a unit of your coursebook. Can you name all the different kinds of activities it contains? What is the purpose of each activity?
2 To see lots of different activities for developing skills and language, look at:
http://www.britishcouncil.org/kids-topics.htm?mtklink=kids-topics-kids-popular-offers
http://www.britishcouncil.org/central.htm?mtklink=central-learnenglish-portal-main-promo
3 Look back over this unit and find a type of activity that you have never taught before. Try it with one of your classes. Did it work well? Write up your thoughts in your Teacher Portfolio.
4 Do you know the meaning of these terms: *open and closed questions, substitution table, jigsaw listening, filler, chant, label, picture story, problem solving, project work, role-play, task type, open-ended task*? Use the *TKT Glossary* to check your answers.

TKT practice task 17 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the questions about practice activities and the three possible answers listed **A, B** and **C**.

Choose the correct answer (**A, B** or **C**).

1 Which activity does **NOT** give learners controlled pronunciation practice?

    A listening to words and ticking the ones you hear

    B saying a list of words all containing the same problem phoneme

    C repeating sentences and beating their rhythm at the same time

2 Which activities do **NOT** develop interactive speaking skills?

    A role-plays

    B information-gap

    C substitution drills

3 Which activities do **NOT** involve an information gap?

    A true/false questions

    B surveys

    C problem solving

4 Which activities do **NOT** allow learners to use the language they want?

    A project work

    B controlled practice activities

    C communicative activities

5 Which activity does **NOT** develop listening for gist?

    A listening to choose a title for a text

    B listening to decide how many speakers there are

    C listening to draw a route on a map

6 Which activity does **NOT** focus on developing ideas?

    A brainstorming

    B jigsaw reading

    C discussion

7 Which activity does **NOT** focus on accuracy?

    A gap-filling

    B rank ordering

    C copying

Unit 18 Assessment types and tasks

▪ What are assessment types and tasks?

Assessment means judging learners' performance by collecting information about it. We **assess** learners for different reasons, using different methods to do so. Assessment **tasks** are the tasks we use for assessing learners. We can assess learners informally or formally. **Informal assessment** is when we observe learners to see how well they are doing something and then often give them comments on their performance. **Formal assessment** is when we assess learners through tests or exams and give their work a mark or a grade.

▪ Key concepts

List all the reasons you can think of for assessing learners formally.

There are several reasons why we might want to assess learners formally:

1 At the beginning of a course we might give them a test to find out (**diagnose**) what they know and don't know. This is called a **diagnostic test**. The information from this type of test helps us decide what to teach and which learners need help in which areas of language.

2 When learners go to a language school or evening classes, the school may want to know what level the learners are at, so they give them a test. This is called a **placement test**. We use the information from a placement test to decide what level of class the learners should go into.

3 After we have finished teaching a part of a course, we may want to find out how well learners have learnt it. A test for this purpose is called a **progress test**. A progress test looks back over a recent block of the **syllabus**, e.g. a unit from the **coursebook**, to see how well the learners have learnt what it covered. We use the information from the test to decide if we need to do more work on this area of the syllabus or not, and perhaps to give learners **feedback** on their strengths and difficulties in this area. Using information from assessment to feed into our teaching and maybe give learners feedback is called **formative assessment**.

4 Some teachers prefer not to assess their learners' progress in a term through tests but through pieces of work given throughout the term. They might set a composition in week 2, for instance, a presentation in week 4, an essay in week 6, etc., then base the learner's final mark on the average mark for the pieces of work. Some teachers think that this method of assessment (**continuous assessment**) gives a truer picture of how well the learner has learnt and is less threatening and more formative than an end-of-course exam. In young learner classes this form of assessment is sometimes called classroom-based assessment.

   Another way of assessing learners' work throughout the term is through a **portfolio**. This is a collection of learners' work done during the course, which the learner puts together during or at the end a course and then presents to the teacher. Often it also contains comments on the work written by the learner or classmates.

Like continuous assessment, portfolios let learners produce work on an area just after it has been taught. Putting the portfolio together can also be an opportunity for the learner to revise and improve their work. The portfolio might contain, for example, different kinds of writing, the results of a project or recordings, e.g. a video of an interview or a presentation.

5 At the end of a term or course, we may give learners a test to see how well they have learnt the contents of the whole course. This kind of assessment is called an **achievement test** or a **summative test**. Learners usually receive a score or mark from this kind of testing.

6 Sometimes learners take tests to see how good they are at language. This kind of test is called a **proficiency test**. The contents of the test are not based on a course or syllabus that the learner has followed. The test measures the learner's general **skill** or ability in the language as a whole (e.g. the IELTS test) or a use of it (e.g. English for nurses).

Diagnostic, placement, progress, summative and proficiency tests are all examples of formal testing. They are taken under exam-like conditions with learners at their own desks, working silently and within a time limit, consist of set tasks for which a score is given and are administered by the teacher or an official.

There are many different tasks a teacher can use to assess her learners, e.g. **multiple-choice questions**, interviews, **gap-fill** (filling in gaps in sentences or texts), table completion for listening, or reading for specific information. The tasks a teacher chooses to use for formal assessment depend on what aspect of language or skills the teacher wants to assess.

Assessment tasks are often described as **objective** and **subjective**. The difference between objective and subjective tasks is how much the marker needs to use their own judgement to mark the right answer. In an **objective task** the marker does not have to judge whether an answer is right or wrong, or how right or how wrong the answer is, because there is only one answer. Multiple-choice, **true/false**, gap-fills and matching tasks are all examples of objective tasks.

The advantage of objective tests is that there is no judgement involved in their marking. This means they are quick to mark, and the results are accurate: important **features** for both teachers and learners. The disadvantages of objective tests are that they are difficult to write and that they do not test real use of the language, but rather the skills or knowledge that language use is based on. We may know which letter to tick, (A, B or C), in a multiple-choice test of our knowledge of the present tense, but not know how to use the same tense while talking.

In a **subjective task** the marker needs to use their judgment to decide if an answer is right or how right it is. Examples of subjective tasks are role-plays, essays, interviews, group discussions, compositions. There are many things to mark in tasks like this. For example, in an essay you could mark grammar and range of vocabulary use, but you could also mark quality of ideas, task **achievement**, use of **register**, organisation. The marker needs to decide what aspects of the essay to mark and then how to **distinguish**, for example, between excellent, good, average and poor use of grammar.

Here are some task types often used in formal assessment.

Reading	Writing
• True/false questions • Yes/no questions • Multiple-choice questions • Open comprehension questions • Information transfer, e.g. table completion • Ordering **paragraphs** • Choosing titles for texts or paragraphs • **Cloze tests**	• Copying • **Jumbled words** • Labelling • Form filling • Sentence/dialogue completion • Completing the middle/end of a story • Story writing • Picture/diagram description • Writing essays/compositions/emails/letters/postcards/reports
Listening	Speaking
• True/false questions • Yes/no questions • Multiple-choice questions • Open comprehension questions • Information transfer, e.g. table completion • Listen and complete the gaps/sentences • Tick the word/sentence you heard • Following instructions for mapping a route/drawing a picture, etc. • Choose the adjective/picture/diagram, etc. which best describes what you heard • Dictation	• Repeating words/sentences • Responding to **prompts/functions** • Describing pictures/objects/films, etc. • Giving (short) presentations • Discussions • Interviews • Role-play • Problem-solving in groups
Grammar	Vocabulary
• Multiple-choice questions • Sentence/dialogue completion • Transformation exercises • **Error** correction • Gap-filling	• Labelling • Categorising • Word-building • **Word maps/mind maps** (diagrams showing relationships between words in the same **lexical set**) • Matching • Odd one out • Finding/giving **synonyms** / **antonyms** / definitions / lexical sets

You can check your understanding of the terms in bold in this table in the *TKT Glossary*.

Unlike formal assessment, informal assessment does not use assessment tasks and is rarely used to give the learner a grade, as that is not the purpose of informal assessment. It is also generally less reliable or accurate than formal assessment. Informal assessment can be carried out by the teacher or the learners. When carried out by the teacher it usually involves the teacher observing the learners or particular learners to find out more about their level, attitudes or **learner characteristics**.

A teacher might observe a class doing group work, for example, to judge their general level of fluency, or watch them doing project work to see how **motivated** they are or how well they work together (collaboration). The teacher might also just focus on how a particular learner is getting on, observing them as they do e.g. written work or pairwork in class. The teacher could use a checklist or take notes to help them remember what they have observed. Informal assessment of this kind helps the teacher learn about the **needs** of individual learners and about general levels of ability or attitudes in a class. He or she can use this information to shape future lessons.

Informal assessment is often used with young learners, as they may not respond well to formal assessment. We can see that informal assessment is formative. It provides the teacher with feedback that can feed into future teaching or could be used to give advice to learners on how to improve in future.

Learners can also carry out informal assessment. They can assess themselves (**self-assessment**) or one another (**peer assessment**). They can do this with checklists to **guide** them. The reason for using both peer and self-assessment is to help learners to understand their language use and performance better, and so become more **autonomous**. Informal assessment is often followed up by feedback from the teacher to the learners on the strengths and weaknesses of their performance, and suggestions for how to improve.

When a teacher is assessing informally or using formal subjective tests they often use **assessment criteria** to help with the assessment. These are the general features of a skill which can be used as a basis for judging students' performance. For example, speaking involves the **subskills** of:

- fluency
- using language accurately
- using language **appropriately**
- **interactive strategies**
- pronunciation
- vocabulary range
- **discourse** organisation.

The teacher can use these subskills or some of them (depending on the level of the class) as criteria against which to judge their learners' speaking. At beginner or low levels the teacher might want to just use e.g. pronunciation and vocabulary range as assessment criteria. In school tests, the assessment criteria should reflect the focus of what has been taught. It is not fair in a progress or an achievement test to test students on e.g. their organisation of writing, if they have never been taught this. Assessment criteria help to make subjective tests less subjective, because the teacher will mark all the students' work using the same criteria.

Below is an example of some assessment criteria for speaking arranged as a set of bands. The criteria have been arranged to describe different levels of ability.

	Accuracy	Fluency	Pronunciation
5	Grammatical and lexical **accuracy** extremely high.	Speaks fluently without **hesitation** or searching for words.	Very clear; **stress** and **intonation** help to make meaning clear.
4	Quite accurate; some errors, but meaning is always clear.	Some hesitation and sometimes has to search for words.	Generally clear; reasonable control of stress and intonation.
3	Frequent errors; meaning is not always clear.	Quite hesitant; limited range of vocabulary and **structures**.	Frequent errors; not always clear enough to understand.
2	Very frequent errors; difficulty in making meaning clear.	Extremely hesitant; very limited range of language available.	Very frequent errors; often very difficult to understand.
1	Almost unable to communicate.		

These particular bands cover a wide range of ability. When working with a particular class it may be more useful for the teacher to work with a narrower range. The bands could be used in a formal assessment of speaking or to help a teacher carry out informal assessment. Informal assessment is sometimes used to assess students' behaviour, attitudes or learner characteristics rather than their language abilities. In this case the assessment criteria might be e.g. **motivation**, degree of **participation** in group work, type of **learning style**, etc.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Assessment can affect what we teach, how we teach and our learners' motivation for learning. It is very important for tests to have a good influence on teaching and learning.
- Some assessment tasks are easy to write, e.g. essay titles, or mark, e.g. categorising tasks. But we need to check if they reflect what we have taught. It is not a good idea to use a particular testing task just because it is easy to use or easy to mark. For example, for administrative reasons, it is often difficult to assess learners' speaking, so speaking is often not assessed, and as a result learners may start thinking that speaking isn't important. Speaking skills can sometimes be more easily assessed informally than formally.
- To really reflect the level of learners' learning, the content and tasks included in progress and summative tests should reflect the content and tasks in our teaching. This may mean that our tests include a mixture of objective and subjective tasks.
- Assessment needs to be fair. This means that progress and summative tests should only test what has been taught and that they should be reliable and accurate in their marking. Using bands to help us mark subjective tasks helps achieve this.
- Feedback to learners on what they got right or wrong, their strengths and weaknesses, and what they can do to improve, is very important. Through feedback, assessment helps learning.

- Informal assessment is often much more suitable for assessing young learners than formal assessment. This is because young learners' ways of thinking and learning are based on experiencing and communicating, and also because teachers of young learners are often interested in finding out more about their learners' attitudes, motivation and behaviours.
- If in your school, several classes follow the same syllabus or coursebook and do the same subjective / partly subjective test, it is useful for the teachers to use the same assessment criteria or bands. It may be useful to agree what mark you would give to some samples of students' writing before marking starts. Even then, there may be disagreements amongst teachers. At this point, it's useful to discuss exactly what the bands mean. This process helps marking become fairer and more reliable.
- Working with assessment criteria and bands helps the teacher grade all students against the same levels of achievement. This can help the teacher and the students know more about their real level of ability than if the teacher just ranks the students according to their grades.

See Unit 22 for including assessment in teaching and Units 29, 32 and 33 for correcting learners' work and giving feedback.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 242 for answers)*

1 Here are six assessment tasks. Can you name them and say what they test?
   1 The learners listen to a recording about buying food, and point to the correct picture on the wall when they hear that food item mentioned.
   2 The learners each give a mini-presentation about their house and family.
   3 The learners read a text in which every seventh word has been taken out, and complete the blanks.
   4 The learners take part in a discussion activity in which they discuss their opinions on a topic the teacher has given them.
   5 The learners, as they leave the class, write a number from 1-5 on the board to show how much they think they have learnt in the lesson.
   6 The teacher moves round the class during group work, taking notes on how much individual learners contribute ideas and on pronunciation.
2 Look at all the reading and writing tasks in the table in the Key concepts section, and label them subjective (S) or objective (O).
3 Complete this table, making sentences about your own teaching situation:

	proficiency test progress test portfolio continuous assessment diagnostic test summative test placement test				
I would use a		to …		if …	

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I just use the tests my school gives me, so I don't have to worry whether they're subjective or objective or about the assessment criteria.
2 The tests I use are mainly objective – I think they're fairer and really test what the students have learnt.
3 I much prefer informal assessment to formal assessment and so do my students, so we don't have tests in my classes.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Find examples of the task types mentioned in the table in the Key concepts section. Look in your coursebook or at these websites:
http://www.english-online.org.uk/exam.htm
http://www.cambridgeesol.org/resources/teacher/yle.html
http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?sectionType=listsummary& catid=58065
2 Look at a test from your coursebook or your school.
What does it aim to test?
Does it use objective or subjective tasks? Why?
Does it focus on accuracy or communication?
Does it match what and how you teach?
Is it fair?
3 Carry out some informal assessment with one of your classes by observing them and taking notes on an aspect of their speaking skills or of their behaviour. Do this over several lessons if necessary. Read your notes and write up what you have learnt about your students in your Teacher Portfolio.
4 Read up more on assessment at:
http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/testing-assessment
http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/young-learner-testing
http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/test-question-types
http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/test-writing
5 Do you know the meaning of these terms: 'can-do' statements, oral test? Use the TKT Glossary to check your answers.

TKT practice task 18 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-6**, match the teachers' descriptions of assessment tasks with the assessment task features listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Assessment task features

A subjective
B objective
C formal

Teachers' descriptions

1 I have to give my students a test at the end of the year so the students can get a grade.
2 I asked the students to do a multiple-choice test from their coursebook then mark it themselves with an answer key. They didn't show me their results.
3 The students discussed a topic in groups and I listened to get an impression of their level.
4 The students listened to one another giving presentations then gave feedback on them.
5 I often ask my students to do short gap-fill tasks which there is only one answer to. They keep a record of their scores.
6 The students hand in pieces of work throughout the term for me to mark.

TKT Module 1 | Practice test 1.1

A sample answer sheet is on page 234.

For questions **1-7**, look at the questions about language and the three possible answers listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

---

1 Which sentence does **NOT** contain a collective noun?

  A The manager told his staff they could not leave early.
  B The teacher asked her students to hand in their exercise books.
  C The spectators cheered their team as they scored a second goal.

2 Which sentence does **NOT** contain a determiner?

  A There are several examples in the text.
  B Could you pass me that pen?
  C I'm going on holiday next month.

3 Which sentence does **NOT** contain a conjunction of contrast?

  A She liked skating when her friends went with her.
  B While she was quite hard-working, her sister preferred watching TV all day.
  C She wanted to try snowboarding though her husband warned her not to.

4 Which sentence does **NOT** contain a verb that is used transitively?

  A I really can't explain the reason why I felt that way.
  B He wants to retire as soon as he can.
  C Nobody knows what she's going to do next year.

5 Which sentence does **NOT** contain a possessive pronoun?

  A I'll take yours. It's much better.
  B Give me one quickly, will you?
  C I prefer this house to theirs.

6 Which sentence does **NOT** contain an adverb?

  A He told us we only needed to bring our passports.
  B Fortunately, they found the wallet he'd lost.
  C Nobody knew the book that he was describing.

7 Which sentence does **NOT** contain an adjective?

  A There were so many people in town that you couldn't walk around.
  B The programme was extremely well organised and everyone enjoyed it.
  C There are no more tickets available for that show.

For questions **8-13**, match the modals in the example sentences with their uses listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Uses of modals

> **A** to express obligation
> **B** to give permission
> **C** to give advice

Example sentences

8   The house is so dirty – I really must clean it.

9   You can borrow some money if you really want to.

10   If you want to look smart, you should cut your hair.

11   We have to put the lights out by midnight every night.

12   To save some money, I think he ought to eat at home more often.

13   Staff wishing to smoke may use the garden.

For questions **14-19**, look at the terms about lexis and the three possible examples listed **A, B** and **C**.

Choose the example which matches the term.

Mark the correct letter (**A, B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

---

14 a collocation

   A very nice

   B fresh news

   C quickly spoken

15 a word family

   A childlike, children, childish

   B delightful, wonderful, amazing

   C microwave, frying pan, fridge freezer

16 a chunk

   A Where will they sit?

   B What do you want?

   C Why do you listen to her?

17 a word with a prefix and a suffix

   A cooked

   B disappearing

   C imagination

18 a compound

   A bad idea

   B bookshelf

   C enjoyment

19 a lexical set

   A pair/pear

   B thing/think

   C young/old

For questions **20-27**, look at the underlined words and the three possible phonemic transcriptions listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the correct phonemic transcription.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

---

20 an <u>adjective</u>

  A /ætʃektɪv/

  B /ədjektɪv/

  C /ædʒektɪv/

21 a <u>synonym</u>

  A /sɪnɒnɪŋ/

  B /sɪnənɪm/

  C /sɪnʌnɪm/

22 <u>vocabulary</u>

  A /vəkæbuːleərɪ/

  B /vəkæbʊlərɪ/

  C /vəkæbjuːlərɪ/

23 a <u>preposition</u>

  A /prɪpʌzɪʃn/

  B /prepəzɪʃən/

  C /prəpəzɪʃən/

24 a <u>question</u>

  A /kestən/

  B /kwestʃən/

  C /kjestjɪən/

25 <u>language</u>

  A /læŋgwɪdʒ/

  B /læŋwɪtʃ/

  C /læŋgwɪdʒ/

26 <u>paraphrasing</u>

  A /pɑːrɑːfrezɪŋ/

  B /pærəfreɪzɪŋ/

  C /pærɜːfreɪsɪŋ/

27 <u>connected</u> speech

  A /kənektɪd/

  B /kɒnektəd/

  C /kɑːnektd/

For questions **28-33**, look at the dialogue between two friends. Read the sentences from the dialogue and the three possible functions listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the correct answer.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

Dialogue

Jim:	When did you get back?
Tom:	Late last night. **(28)** The traffic was the worst I've ever seen <u>it</u> on the motorway.
Jim:	It's always terrible. **(29)** <u>But did you have a good time</u>?
Tom:	Not so bad; **(30)** <u>it was incredibly expensive though</u> – I haven't got any money left.
Jim:	**(31)** <u>I thought the same when I was there</u>. I just couldn't afford to go out. **(32)** <u>But it is beautiful</u>. I loved it really.
Tom:	**(33)** Yeh, <u>it was just as beautiful as you'd said</u>. Fantastic, in fact.

28 The traffic was the worst I've ever seen it.

   A narrating

   B describing

   C expressing inability

29 But did you have a good time?

   A drawing a conclusion

   B suggesting an idea

   C changing topic

30 it was incredibly expensive though.

   A describing feelings

   B blaming

   C complaining

31 I thought the same when I was there.

   A reporting an event

   B agreeing

   C explaining

32 But it is beautiful.

    A disagreeing

    B contrasting

    C encouraging

33 it was just as beautiful as you'd said.

    A comparing

    B reporting

    C clarifying

For questions **34-40**, look at the questions about writing and the three possible answers listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the correct answer.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

34 Which statement is **NOT** about process writing?

    A I always try to put lots of creative ideas into my writing.

    B I always do a first draft then read and edit again later.

    C When I check my writing, I always find I've made lots of small mistakes.

35 Which statement is **NOT** about cohesion?

    A The paragraph was full of words from the same lexical set.

    B The paragraph used simple but clear conjunctions.

    C The paragraph only contained three short sentences.

36 Which statement is **NOT** about layout?

    A Arranging your letter so that the addresses, etc. are in the right place makes it easier to understand.

    B I always put full stops at the end of sentences but I'm never very sure where to put commas.

    C Recently I've started dividing my writing into short clearly marked paragraphs.

37 Which statement is **NOT** about product writing?

    A I like to follow a model when I write – it really helps me.

    B It's useful to see how previous writers have structured their texts, and then copy them. _i.k product – when we work with models. teaching how too write._

    C My friends sometimes give me feedback on what I write – that really helps me improve it.

38 Which statement is **NOT** about coherence?

   A Each paragraph had a clear topic sentence so you could easily see what it was about.

   B All complaint letters seem to follow the same pattern – which makes them easier to write and understand.

   C I always try to explore new ideas in my writing so I can learn about new things.

39 Which statement is **NOT** about authenticity?

   A At school, we had a rough book for writing first drafts and a 'good' book for our final drafts.

   B At school, we always had to do things like write letters to our local newspaper or send emails to penfriends.

   C At school, the teacher encouraged us to use language that was natural and in the right style.

40 Which statement is **NOT** about language accuracy?

   A It doesn't matter if you make punctuation mistakes in emails – nobody minds.

   B The contract contained mistakes about my job duties.

   C I always try to find time to proofread my work.

For questions **41-45**, match the learners' comments with the terms about language learning that they refer to listed **A-F**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-F**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Language learning terms

A acquisition
B fossilisation
C silent period
D autonomy
E interference
F cognitive skills

Learners' comments

41 My teacher always tells us about grammar rules. They're much too abstract for me to understand and they don't help me.

42 When I try and speak English outside class I keep using words from my own language. I don't know why.

43 What I really like is when the teacher doesn't teach us but gives us the addresses of websites, so we can follow our own preferences.

44 I've been learning for about 20 years and I'm totally fluent but I know I still get some basic grammar wrong.

45 When I go to a foreign country I like to just listen – it gives me time to build up my confidence and get used to the sound of the language.

For questions **46-50**, look at the learning strategies and the three learner activities listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the activities are examples of the learning strategy. One activity is **NOT**.

Mark the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which is **NOT** an example of the learning strategy on your answer sheet.

46 using language awareness

A The learner worked out the meaning of the word from his knowledge of what the suffix -*less* meant.

B The learner repeated the past tense of the verbs after the teacher had modelled it.

C The learner added -*ed* to the new verb because he thought that was how you made the past tense.

47 remembering

A The learner copied the new words into her notebook when the teacher told her to.

B Every day, she named all the objects she could see as she walked along the street.

C After each lesson, he stuck on his bedroom wall cards with the chunks of language they had learnt in class.

48 experimenting

A When they're on holiday in foreign countries, they just guess what the signs and menus must mean. They're often right.

B When he couldn't find the right word, he used to paraphrase. He sounded very fluent.

C When she didn't understand a word, she always used a dictionary. It really helped her.

49 noticing

A Every time he read an article, he underlined all the new words.

B She always listened to hear differences in the way people pronounced words.

C He always loved just to hear the foreign language so he used the radio and the TV a lot.

119

50 cooperation

    A She always phoned her classmate to discuss ideas for what to put in her essays.

    B The classmates all went to England together in the holidays.

    C In the group work, they managed between them to write a complete letter in English – they were very proud!

For questions **51-55**, match the teacher's statements about some of her learners with the types of learning needs listed **A-F**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-F**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Types of learning needs

> **A** security
>
> **B** learning style
>
> **C** personal interests
>
> **D** specific language or skills
>
> **E** previous learning experience
>
> **F** motivation

Teacher's statements

51 He doesn't seem to know why he's learning so he just doesn't care how he gets on.

52 He's really good at grammar and vocabulary but weak at speaking and listening. He needs these for his new job.

53 Most of the course is given through lectures but he learns much better by reading and doing.

54 The course is all about learning grammar but he's not used to that so he's a bit lost.

55 He seems to need lots of attention and confidence building.

For questions 56-61, match the learners' comments about their lessons with the approaches listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some options more than once.

Approaches

> **A** Task-based Learning
> **B** Structural Approach
> **C** Lexical Approach

Learners' comments

56 In every lesson we learnt something new, then drilled it and did exercises. We never used the language freely.

57 Yesterday, the teacher asked us to underline all the chunks of language we could find in a text, then see if we could hear them in a recording of a conversation. It was difficult.

58 In groups we had to design a programme for a school trip to New York. Then afterwards we discussed what vocabulary we had needed to do this.

59 Sometimes in class we do an activity, then the teacher corrects our mistakes, then we do the activity again – I find this really useful.

60 I like the way each bit of grammar we learn builds on the last bit. It makes learning quite easy.

61 The teacher always asks us to work with what she calls 'authentic materials' like magazines, newspapers and articles from the internet. We use them to find collocations and idioms.

For questions **62-67**, match the steps from different lessons with the presentation or introductory techniques listed **A-G**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-G**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Presentation or introductory techniques

A lead-in
B providing a context
C warmer
D guided discovery
E concept checking
F using an input text
G elicitation

Steps from lessons

62 The learners look at seven example sentences and work out the form and meaning of the structure.

63 The learners tell the teacher their experiences of using English to speak with tourists before designing a poster on the same topic in the rest of the lesson.

64 The teacher shows the learners a series of photos of people and at the same time says some adjectives that describe their appearance.

65 The teacher asks the learners if the structure expresses permission, ability or advice.

66 The teacher prompts the learners to use the target structure by asking them to tell her about their holiday plans.

67 The teacher asks all the learners to stand up and shake all their classmates' hands. She then asks them for their homework.

For questions **68-74**, look at the extracts from the practice activities and the three possible terms listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the term which matches the activity.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

68

> **Complete the sentences with one of the words.**
>
> They went to school .... bus.
>
> **A** with
>
> **B** on
>
> **C** by

A substitution drill

B multiple-choice

C extension task

69

> What words about food do these letters make?
>
> **RDABE   KLIM   AATSP   CEIR   TRWAE**

A brainstorming

B jumbled letters

C prioritising

70

> Complete the gaps in the text.
>
> John was watching television at home one .... when suddenly he heard a huge noise .... from the kitchen. He immediately got up .... ran to see what had happened. All .... the kitchen floor he saw huge pieces .... concrete and dust. He looked up quickly .... realised to his horror that part of .... ceiling had fallen in.

A cloze

B gap-fill

C sentence completion

71

> Find the answers to the first three questions in your article. Your partner has a different article. Ask your partner for the answers to the other questions.

A open comprehension questions

B jigsaw reading

C dictation

72 | **Look at the words and put them into the right boxes.**

    A categorisation
    B jumbled words
    C labelling

73 | Look at the list of items that would be useful on a camping holiday. Choose the six most useful ones. Put a number 1-6 against each item to show which are most useful, then discuss your answer.

    A visualisation
    B role-play
    C rank ordering

74 | Write down all the reasons you can think of that support this suggestion. Then put them into a logical order and use this plan to write your essay. After you have written it, make sure you edit and proofread it.

    A guided writing
    B process writing
    C creative writing

For questions **75-80**, look at the terms about assessment and the three activities listed **A, B** and **C**.

Two of the activities are examples of the term. One activity is **NOT**.

Mark the letter (**A, B** or **C**) which is **NOT** an example of the term on your answer sheet.

---

75 formative assessment

   A The teacher asks learners to complete sentences with the correct form of the word in brackets.

   B The teacher uses her observations of group work to divide the class into three new groups according to their ability.

   C The teacher gives different tasks to different learners based on their responses to a test.

76 summative assessment

   A At the end of the course the teacher gives each learner advice on how to continue their studies.

   B At the end of the course the learners take a test on the content of the term's work.

   C At the end of the term the teacher gives the learners a grade for presentations of their project work.

77 portfolio

   A The learners carry out a project over several weeks then give their survey results, videos, and a commentary to the teacher to grade.

   B The learners do a piece of homework each week, and give it in to the teacher to grade.

   C The learners put into a folder examples of their work throughout the term for the teacher to grade.

78 diagnostic test

   A The teacher interviews each new learner and takes notes on the strengths and weaknesses in their grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

   B The teacher uses the results from a test to decide which coursebook is best for her new class.

   C The teacher asks the class to discuss in groups what their problems are with learning English.

79 continuous assessment

A At the end of every third week, the learners fill in a questionnaire for the teacher on how good they think their English is.

B The teacher checks each week that the learners always proofread their writing before handing it in.

C The learners bring in a favourite toy each week and tell the others about it. The teacher listens and completes a checklist.

80 proficiency test

A The hotel always interviews all new job applicants to see how good their hotel English is.

B The university asked all the students applying to enter, to give a presentation to see how good their academic English was.

C The teacher interviewed all her students on a topic they had covered during the term.

Module 2 | Lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching

Part 1 | Planning and preparing a lesson or sequence of lessons

Unit 19   Identifying and selecting aims

■ **How do we identify and select aims?**

Aims describe what we want learners to learn or be able to do (or do better) at the end of a lesson, a **sequence** (i.e. a series) of lessons or a whole course. Aims may focus, for example, on a **grammatical structure** or a **function**, on the vocabulary of a particular topic, or on developing a language **skill**. Aims, especially for younger learners, may not always focus on particular areas of language. For example, the aim of a lesson could be listening to a story for pleasure or **encouraging** a positive attitude towards the foreign language. To **identify** and select the most **appropriate** aims, we need to ask ourselves these key questions:

　　What do my learners already know? (*or* What can they already do?)
　　What do they need to know? (*or* What do they need to do?)

■ **Key concepts**

In order to identify and select the most appropriate aims for a particular group of learners, we need to consider what will help them to take the next step in their learning. This may be new language, further practice of language they already know, **skills** development or practice, or revision of language they have met in the past but are not using **confidently** or accurately.

*Look at the table. Can you work out what the difference is between **main aims**, **subsidiary aims** and **personal aims**?*

Main aim	Subsidiary aims	Personal aims
To practise making polite requests in the **context** of making holiday arrangements. Example **exponent**: *Could you give me some information about hotels?*	Grammar: to revise modal auxiliary verbs. **Functional exponents**: *Could/Would you ...?* Vocabulary: to **consolidate lexis** for travel, accommodation. **Phonology**: to focus on **intonation**. Speaking: to give **controlled** oral **practice**.	To improve my organisation of the whiteboard. To give clearer examples.

A **main aim**, like the one above, describes the most important thing we want the learners to **achieve** in a lesson or sequence of lessons. For example, we may want learners to understand and practise using new language; to **reinforce** or consolidate (i.e. to make stronger) the use of language they already know by giving them further practice; or to revise language they have recently learnt. If the main aim is to teach new language, the lesson plan should also include an example of the **target language** we are planning to teach.

As well as a main aim, a lesson may also have subsidiary aims. **Subsidiary aims** show the language or skills learners must be able to use well in order to achieve the main aim of the lesson. In the example on page 127, the main aim is to practise making polite requests; the subsidiary aims describe the language and skill that learners will need to make these requests. Subsidiary aims usually contain language that is already known to the learners. Stating both main and subsidiary aims is a good way of making sure that our lesson plan focuses on what we want our learners to learn, or to be able to do. It enables us to see how the lesson should develop, from one **stage** (or part) to the next, building up our learners' knowledge or skills in the best possible order.

In addition to the main and subsidiary aims, a lesson plan will also include a number of **stage aims**, describing the particular purpose of each stage (or short section) of the lesson. Look at the examples of stage aims in this extract from a lesson plan.

Procedure	Stage aims
Show students pictures of various holiday destinations. Ask them to talk about their last holiday.	To **contextualise** the topic of holidays.
Tell two short stories about holidays (one true, one untrue). Invite students to ask questions and then to guess which story is true.	To give students a **model** for the speaking activity.
Allow time for students to plan their own story, which may be true or not.	To give students time to plan their speaking.
In groups students tell their stories. The rest of the group ask questions and guess if the story is true or not.	To give students fluency practice. To provide opportunities to practise the sequence of tenses in a spoken narrative.

By identifying a separate aim for each stage of the lesson we can be sure that there is a clear purpose for each activity that we plan, which contributes to the main aim of the whole lesson. Individual stage aims also help us to check that the activities in the lesson are **relevant** to our main aim and that they are arranged in the best possible sequence. Looking through a sequence of stage aims is a very good way to understand the learning progression of a lesson.

Identifying and selecting main and subsidiary aims are the first steps in planning a lesson. Once we have decided on these aims, we can design or select the most appropriate stage aims and activities, put them in the best order and choose the most suitable teaching **aids** and materials. After the lesson, we can look back at this part of the plan to see whether we have achieved our aims, i.e. whether we have succeeded in teaching what we planned to teach. This also helps us to select the most appropriate aims for future lessons.

In addition to learning aims, we may also want to think about our personal aims as teachers. **Personal aims** show what we would like to improve or focus on in our teaching. Like those given in the first table above, these might be about improving the way we handle materials and teaching **aids** (things we can use to support our teaching in the classroom) or particular teaching techniques, or they might be about our relationship with the learners. Here are some more examples:

to make more use of the **phonemic chart** (a poster with phonemic symbols)

to get learners to work with different partners

to get quieter learners to answer questions.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- The **syllabus** (i.e. the course programme) and/or the **coursebook** will give us a general direction for planning our teaching. To **specify** main aims for a particular lesson (i.e. to say exactly what the aims are), we think about our learners' **needs** and the stage they have reached in their learning.

- Aims are not the same as procedures. Aims describe what the learners will learn or what they will be able to do with the language, while **procedures** – for example, listening to a recording and answering questions – are what the teacher and learners do at each stage of the lesson.

- Our main aims should not be too general. Aims such as 'to teach the past simple' or 'to develop learners' reading skills' do not say enough about the purpose of the lesson. More **specific** (or exact) aims might be 'to introduce and practise the past simple for talking about personal experiences' or 'to give learners practice in **predicting** content, **scanning** for specific information and **deducing meaning from context**'.

- Another way of looking at main aims is to think about the lesson from the learners' point of view. Instead of using infinitives to describe what the teacher plans to do (e.g. 'to introduce …', 'to practise …'), many teachers prefer to describe the learners' **objectives**, or learning **outcomes** (e.g. 'By the end of the lesson, learners will be able to use polite requests to ask for information').

- Once we have identified the most appropriate main aim for a particular lesson, it should be easier to make decisions about everything else, e.g. the selection of materials and activities, the organisation of the classroom, procedure, **timing** of different stages, the stage aims.

- Learners of all ages find it helpful to know why they are doing things. It is often a good idea to announce our main aims (or to write them up on the board) at the beginning of the lesson, and/or to repeat them at the end.

- Sometimes there may be good reasons for not announcing a lesson's main aims immediately. For example, you may want the learners to discover something about the language during the lesson, or to identify a need for new language, without knowing the aim of the lesson in advance. In a lesson like this, it will be important to announce or **elicit** the aim at the end of the lesson, so that you can be sure the learners know what they have done, and why.

- For younger learners the aims of a lesson can be described in very simple language, focusing on the things they will do in the lesson and the language knowledge they will take away from it: for example, 'Today we're going to read a story and learn how to describe people in English'.

*See Unit 20 for identifying the different **components** of a lesson plan, Unit 21 for planning an individual lesson or a sequence of lessons, and Units 24-26 for the selection and use of materials, activities and aids.*

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 242 for answers)*

The procedures in the table show a sequence of activities for a lesson with the main aim of developing students' confidence and skills in reading authentic texts. The stage aims for the lesson (A-H) are in the wrong order. Put them in the right order so they match the procedures.

Procedure	Stage aims
1 Students move around the classroom to find partners with newspaper headlines about the same story.	A • to practise deducing meaning from context
2 In pairs, they exchange ideas about what they find difficult in reading authentic texts.	B • to check students' understanding of what they have read and activate language
3 They say what they think their story will be about from the headlines and make notes of the main points they expect to read.	C • to read for gist • to check predictions
4 Pairs read the two newspaper stories and compare them with their notes.	D • to use limited information to predict possible content
5 They list the similarities and differences between the two newspaper stories.	E • to get students actively involved • to put students into pairs
6 They try to work out the meanings of new words, using the language that they know in the text.	F • to read for more detailed information
7 They prepare and give a short presentation on their articles to the rest of the class.	G • to review the whole lesson • to give the teacher feedback
8 Teacher asks students to summarise what they have done.	H • to raise awareness of what the lesson aim will be • to encourage personal involvement

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I don't have to think about aims – they're all there in the teacher's book.
2 I like to discover my aims during the lesson – by listening to my students and finding out what they know, and what they need to learn. Often my aims aren't clear until after the lesson!
3 Students want to learn new words and get the grammar right – they don't need to know my aims.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Think about the last lesson you taught from your coursebook. Was the aim of the lesson the one given in the book, or did you have your own aim? Make notes in your Teacher Portfolio on why the aims given in your coursebook were / were not appropriate for your learners.
2 In your Teacher Portfolio, list your main aims, subsidiary aims, stage aims and personal aims for the last lesson you taught and the next one you are planning for the same class. Can they be improved in any way?
3 For useful ideas about selecting and describing aims, look at:
Section 10.2.2 'Establishing goals and objectives' of *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom* by Tricia Hedge, Oxford University Press 2000
Chapter 6, Section 5 'Lesson Aims' of *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005
The first section 'Planning' of *Action Plan for Teachers – A Guide to Teaching English* by Callum Robertson with Richard Acklam, downloadable free from:
http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/try/resources/books/action-plan-teachers

TKT practice task 19 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the teacher's instructions with the stage aims from different lessons listed **A-H**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Stage aims

A to develop learners' awareness of intonation patterns

B to give learners less controlled oral practice

C to encourage learners to recycle known vocabulary items

D to provide an opportunity for peer assessment

E to develop learners' skill in listening for detail

F to give learners practice in listening for gist

G to provide an opportunity for self-correction

H to check learners' reading comprehension

Teacher's instructions

1 What words can you think of which are connected with the weather? With your partner make a list of as many as you can.

2 Look at the first line of the dialogue in your books. Will the man's voice go up or down?

3 You're going to hear three conversations and then tell me what the people are talking about.

4 Now I'm going to play the conversation again. Put the pictures into the correct order.

5 Practise the dialogue with your partner, using the prompts on the board.

6 Get together with another pair and listen to their dialogue. Make a note of any features of connected speech they could improve.

7 Practise your dialogue again and make any changes you think will improve it.

Unit 20 Identifying the different components of a lesson plan

■ How do we identify the different components of a lesson plan?

Do you think a lesson plan is most like …

an instruction leaflet   a photograph   a story   a road map
a computer programme   a series of road signs   a written **summary**   something else?

A lesson plan is a set of notes that helps us to think through what we are going to teach and how we are going to teach it. It also **guides** us during and after the lesson. We can **identify** the most important **components** (or parts) of a lesson plan by thinking carefully about our learners, *what* we want our learners to do and *how* we want them to do it. So a lesson plan is probably most like a road map or a series of road signs, i.e. something that shows us where we are going and how we are going to get there – although we may sometimes find that during the journey we have to take a different route!

■ Key concepts

The main **components of a lesson plan** show us what the lesson is for (the **aims**), what the teacher and the learners will do during the lesson and how they will do it (the **procedures**). Other components of the plan, for example, the **timing** of different stages or the profile of the group, help us to think about possible problems and remind us of things we need to remember about the learners.

Here are some ways a lesson plan helps the teacher.

Before the lesson	Writing down the aims and the procedures for each **stage** of the lesson helps us to make sure that we have planned the clearest and most **logical sequence** to enable us to **achieve** those aims.
During the lesson	The plan can also help us to check timing (the amount of time we plan for each stage) and to check that the lesson is following the sequence we decided on and remind us what to do next.
After the lesson	We can keep the plan as a record of what happened, making any changes necessary to show how the lesson was different from the plan. We can then use the plan and notes to help plan the next lesson.

When we plan a lesson, we ask ourselves a number of questions.

Look at the lesson plan components and the questions below. Which components do you think should always appear? Which ones may only appear sometimes?

Lesson plan components	
Class profile	Who are we planning the lesson for?
Timetable fit	How is the lesson connected to the last lesson and/or the next one?
Main aim(s)	What do we want learners to learn or to be able to do by the end of the lesson?
Subsidiary aims	What else do learners need to be able to do during the lesson to enable them to achieve the main aim?
Stage aims	What is the purpose of each stage of the lesson?
Personal aims	What aspects of our own teaching do we want to develop or improve?
Assumptions	What do we think learners already know or can already do related to the aims?
Anticipated problems	What may learners find difficult in the lesson? What may they not be used to doing? What may they not feel **confident** about?
Possible **solutions**	What action will we take to deal with the anticipated problems?
Teaching **aids**, materials, equipment	What should we remember to take to the lesson?
Procedures	What are the **tasks** and activities for each stage?
Timing	What length of time will we need for each stage?
Interaction patterns	In which ways will learners work at different stages, i.e. individually, in pairs, in groups, as a whole class?
Homework	What further work will learners need to do before the next lesson?

Some lesson plans may not include all of these components. But when we're planning lessons, it's always important to ask ourselves these questions. So all the components together give us a good way of checking that we have thought about our learners and about the lesson, and anticipated any difficulties that might arise. For example, we might plan a **mingle** as a way of practising **specific** question forms, anticipate that students may find a quick way of completing the task without practising the **target language**, and work out some extra instructions to remind them what they have to do.

Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Look carefully at this lesson plan, which aims to introduce and practise language for describing people. Then read the points below.

Lesson plan components	
Level and number of learners / class profile	24 students at Intermediate (B2) level
Timetable fit	Students have already worked on simple descriptions of people
Main aim(s)	To extend range of vocabulary for describing people **Oral fluency** practice
Subsidiary aims	Students use appropriate language for basic physical descriptions
Assumptions	Students can use present simple & past simple to describe habits and past events
Anticipated problem	Students may be unwilling to repeat the same task in the last stage of the lesson
Possible solution	If necessary, suggest that students report description from their original partner rather than repeating their own

Timing	Procedure	Stage aims	Aids and materials	Interaction pattern
5 minutes	Students talk about their families	**Warmer/lead-in**: to get students talking and introduce the **topic**	Family photographs brought in by students	Pairwork
10 minutes	Students select **appropriate** adjectives to complete descriptions of family members in **transcripts** of mini-**dialogues**	To introduce new vocabulary	Short gapped transcripts Recorded dialogues CD player	Individual work → pairwork
	They listen to the mini-dialogues and check answers	**Intensive listening**		Teacher → whole class
10 minutes	Students exchange information about their own family members	To give students fluency practice: describing personalities, habitual behaviour and specific past events	(none)	Pairwork (Teacher **monitors**)
10 minutes	Teacher gives **feedback** on language used	To **highlight** need for new language	Teacher's notes Whiteboard	Teacher → whole class
		To introduce new language		
	Students do gap-fill task	To focus on **accuracy**	**Worksheet**	Individual work
10 minutes	Students repeat family description task	To provide an opportunity for students to improve their spoken performance	(none)	Pairwork (new partners)
		To give students further fluency practice		

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- When we make a lesson plan, we need to be sure about the learning **rationale** (or reasons) for the plan, to ask ourselves how the procedures will help to achieve our main aims and to make sure there are strong connections between the different stages.
- We also need to build in **variety**, i.e. how we can use different activity types, language **skills** and interaction patterns. Learners of all ages need variety, but this is especially important for younger learners, who need frequent changes of activity.
- A lesson plan can include stages which we can leave out if necessary. We can also include some different possibilities in a lesson plan, e.g. activities for **differentiation** or an extra activity to use if learners take less time than expected to complete a task, or if we are not sure how well parts of the plan will work.
- It's a good idea to keep lesson plans as simple as possible, so notes are better than full sentences, and there's no need to describe every step in great detail. However, we may want to write down some important things in a complete form – for example, **prompts** for **drilling**, questions to check learners' understanding, instructions, etc.
- A lesson plan should be clear and easy to read during the lesson. Different colours, boxes, underlining, etc. are useful. It is often helpful to include drawings of the way the board will look at different stages.
- A lesson plan can be divided into two parts. These are called background and procedure, and you can see this division in the lesson plan above. The components in the background come from thinking carefully about who our students are, what they need and what our aims are. The answers to these questions provide a **context** that helps us to write the procedure part of the plan.

See Unit 19 for identifying and selecting aims, and Unit 21 for planning an individual lesson or a sequence of lessons.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 242 for answers)*

Some parts of this extract from a lesson plan are missing. Put the notes A-E in the correct places in the plan.

Lesson plan components	
Timetable fit	1
Main aim(s)	2
Subsidiary aim(s)	3 To listen to authentic spoken English.
Personal aim(s)	4
Assumptions	5 Students will find the topic motivating.
Anticipated language problems	6 Students may make lots of mistakes.
Possible solution	7
Procedures	8

A To practise giving an informal spoken summary.
B Students listen twice to the story, then in their groups prepare a spoken summary. Groups present their summaries and receive feedback from the rest of the class.
C Be realistic about timing.
D Correct only serious errors; ignore mistakes that don't cause misunderstanding.
E To consolidate work on reported speech.

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I know my classes, so I don't have to list all the components in every lesson plan.
2 I always try to think about timetable fit – what we did in the last lesson and what we're going to do in the next one.
3 It's important to think about things that might go wrong, so I always write something about anticipated problems.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at Chapter 8 ('Why did I do it like this?') of *Children Learning English* by Jayne Moon, Macmillan 2000, for some useful examples of lesson plans in different styles and formats.
2 Exchange ideas with colleagues on how to write a lesson plan. Try out different approaches to planning and make notes on what works best for you in your Teacher Portfolio.
3 For ideas on lesson planning, look at Chapter 12 ('How to plan lessons') from *How to Teach English* (Second edition) by Jeremy Harmer, Longman 2007, and two short articles on planning by Callum Robertson, BBC English at: http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/planning-1 and /planning-2
4 For more detailed advice on planning and further examples of how to write a plan, look at Chapter 22, Sections A, B1-3 and C of *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (Fourth edition) by Jeremy Harmer, Pearson Education Ltd 2007, and Chapter 8 of *Teaching Practice Handbook* (Second edition) by Roger Gower, Diane Phillips and Steve Walters, Macmillan 1995.
5 For lesson plans on a wide variety of topics that you can download free, visit: http://www.onestopenglish.com/
The British Council in Romania offer an 'ELT lesson plan of the week' with links to all the materials you need for each lesson at: http://www.britishcouncil.org/romania-education-materials-for-teachers-elt-lesson-plan.htm

TKT practice task 20 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the lesson plan components and the three extracts from lesson plans listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the extracts are examples of the component. One sentence is **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) of the sentence which is **NOT** an example of the component.

1 Personal aim

   A to improve the timing of the lesson
   B to include all the learners in feedback
   C to check understanding of new lexical items

2 Assumptions

   A Learners may come from China, Spain and Thailand.
   B The text will be a useful challenge for this group.
   C Learners are familiar with the topic.

3 Procedure

   A Learners mingle to do a survey.
   B The teacher prepares a PowerPoint® presentation.
   C The teacher checks the answers.

4 Class profile

   A The learners are at pre-intermediate level.
   B Most of the learners have a visual learning style.
   C The learners are all reliable.

5 Anticipated problems

   A Learners may find the text too long.
   B The accents could be difficult to understand.
   C Learners can deduce meaning from context.

6 Interaction patterns

   A pairwork
   B self-access
   C teacher / whole class

7 Timetable fit

   A to prepare for project work
   B to consolidate revision of tenses
   C to introduce new language

Unit 21 Planning an individual lesson or a sequence of lessons

■ How do we plan an individual lesson or a sequence of lessons?

When we plan an individual lesson, we think about its **aims**, how to **achieve** them, the 'shape' of the lesson and the kind of **techniques** that are most **appropriate** for a particular group of learners. For example, if we are introducing a new **grammatical structure**, we might choose a **Presentation, Practice and Production** (**PPP**) approach or a **Task-based Learning** (**TBL**) approach. **Skills** lessons, too, have regular shapes that we can use to organise lesson plans: for example, for **receptive** skills, we usually plan **tasks** or activities for learners to do before, while and after reading or listening; for **productive** skills, there is usually an introductory **stage** to **set the scene** (i.e. to explain the **context**), and maybe **input** new language, and a **feedback** stage after the speaking or writing activity.

We also think about the connections between the aims of the lesson and the **procedures** we use to achieve those aims, as well as answers to the other background **components** mentioned in Unit 20. The available materials, the length of the lesson and the information we have about our learners all help us to **identify** possible procedures. But the most important thing is to make sure that the materials, tasks and activities we select are the ones that will help a particular group of learners to achieve the aim we have identified.

A **sequence** of lessons is a number of related lessons that develop language knowledge and/or language skills over a period of time. Sequences may develop a single topic or language area, or may involve topics or language areas that are very closely connected. Here are three examples:

Structural sequence	Integrated skills sequence	Project work sequence
1 revision: past simple 2 revision: present perfect 3 contrast: past simple vs. present perfect	1 vocabulary development: describing places (**function**: describing) 2 reading: choosing a holiday 3 writing: letter to a friend **narrating** holiday experiences (function: narrating)	1 reading and listening about free-time activities 2 class **survey** and research: sport and entertainment 3 preparation of a poster display to show results of survey about free-time activities

■ Key concepts

Planning an individual lesson

When we plan an individual lesson, we ask ourselves a number of questions:
- What is my overall aim?
- Will the topic be interesting and **motivating** for my learners?

- What are the learning **outcomes**? (i.e. What do I want the students to have learned by the end of the lesson?)
- Are the activities and teaching materials at the right level for all the learners?
- Have I planned enough for the time available? Do I need any extra material?
- Have I planned too little or too much for the time available?
- Does each **step** (or stage) in the lesson help to achieve the aim? Are there any stages I can cut if necessary?
- Do the steps/stages develop **logically** out of one another / make learning easier?
- Have I thought about exactly how to start and end the lesson?
- Are there any aspects of the lesson which I should state as **personal aims**?

The answers to these questions will help to ensure that our lesson plan is motivating, **coherent** and at the appropriate level. The questions will also help us to think about important components of the plan, such as materials, stages, **timing**, and how to start and finish the lesson.

Here are two sets of notes from the procedure sections of lesson plans, one for a lesson introducing and practising new language, and the other for a skills-based lesson. What differences can you see in the overall shape of the two types of lesson?

Lesson 1 (Introducing new language)	Lesson 2 (Developing reading skills)
1 **Warmer/Lead-in**: students describe contrasting pictures of two cities.	1 Warmer/lead-in: teacher asks students about topic (healthy eating)
2 Reading task: students read article comparing the cities in the pictures.	2 **Pre-teach vocabulary**: pairs complete worksheet
3 **Focus on form** 1: students **notice** forms used in text for comparison.	3 **Gist** reading task (text: letter requesting advice): identify addressee (magazine advice column)
4 Focus on form 2: students deduce rules for formation of comparative adjectives.	4 Detailed reading task 1 (text organisation): students match **jumbled paragraph** summaries to the text
5 **Controlled practice**: students apply rules to complete **worksheet** exercise.	5 Detailed reading task 2 (sentence-level **comprehension**): **true/false** task
6 Speaking task: in pairs, students make further comparisons based on pictures of different places.	6 **Extension** (speaking): discussion/**brainstorm** ideas to respond to letter
7 Homework (writing): students produce a similar text comparing second pair of pictures.	7 Homework (writing): reply to letter

Although language lessons vary in the sequence of stages (perhaps, as in PPP lessons, focusing first on language, or, as in TBL lessons, starting with language in use), they always include some attention to formal **features** of language, with tasks that give learners more or less controlled practice of particular structures.

Skills-based lessons, however, aim at developing learners' abilities in receptive and/or productive language skills, and rather than focusing on particular language items, they give learners the opportunity to work on **specific subskills,** though **subsidiary aims** and their related procedures may well focus on language.

Planning a sequence of lessons

A **scheme of work** helps us plan a sequence of lessons in the best way to cover the school **syllabus** or the units of a **coursebook** in the time available. It also helps us to think about what we want to achieve and what materials we might need. And it helps us to include enough **variety** across our lessons. Teacher and learners need clear aims beyond the single lesson and need to see how lessons are linked to each other.

Here are some examples of schemes of work:

	Scheme A	*Scheme B*	*Scheme C*
Week 3	• Grammar • Vocabulary	• Grammar revision (past tenses) • Vocabulary (free-time activities) • Practice exercise (from coursebook)	• Class discussion of advantages and disadvantages of living in the city • Revise and extend vocabulary • Focus on comparative and superlative adjectives and adverbs; practice exercise
Week 4	• Listening • Speaking	• Check vocabulary • Reading (emails) • Speaking – fluency activities	• Reading: personal stories: students order sections of text • Focus on text organisation • Writing: students' own stories • Peer correction (where students correct one another)
Week 5	• Reading • Writing	• Quick revision: work from weeks 3 and 4 • Listening (e.g. holiday story) • Grammar focus (reported speech) • Writing (report of story)	• Listening: song – group transcription • Grammar game (snakes and ladders) to revise work on comparatives and superlatives • Pronunciation practice: focus on /ə/
Week 6	• **Test**	• Speaking (role-play) • Feedback	• Review of grammar and topic • Group work: producing sections of tourist brochure for students' town

How detailed should schemes of work be?

Schemes of work are not as detailed as lesson plans. Like any individual lesson, a sequence of lessons should have a **logical** and learning-friendly progression (where one stage leads to another in a clear order) and a good balance of approaches and activities. Like a lesson plan, a scheme of work helps us to identify our aims and make sure we choose materials and procedures that match those aims.

A very detailed scheme of work (like example C above) gives us a clear sense of direction, but it is often difficult to **predict** how learners' **needs** develop, so we may need to change the scheme. A very broad scheme (like example A) without much detail, leaves the teacher much freer to respond to learners' needs, but doesn't give any reminders of aims or materials for individual lessons. The most useful approach is probably one that includes some detail and gives the teacher a sense of direction (like example B), but leaves him/her free to add to it week by week to make it into a series of lesson plans.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Variety is very important both in a single lesson and in a sequence of lessons. It helps keep learners interested and involved. It's much better to avoid always doing the same kinds of things in the same order, e.g. always beginning the lesson with a personal story or always ending with a role-play. There are several different ways of introducing variety into lessons.

Here is a list of things we can vary not only to make our lessons interesting, but also to suit different **learning styles**:

pace	→ quick and fast-moving, or slow and reflective
interaction pattern	→ individual, pairs, groups, whole class
skill	→ productive or receptive
level of difficulty	→ non-demanding, or requiring effort and concentration
content	→ changing from one language point to another; from one subject to another
mood	→ light or serious; happy or sad; tense or relaxed
exciting or calming activities	→ 'stirring' (lively and active) or 'settling' (quietening down)

(adapted from *A Course in Language Teaching* by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press 1996)

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Learners may well require more frequent revision than the coursebook provides. A scheme of work is a good way to make sure that we **recycle** language (i.e. use it again) and include regular revision activities during a sequence of lessons.
- Coursebook units are often arranged around a specific topic (such as sport or relationships), which may be a useful way of linking together a sequence of lessons. This kind of sequence gives us the chance to develop particular areas of vocabulary, but learners may feel that the lessons are repetitive, so we need variety of texts and tasks.
- When planning lessons we may need to think about the needs of individual learners or groups of learners, e.g. those that always finish first, those that can't concentrate for long, etc. A coursebook can't provide material and activities for needs that are specific to our groups of learners. This means we may need to plan parts of the lesson that adapt the coursebook or work with **supplementary materials** or activities.

See Units 5-8 for discussion of skills-based lessons, Unit 19 for identifying and selecting aims, and Unit 20 for identifying the different components of a lesson plan.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES *(See page 242 for answers)*

The lesson plan below aims to introduce and practise language for describing people. Put the stages of the lesson (A-G) into the correct order (1-7). One stage has been done for you.

☐ A Present new vocabulary and check pronunciation: lexical sets for describing people (flashcards and board drawings)

☐ B Video (TV police drama): consolidate listening and speaking activities and provide models for freer oral work

☐ C Speaking: role-play in pairs: police interviews → whole-class correction

3 D Comprehension: matching pictures to spoken descriptions

☐ E Controlled practice: describe-and-draw activity (pairwork)

☐ F Writing: descriptions of people and places (freer practice of functional language)

☐ G Listening: listening to descriptions of people to contextualise and check new language

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I just have to finish the coursebook by the end of the school year, so that's my scheme of work.

2 Planning a sequence of lessons helps me to see how I'm covering the syllabus, and it helps my learners, too.

3 I don't want to decide now what I'll be doing with my class in three weeks' time, or even next week. I prefer to wait and see what they need.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at the next few lessons in your coursebook. What links can you find from one unit to the next? What opportunities does the book give you to recycle language (i.e. to use the same language again in a different context) and revise? If there are no links, or very few, what materials could you bring to the class to improve the connections between lessons?

2 For some very practical ideas on planning, look at Chapter 7 of *Planning Lessons and Courses* by Tessa Woodward, Cambridge University Press 2001, and *Planning Classwork: A Task-based Approach* by Sheila Estaire and Javier Zanón, Macmillan 1994.

3 Project work is a good way of planning a motivating sequence of lessons with plenty of variety. For ideas on planning project work and some good examples, look at these websites:

http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/try/uk-publishers/oup/introduction-project-work

http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/project-work-teenagers

4 Find an example of a lesson plan (yours, a colleague's, on the web) and analyse why the steps are in the order they are in, what the stage aims are and why the interaction patterns have been selected. Write up your answers in your Teacher Portfolio.

> 5 Use the *TKT Glossary* to find the meanings of these terms: *encouragement, reinforce, specification.*

TKT practice task 21 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-6**, read the two steps from each lesson plan and choose the next step from the options listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

---

1 The learners listen to a dialogue between two friends.
   They listen again and answer true/false questions.

   A The learners check their answers in pairs.
   B The learners have a whole-class discussion about friendship.
   C The teacher checks understanding of instructions.

2 The teacher introduces the context of a desert island.
   The teacher puts learners in pairs and gives them a list of items useful for survival on the island.

   A The learners write a story about life on the island.
   B The learners put the items into rank order.
   C *The learners draw a picture of the island.*

3 The teacher mimes a story.
   The learners retell the story in pairs.

   A The teacher checks gist understanding using a true/false task.
   B The learners do a jigsaw reading activity on the story.
   C The teacher writes the story on the board as the learners dictate it to her.

4 The learners listen to the teacher telling a story about friendship.
   In groups, the learners work together to tell the story again.

   A The teacher checks understanding of target language.
   B The learners write the story.
   C The learners practise asking for information.

5 The teacher models the target language.
   The learners repeat the model.

   A The teacher introduces new vocabulary.
   B The teacher announces the lesson aims.
   C The teacher asks for individual repetition.

6 The learners listen to a description of three people and draw them.
   The teacher elicits the vocabulary she used in the description and writes it on the board.

   A The learners label their pictures.
   B The learners draw a picture of themselves and label it.
   C The learners copy the pictures into their notebook.

Unit 22 Choosing assessment activities

■ How do we choose assessment activities?

Assessment means collecting information about learners' performance, progress or attitudes in order to make judgements about their learning. We may choose to **assess** formally (through **tests** and examinations) or informally. We can carry out **informal assessment** during a lesson by **monitoring** (i.e. listening carefully) and observing learners while they are doing ordinary classroom activities. To get other information about the progress of individual learners, we can carry out **formal assessment** (e.g. a class test).

When planning assessment, we need to think first about our reasons for assessing learners. Then we can decide when and how often to assess them, and choose what methods of assessment we are going to use.

■ Key concepts

In Unit 18 we looked at informal and formal assessment. We can **summarise** the differences between these two kinds of assessment under the headings of assessment **tasks**, purpose and marking:

	Formal assessment	Informal assessment
Assessment tasks	• tests • examinations	• normal classroom teaching and learning activities • homework tasks
Purpose	• to assess overall language ability (**proficiency test**) • to assess learning at the end of a course (**achievement test**) • to assess learning at the end of part of a course (**progress test**) • to decide if learners can continue to the next level • other, e.g. placement, diagnostic	• **feedback** for the teacher (i.e. to find out how successful our teaching has been) • to help the teacher improve **procedures** or choose different materials or activities for future lessons • feedback for learners about what they can do and what they still need to work on
Marking	• learners receive grades (%, A-F, Pass/Fail, etc.)	• teacher keeps records of progress but does not give grades • learners keep records of progress

Look at these examples of formal assessment activities. What areas of language knowledge and/or skills can we assess with the activities? Which activities produce the most real-life use of language? Which activities are easier or more difficult to mark?

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Assessment activity	Comments
Cloze test (Students complete a text with every *n*th word blanked out.)	Tests reading **comprehension** and knowledge of grammar and **lexis**. May be difficult to mark, as gaps may allow more than one answer.
Gap-fill (Students complete a text with selected words blanked out.)	Tests knowledge of grammar and/or lexis. The teacher has control over which items are tested. Marking can be difficult, as gaps may allow more than one answer.
Reordering **jumbled sentences**	Tests grammatical knowledge, **cohesion** and awareness of **collocation**. **Objective** task-type, easy to mark.
Sentence transformation ('Complete the sentence so that it means exactly the same.')	Tests knowledge of **grammatical structures** and the relationships between them.
Proofreading (Students correct mistakes in a text.)	Assesses learners' awareness of **error**. A highly realistic task, which should **encourage** learners to check their own writing. We can make it easier by indicating where there are errors, or more difficult by asking learners to find the errors themselves and then correct them.
Multiple-choice questions	Can test knowledge of grammar, lexis or other features of language, and comprehension of written or spoken text. An objective assessment type with single correct answers, and therefore easy to mark.
True / False / Don't know (T/F/DK) **questions**	Tests comprehension of written or spoken text. An objective assessment type with single answers, and therefore easy to mark. Adding the 'Don't know' option makes it more challenging, as learners search a written text more thoroughly, or listen to a spoken text more attentively.
Information transfer (from text to diagram, table, etc.)	Tests comprehension of written or spoken text. Easy to construct, but may be difficult to mark, as it may allow a range of possible answers.
Matching	Can test lexis, other **features** of language or comprehension of written or spoken text. Easy to construct and to mark.
Sequencing (text or pictures)	Tests comprehension of written or spoken text. Good for testing understanding and production of **narrative**. Easy to mark.
Dictation	Can test a wide range of language, i.e. lexis, grammar, listening, writing. A direct test of a **complex** combination of knowledge and skills, but difficult to mark.
Summary writing	Tests reading, writing and a wide range of language knowledge. A realistic task, but difficult to mark.
Guided writing (in response to **input** text or a set of instructions)	Tests realistic written communication. Directed and controlled by the input text and instructions, and therefore quite easy to mark.

Interview	Tests skills of spoken **interaction**. Can provide direct assessment of learners' ability to take part in unplanned **dialogue**, testing listening, **turn-taking** and other interactive skills, as well as speaking in long **turns** (when someone speaks in a conversation this is called a turn).
Information-gap activity (students get missing information from a partner to complete a task)	Tests skills of spoken interaction. Creates a real need for communication. May produce quite controlled language and so be easy to mark, or be more open-ended and therefore **subjective** in its marking.

Every assessment activity has advantages and disadvantages. For this reason a good formal test includes a **variety** of assessment activities. For example, activities such as multiple-choice or true/false, which test single items, are easy to mark and give us clear information about **specific** areas of the learners' language knowledge. However, such activities, with a single focus, do not tell us anything about the learners' ability to produce longer samples of language. By contrast, activities such as interviews or summary writing can give us much more information about learners' language knowledge or their ability to use the language. But because these activities test so many things at the same time, it may be difficult for us to focus on particular areas of a learner's performance.

Single-focus activities (e.g. multiple-choice, true/false) are very practical to design and can give us reliable results, but they usually test knowledge about rather than use of language, and so are rather unrealistic, and can have a negative effect on the way we teach. Activities that require learners to produce whole texts or longer samples of spoken language, on the other hand, are far less practical to mark and the results may not be very reliable. But they enable learners to produce language which is very similar to the language they need to produce in the real world.

Single-focus activities are very useful for assessing **receptive skills**, where we want to check that learners have understood a text. We can best assess **productive skills** with **extended** activities (e.g. summary writing, interview). Although these are less practical to mark, they have the advantage of putting learners in a situation where they have to use the language in the same way as in everyday life.

As mentioned in Unit 18, when we decide between subjective and objective test types, there are advantages and disadvantages to consider. The **solution** is often to use both types of activity.

The formal assessment activities discussed above are used to assess learners on a single occasion, like a photograph. We can use an informal assessment activity, **continuous assessment** or a **portfolio**, to assess students over time, more like a film. A portfolio can contain all of the student's work for a period of time, or just a selection of the work. Sometimes it will also include some kind of **evaluation** written by the student of his/her own work. By looking at a student's portfolio we can assess their progress over a longer period of time. Portfolios can be used both for assessment by the teacher and for **self-assessment**. There are a number of advantages to portfolio assessment:

- Portfolios are easy to integrate into teaching and learning, i.e. they contain work that learners do as part of their normal classroom programme.
- Portfolios are inclusive, i.e. they include the whole range of learners' work, not just a few test tasks.

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- Portfolios are informative, i.e. they provide a wide range of useful information for teachers, learners and parents, as they focus on productive and receptive skills, and they show what learners can do with the language in the classroom and outside the classroom, not just in test situations.
- Portfolios are developmental, i.e. assessment is continuous rather than being a single event, so they show how learning is progressing, not just what the learner can do on one particular day.
- Portfolios can also be reflective, when the owner of the portfolio (i.e. the student) writes some comments about the work, which are included as part of the portfolio.

Portfolios can also have disadvantages: for example, the teacher may have a large amount of marking at any one time and much of the marking may be quite subjective. Continuous assessment, in which each piece of work that the student gives in throughout the term contributes to a final mark, can overcome the problem of having lots of marking to do at one time.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- When we use subjective tasks, such as oral interviews, letters and essays, to get information about learners' general ability to use spoken and written language, we can help make the marking of these tests more reliable by using **assessment criteria** (see Unit 18).
- When we prepare a class test, it is important to test the main things we have taught, and to include a number of different tasks, so that we get a good picture of our learners' strengths and weaknesses.
- For young learners, we need to choose assessment tasks very carefully, making sure that the tasks are familiar and not too difficult, too **abstract** or too long.
- The amount and type of informal assessment we do depend on a number of things:
  – the size of the class
  – the age of the learners (informal assessment is especially useful for young learners for whom formal test tasks are often too abstract)
  – the language knowledge, behaviours or skills we want to assess
  – the frequency of formal tests or examinations.
- It is important in informal assessment for learners to know that we are assessing them, and to know how and when we are doing it.
- To carry out informal assessment of productive skills in larger classes, we probably need to assess small numbers of learners in different lessons. We can observe the class or particular students and record our opinions on a record sheet or fill in a checklist. We need to plan informal assessment and think about how we can organise assessment activities as part of our teaching.
- We can carry out informal assessment of receptive skills by checking learners' answers to reading or listening tasks, and taking notes on their performance.
- We can assess learners' grammatical and lexical knowledge informally by using language games or quizzes, or by monitoring practice activities and making a note of frequent errors. We can then give feedback to individuals or to the whole class, or return to the problems later in a revision lesson.

- We may also wish to assess other things such as **motivation** and effort. We can do this by observation and also by talking to learners about their learning.
- It is important to keep records of informal assessment, especially in larger classes, so that we have the information we need to report or give feedback on our learners' progress. These records can be quite simple, with headings (for example) for grammar, vocabulary, language skills, motivation and general progress against each learner's name. When completed, they provide the teacher with a useful **learner profile**.

See Unit 18 for assessment types and tasks.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 242 for answers)*

Read the following statements and decide whether they are true (T) or false (F). Correct the false statements.

1 In cloze tests we choose the words to blank out.
2 We can make a true/false test more challenging by adding a third option.
3 Portfolio assessment can include self-assessment by the learner.
4 We can use information-transfer tasks to test listening skills.
5 Summary writing is an objective assessment activity.
6 Guided writing may test more than one subskill.
7 Assessment criteria help us to give fair marks for subjective tests.
8 Sentence transformation is a real-life assessment activity.
9 Interviews are challenging because learners can prepare all their answers.
10 Proofreading tests skills that learners can transfer to real-life situations.

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I give my learners regular tests, but only for grammar and vocabulary. I assess their language skills by observing them in the classroom.
2 Portfolios are a really good way of assessing learners – you don't have to have a special test or anything because they've done the work already, and you can see how they are improving.
3 You don't always need tests to assess your learners; I do a lot of my assessment when students are doing normal classroom activities.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Try out some of the assessment activities listed in this unit that you haven't used before. Make notes about how they work in your Teacher Portfolio.
2 Look at the next three units in your coursebook. What opportunities are there for informal assessment? Keep a record in your Teacher Portfolio of the assessment activities you use.
3 For detailed information on ways of carrying out informal assessment, look at Chapters 1 and 2 of *Assessment* by Michael Harris and Paul McCann, Macmillan 1994, and 'Classroom Assessment' by Pauline Rea-Dickins, Chapter 11 in *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom* by Tricia Hedge, Oxford University Press 2000.

4 A language portfolio is a very good way of learners keeping a record of their own progress. For a useful introduction to portfolio assessment, look at 'Portfolio assessment in EFL' at:
http://www.21stcentury.com.cn/story/48219.html
An example portfolio for adult learners is downloadable free, together with a Teacher's Guide, from:
http://www.cilt.org.uk/further-and-adult-education/teaching-and-learning/resources/adult_elp.aspx
A junior version (for young learners) is available from:
http://www.primarylanguages.org.uk/shop/product.aspx?id=37

TKT practice task 22 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the assessment activities with the teachers' comments listed **A-H**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Assessment activities

1 cloze
2 proofreading
3 sequencing
4 dictation
5 summary writing
6 interview
7 information-gap

Teachers' comments

A When students act as 'the teacher' and have to find their own mistakes, they learn a lot.
B It really makes students focus on what the most important information is in a text and how to express it clearly.
C With just two or three choices, students could guess which option is correct, so I always ask them to explain their answers.
D I give the students the first paragraph without any missing words, so that they understand the context, and then I take out every seventh word in the rest of the text.
E It's a good way of assessing speaking, but I find it difficult to listen and think about the language and interact with the student at the same time.
F It focuses on assessing listening, grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, but it's really difficult to mark.
G It's easy to mark but, if students get one item in the wrong order, it can make all the other items wrong, too.
H When partners exchange information, you can assess the speaking skills of both students.

Part 2 | Selection and use of resources

Unit 23 Consulting reference resources to help in lesson preparation

■ How do we consult reference resources?

Reference resources are all the sources of information about language and about teaching that we can refer to for help in lesson preparation. They include **reference materials**, such as dictionaries and grammar books, books and articles in teachers' magazines about language, **supplementary materials** in a **coursebook** such as **phonemic charts** or lists of irregular verbs, and websites on the internet. Reference resources may also include people, for example, the head of department or colleagues who teach foreign languages or other subjects. We consult reference resources by knowing where we can find the information we need and how to find it. There is a lot of information available to teachers and it is important, therefore, to develop the ability to compare reference resources and decide on their quality and usefulness.

■ Key concepts

> *There are many reasons for using reference resources. Think of at least three.*

Checking the form and use of grammatical structures
Some grammar books are written for teachers and have very detailed explanations. Others, designed for learners at different levels, use simpler language to give essential information about **grammatical structures**. Grammar books for learners can help us to see what information our learners need about grammatical structures and can provide us with suitable ways of describing or explaining grammar. The easiest books to use are those organised in alphabetical order, or which have a detailed index or table of contents. Some grammar books also include practice exercises, which teachers (and learners) often find useful.

Some more recent grammar books are based on huge electronic collections of examples of spoken and written language in use (corpora). These books now tell us how people really use the language.

Checking the spelling, pronunciation and use of lexical items
Advanced learners' dictionaries are very useful for teachers to use themselves, as they include example sentences, as well as information about the form and use of words. Most of these are also available on CD-ROM and online on publishers' websites. **Bilingual dictionaries** (where the word and its meaning are in different languages), including electronic dictionaries, are useful when learners are looking for a word that they don't know in English. But these dictionaries usually give very little information about how to use a word, so it's a good idea for learners to check the words they find in a **monolingual dictionary** (where the word and its meaning are in the same

language). Learner dictionaries, like learner grammar books, can help teachers to find the most suitable ways of defining words and giving examples of their use. All languages change over time, and because English is so widely spoken in so many parts of the world, it changes faster and more frequently than many other languages. So new editions of dictionaries are published every few years. The most recent editions of monolingual learner dictionaries include many new **features**, such as information about **collocation**, **synonyms**, **antonyms** and related words, indications of frequency, notes warning learners about common **errors** and extra examples on a CD- or DVD-ROM, or on a website.

There is also a wide range of special dictionaries, e.g. dictionaries of collocations, of **idioms** and of phrasal verbs, pronouncing dictionaries, dictionaries of culture and dictionaries of common errors, dictionaries of synonyms, picture dictionaries for younger learners and dictionaries of different curriculum subjects for secondary and university students.

Developing your own understanding of language
There are a number of books for teachers which aim to increase our **language awareness** (our understanding of how language works) and our awareness of how to teach language. They often include **tasks** that we can do by ourselves or with a colleague, and detailed explanations and comments as well as answer keys.

Anticipating learners' difficulties
Reference materials about learners' errors can help us **anticipate** particular **language problems** that our learners might have. Many difficulties with vocabulary or grammar are the result of **interference** from **L1**. Books or articles about **specific** differences between the learner's L1 and English can help to explain these problems.

Looking for new approaches to teaching lessons and new classroom activities
If we are looking for new approaches or activities, or if we want to give our learners something different from their coursebook, there is a wide range of **supplementary materials** (i.e. materials you can use in addition to or instead of your coursebook), focusing on grammar, vocabulary and particular **skills**. There are also very many teacher's resource books with ideas and materials for all kinds of lessons, as well as a growing number of free websites with articles, ideas and activities for teachers on different teaching topics.

Finding out how to use the material in your coursebook
Teacher's books provide suggestions about how to use the material in the coursebook. Many teacher's books also include suggestions for alternatives to the **procedures** in the coursebook, as well as explanations of answers to exercises and extra **resources** (i.e. things teachers can use to support their teaching in the classroom), such as homework tasks and activities for further practice. Many new teacher's books provide extra material, such as supplementary **worksheets** (pieces of paper with an exercise or task for learners to complete), **progress tests**, photocopiables (practice material for teachers to photocopy), and a choice of easier or more challenging activities for classes with mixed levels.

Getting advice about particular lessons or teaching materials
Colleagues who have taught at the same level or used the same teaching materials
may be able to offer useful advice. As with the suggestions in teacher's books, a
colleague's approach may not suit us, but may help us to think about our own
planning.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Some grammar books and dictionaries may contain clearer explanations or
  examples. So when checking a language item, we should try to look at more than
  one reference resource.
- Language changes, as new words appear and people stop using some older words.
  Grammatical usage, too, changes slowly over time. One way to keep up-to-date is to
  use the most recently published grammar books and dictionaries.
- Dictionaries on CD- or DVD-ROMs have many extra features, such as practice
  activities, collocation searches and audio recordings of pronunciation.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 242 for answers)*

Look at the resources 1-7 below. Working with the resources themselves or just the
titles, decide which purpose (A-G) they are suitable for.

1 http://www.yourdictionary.com/ Free online resources: definitions, sentence
  examples, synonyms and more.
2 *500 Activities for the Primary Classroom* by Carol Read, Macmillan 2007
3 *Discover English: a language awareness workbook* by Rod Bolitho & Brian Tomlinson,
  Macmillan 2005
4 *Teaching Tenses: ideas for presenting and practising tenses in English* by Rosemary Aitken,
  Nelson ELT 1991
5 *Learner English: A teacher's guide to interference and other problems* by Michael Swan and
  Bernard Smith, Cambridge University Press 2001
6 *Dictionary skills* by Tim Bowen at:
  http://www.onestopenglish.com/ This series of worksheets is aimed at training
  learners in dictionary use and developing their vocabulary.
7 *Grammar Practice Activities* (Second edition) by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press
  2009

  A Checking the form and use of grammatical structures
  B Checking the spelling, pronunciation and use of lexical items
  C Developing your own understanding of language
  D Anticipating learners' difficulties
  E Helping students to become more independent learners
  F Looking for new approaches to teaching lessons and new classroom activities
  G Finding practical teaching ideas to use with young learners

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 English changes so fast these days that language reference books are out of date as soon as they're published. Online grammars and dictionaries are a far more useful reference resource.
2 I don't allow students to bring bilingual or electronic dictionaries to the classroom. I insist on them always using monolingual dictionaries.
3 Colleagues are the best reference resources.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Teachers are resources, too! Share ideas with your colleagues about resources that you and they have used. Keep a simple record in your Teacher Portfolio of resources you have used and their strengths and weaknesses.
2 Look at the teacher's book that comes with your coursebook. Try out some of the additional ideas in the book ('Ideas for further practice', 'Extension activities', etc.) Compare them with the tasks and activities in the coursebook. Keep a record of your conclusions in your Teacher Portfolio.
3 For some good advice on using reference resources for finding information about language, look at Chapters 13 and 14 of *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (Fourth edition) by Jeremy Harmer, Pearson Education Ltd 2007.
4 For ideas on building up your own library of resources, look at Unit 12 'Building a Resource Bank' of *Language Assistant* by Clare Lavery, downloadable free from: http://www.britishcouncil.org/languageassistant/about
5 A very useful website with large numbers of links to other sites with lesson plans, games, ideas about teaching and many other resources is: http://iteslj.org/links
6 Here are two teachers' magazines with lesson ideas from teachers all over the world, as well as articles by well-known authors and textbook writers. You can subscribe to *Modern English Teacher* (http://www.onlinemet.com/) in print and to *English Teaching Professional* (http://www.etprofessional.com/) in print and/or online.
7 Use the *TKT Glossary* to find the meaning of these terms: *consult, cross reference, entry, headword, thesaurus.*

TKT practice task 23 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the statements about reference resources and the three options for completing them listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the options complete the statements correctly. One option does **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** complete the statements correctly.

1 A language awareness book can help teachers to

   A check their own use of language.
   B improve their pronunciation.
   C vary their methodology.

2 A teacher's resource book can help teachers to

   A try out new teaching ideas.
   B improve their language knowledge.
   C monitor their own use of language.

3 A bilingual dictionary can help teachers to

   A check how L2 words are said in the L1.
   B find L1 explanations of L1 words.
   C check the meaning of words in two languages.

4 A picture dictionary can help teachers to

   A show the meaning of some common compound nouns.
   B explain new words to beginners.
   C revise abstract vocabulary with beginners.

5 A learner's grammar book can help teachers to

   A learn how to teach structures.
   B find simple ways of explaining uses of grammar.
   C check their own knowledge of grammar.

6 A monolingual dictionary in the L2 can help teachers to

   A see all the meanings of a word.
   B check the pronunciation of target language.
   C teach students about rhythm and stress.

7 A book about interference from different first languages can help teachers to

   A identify false friends.
   B find ideas for motivating learners.
   C design relevant exercises.

Unit 24 Selection and use of coursebook materials

How do we select and use coursebook materials?

Coursebook materials are all the materials in a coursebook package that we use in the classroom to **present** and practise language, and to develop learners' language **skills**.

A coursebook package usually includes a student's book, a **teacher's book** and audio and/or video recordings. The teacher's book often includes the **tapescript**, **audio script** or **transcript**, i.e. the written version of exactly what the learners hear on these recordings. Often there is also a **workbook** or **activity book** (a book with extra practice material), and there may also be a CD-ROM, material for use with an interactive whiteboard or extra material on a website.

Teachers often base their selection of teaching materials (coursebook or **supplementary materials**) on a 'needs analysis', i.e. a study of learners' level, language needs and interests, using questionnaires, interviews or **diagnostic tests**. This information helps to build up a **class profile** (a description of all the learners in the class) and shows what the learners have in common and how they differ from each other. The teacher's task is then to select the material that best matches this profile.

Key concepts

What questions should we ask when selecting teaching materials?

We may not be able to choose our coursebook, but we can still make choices about what materials in it to use. Decisions about whether – and how – to use the coursebook, or parts of it, will depend on the answers to a number of questions:

- Is the material visually attractive? Is it visually clear (e.g. using different colours, different fonts, headings, etc.)? Does the visual material help learners to understand **context** and meaning?
- Is the material well organised? Can you and your learners follow the 'logic' of the material and find your way quickly and easily around the page or the unit?
- Is it culturally appropriate? Will the context(s) be familiar to learners?
- Is it suitable for your learners' age and their needs and interests?
- Will the topic(s) be **motivating** to suit the age, gender, experience and personal interests of your learners?
- Is the material at the right level? Does it provide a clear enough context and/or explanations for learners to understand new language?
- Does it give learners enough opportunities to use the language?

If the answer to any of these questions is 'No', then we have two choices:
- to replace the coursebook material with materials with the same focus/**aim** from another book or **resource**, such as a teachers' website or supplementary materials

- to **adapt** the coursebook material, i.e. change it in some way to make it suitable for our learners.

There are a number of ways to adapt material that is not suitable for a particular teaching situation. Here are some ideas:

Strategies	Problems	Possible solutions
Extending material	• The **task** or exercise is too short. • The learners need more practice.	• Write extra items, following the same pattern.
Shortening material	• The task or exercise is too long. • The learners don't need so much practice.	• Use as much as you need, but do not feel you have to use it all. • Give different parts of the text or task to different learners.
Changing the **methodology**	• The task doesn't suit the learners' **learning style**. • You want a change of **pace**. • The coursebook often repeats the same kind of task.	• Change the **interaction pattern**, e.g. use a matching task as a **mingling** activity (in this case learners move around the class to find their partners).
Changing the level of the material	• The texts or tasks are too easy or too difficult.	• Make material more challenging, e.g. learners try to answer **comprehension** questions *before* reading. • Make material less challenging, e.g. break up a long text into shorter sections.
Reordering material	• The activities in the units in the book always follow the same **sequence**. • The learners need to learn or practise things in a different order.	• Change the order of the material, e.g. ask learners to cover up a page or part of a page, so that they focus on what you want them to do first.
Making use of all the resources in the book	• There is not enough practice material in a particular unit. • The learners need to revise particular items. • You want to preview material in a future unit.	• Use extra material from the book: grammar summaries, word lists, lists of irregular verbs, etc. • Give whole-book tasks, e.g. searching through the book for texts, pictures, language examples.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- There may be good reasons for leaving out part of a unit, or even a whole unit. But the coursebook is one of the main sources of learning (and revision) for our learners. So they may find it confusing if we do this too often.
- The coursebook will normally provide the main content for a lesson, while material that needs to be more **personalised** for the learners will probably come from the teacher (or from the learners themselves). For example:

Coursebook provides:	Teacher can provide additional:
• situation/context	• **warmers**
• pictures	• instructions
• **dialogues** (conversations between two people) and texts	• role-plays
• tasks and exercises	• homework tasks

- If we plan to reorder the material in the coursebook, we must make sure that this is possible, i.e. that a task/exercise does not depend on a previous one.
- We can change the order of activities in the coursebook in order to introduce **variety** in one of the following areas: pace, interaction pattern, sequence of skills practice, level of difficulty, content, mood, etc.
- We should think about how to make material more attractive and interesting for learners and how to bring material to life, e.g. using **mime**, pictures, **realia** (real objects such as clothes or food), etc.

See Units 14 and 15 for learner characteristics and needs, Unit 25 for the selection and use of supplementary materials, and Unit 26 for the selection and use of aids.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(Open answers)*

Look at the extract from a coursebook for teenagers. How could you adapt this material if you wanted to use it with a group you are teaching? Think about the following criteria and use the questions in the Key concepts section on pages 156-7:

- Visual attractiveness
- Visual clarity
- Visual support to understand context and meaning
- Organisation
- Cultural appropriateness
- Language level

- Familiarity of **context(s)**
- Suitability for learners' age, needs and interests
- Motivating topic(s) to suit age, gender, experience and personal interests of your learners
- Clarity of context and/or explanations for learners to understand new language
- Opportunities to use the language

1 Read and listen

a Look at the pictures. What do you think the text is about?

1 A man who didn't feel well on the platform of a New York subway station.
2 A man who saved another man in the New York subway.
3 The man who designed the platforms of the New York subway.

Read the text quickly and check your answer.

b ▶ CD TN Now read the text again and listen. Answer the questions.

1 Why did Mr Hollopeter fall onto the platform and then the track?
2 How deep was the space where Mr Hollopeter fell?
3 Why did five subway carriages travel over the two men?
4 Who was Mr Autrey worried about when the train stopped?
5 What was the only thing that happened to Mr Autrey?
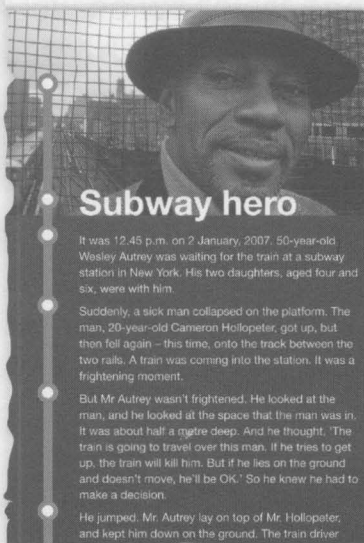
Subway hero

It was 12.45 p.m. on 2 January, 2007. 50-year-old Wesley Autrey was waiting for the train at a subway station in New York. His two daughters, aged four and six, were with him.

Suddenly, a sick man collapsed on the platform. The man, 20-year-old Cameron Hollopeter, got up, but then fell again – this time, onto the track between the two rails. A train was coming into the station. It was a frightening moment.

But Mr Autrey wasn't frightened. He looked at the man, and he looked at the space that the man was in. It was about half a metre deep. And he thought, 'The train is going to travel over this man. If he tries to get up, the train will kill him. But if he lies on the ground and doesn't move, he'll be OK.' So he knew he had to make a decision.

He jumped. Mr Autrey lay on top of Mr Hollopeter, and kept him down on the ground. The train driver

saw them. He was terrified, but he couldn't stop in time. Five carriages travelled over the two men before the train stopped.

The people on the platform were shocked. When Mr Autrey heard them screaming, he shouted 'We're OK down here, but I've got two daughters up there. Let them know their father's OK'. People on the platform clapped and cheered – they were amazed at Autrey's courage. Subway workers helped the two men out. An ambulance took Mr. Hollopeter to hospital. He had no serious injuries.

In an interview on a TV show, Mr Autrey said, 'The only thing that happened to me was my blue hat got dirty.'

He added, 'I wasn't brave. I didn't do anything special. I just saw someone who needed help. I did what I thought was right.'
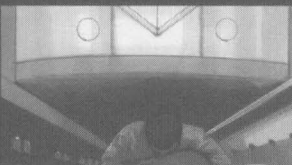
(from *English in Mind*, Level 1 Student's Book (Second edition) by Herbert Puchta and Jeff Stranks, Cambridge University Press 2010)

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 My students always complain if I leave things out or change the order in the coursebook, so I try to do everything in the order given in the book.
2 I'd love to teach without a coursebook, but the students expect to have one.
3 I've used the same coursebook for three years. I know how it works and I don't want to change.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 What components are available with your current coursebook? Which ones do you use and why? What is missing? Make notes in your Teacher Portfolio.
2 For further ideas on using coursebooks, look at Chapter 4 of *Teaching Practice Handbook* (Second edition) by Roger Gower, Diane Phillips and Steve Walters, Macmillan 1995 and Chapter 5, Part 2 of *Planning Lessons and Courses* by Tessa Woodward, Cambridge University Press 2001. For ideas on using other materials, look at Chapter 3, Section 1 of *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005 and Module 13, Units One, Two and Three of *A Course in Language Teaching* by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press 1996.
3 For ideas about teaching with few materials, or none, look at *Teaching Unplugged* by Luke Meddings and Scott Thornbury, Delta Publishing 2009 and http://www.thornburyscott.com/tu/portal.htm

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TKT practice task 24 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the incomplete statements about adapting coursebook materials and the three options for completing them listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the options complete the statements correctly. One option does **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** complete the statement correctly.

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1 If the material is too young for the age of the learners, we can

   A replace cartoons with photographs.
   B find more motivating texts.
   C introduce more kinaesthetic activities.

2 If the material is culturally inappropriate, we can

   A make the material more challenging.
   B adapt unsuitable tasks.
   C use a different context for presenting.

3 If the grammar revision in the book isn't enough for the learners, we can

   A write some extra material.
   B change the interaction patterns.
   C adapt exercises from earlier units.

4 If the practice material is too easy for some students, we can

   A find extension or supplementary exercises.
   B provide lists of key words.
   C find new texts on other topics.

5 If there isn't enough controlled practice material, we can

   A re-use the same material.
   B extend exercises in the book following the same pattern.
   C use the pictures in the book for further practice.

6 If the practice material is presented without any clear context, we can

   A add visuals.
   B suggest that learners consult a dictionary of culture.
   C add a sentence or two to provide background.

7 If there isn't enough reading skills development, we can

   A set up a class library of graded readers.
   B ask students to read the texts aloud.
   C find an appropriate supplementary skills book.

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Unit 25 Selection and use of supplementary materials and activities

◼ How do we select and use supplementary materials and activities?

Supplementary materials are books and other materials we can use in addition to the coursebook. They include **skills** development materials, grammar, vocabulary and **phonology** practice materials, collections of **communicative activities,** teacher's **resources** and web materials. Supplementary materials may also come from **authentic** sources (e.g. newspaper and magazine articles, video, etc.). Some coursebook packages include supplementary materials and activities specially designed to fit the coursebook **syllabus**, and websites where you can download supplementary materials. We select supplementary materials and activities first by recognising that we need something different from the material in the coursebook, and then by knowing where to find the most appropriate kinds of material. We use supplementary materials and activities to provide something that is missing from the coursebook, to give learners extra practice, or just to bring something different to our lessons.

◼ Key concepts

Make a list of all the different reasons you can think of for using supplementary materials and activities, and any advantages or disadvantages you think supplementary materials may have.

There are various reasons why we might want to use supplementary materials and activities. Some of the main reasons are as follows:
- to replace unsuitable material in the coursebook
- to provide material missing from the coursebook
- to provide suitable material for learners' particular **needs** and interests
- to give learners extra language or skills practice
- to add **variety** to our teaching.

Coursebooks are organised according to a syllabus, and they are often carefully graded (i.e. **grammatical structures**, vocabulary, skills, etc. are presented in a **logical** or clear **sequence** for learning), so that learners' knowledge of the language builds up step by step through the book. Supplementary materials and activities can provide variety in lessons and useful extra practice, but they are not always graded, so it is important to make sure that we choose the right materials and activities at the right time. The right materials and activities fit into the learners' programme, are suitable for the class and match the **aims** for particular lessons.

Here are some of the possible advantages and disadvantages of using various kinds of supplementary materials:

Supplementary materials	Possible advantages	Possible disadvantages
Class library of readers	• encourages **extensive reading** / reading for pleasure • gives learners **confidence** • allows learners to choose	• need for range of levels to suit different learners • content may not be **motivating** for older learners
Skills practice books	• focus on individual skills	• may not fit coursebook/ syllabus
Teacher's resource books / downloadable **worksheets**	• new ideas for lessons	• may not suit lesson aims
Websites	• variety of lesson plans, teaching materials, other resources	• sometimes difficult to find the right material for the learners • school may not have enough computer stations • learners may not have computer skills
DVDs	• provide visual **context** • source of cultural information • show body language	• equipment may not always be available • language may not be **graded** (suitable for the level of the learners)
Language practice books	• extra practice • learners can work alone without teacher's help	• repetitive exercises • little or no context
Electronic materials	• **motivation** • familiar technology for learners	• difficult for teacher to control how learners are working • little or no human **feedback**
Games	• enjoyment • language practice	• may not be suitable for older learners • preparation may take a long time • **classroom management** may be complicated

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

Selection of supplementary materials and activities

• Get to know what supplementary materials are available in your school. Use observation, a questionnaire or interviews for analysis of your learners' needs (see page 78) at the beginning of the course to find out what you will want to add to the coursebook when you are planning your **scheme of work**.

• Supplementary language practice materials are not usually accompanied by **teacher's books**, and the aims of some activities may not be clear. Some materials and activities may look very attractive, but they may not be appropriate for the

stage or the level that learners have reached. So it is always important to think about exactly how supplementary material will replace or improve on material in the coursebook.

- It may be useful to use authentic material (which is not designed for a particular level), in order to give learners the experience of working with more challenging texts and **tasks**.

- The activities in materials designed to develop individual skills often include the use of other skills, e.g. learners need to read a text before they carry out a listening task, or to do some writing as a follow-up activity after a speaking activity. When selecting materials and activities, it is important for us to think carefully about all the skills that they require learners to use.

- Many publishers produce materials for practising separate language skills at different levels. Teacher's resource books, too, usually list tasks and activities according to level. Before we decide to use these materials, however, the first step is to consider how appropriate the level is for our learners, and to think about the language they will need to understand or to produce.

Use of supplementary materials and activities

- Learners get used to the **methodology** in their coursebook. If we are using supplementary materials with **procedures** that are different from those used in the coursebook, we may need to give special attention to instructions.

- We can **adapt** many supplementary materials for use with classes at different levels. The texts used in these materials may not be graded, but we can grade the activities by making the learners' tasks more or less challenging.

- Games and extra communicative activities can provide variety and make learning fun. But unless we think carefully about our reasons for using them, our lesson may not have a clear purpose. Older learners especially may want to know why they are doing these activities.

- In a **mixed ability / mixed level** class (i.e. one where learners are at different language levels), if the material in the coursebook is too easy or too difficult for some of our learners, supplementary materials and activities can also help us to provide **appropriate** materials for different learners. (This is known as **differentiation**.) We can give different tasks to different groups, pairs or individuals which are more suited to their level.

- We may need to **input** new vocabulary or language patterns before we can use supplementary materials or activities. We just need to make sure our students have the language they need to make the best use of the materials or activities.

See Unit 23 for consulting reference resources and Unit 24 for the selection and use of coursebook materials.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(Open answers)*

Look at the extract from a supplementary book of communication activities. Think about the following questions:

1 What could this activity be useful for? Make a list of different possible aims and learning outcomes.

2 Where could this activity fit in a lesson? What language would students need?

3 How could you lead into the activity?

4 Would you follow the procedure suggested in the extract, or would you change it in any way?

5 How would you follow up the activity? What would you do in the next stage, or in the next lesson?

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3 Dirty jobs?

Which of these organisations would you work for if you had little or no alternative?

1 A pharmaceutical company which tests its beauty products on animals.

2 A multinational which trades with the governments of politically oppressed people.

3 An arms producer or a company whose products can be used for military purposes.

4 A fast food chain that opens 'restaurants' in beautiful squares in the old quarters of towns.

5 A nuclear power station.

6 A tobacco company.

7 How honest were you in answering these questions? If you had no other opportunities for getting a job, is there no way you would reconsider? How much is one really contributing to the problem by working for such companies?

Teacher's notes

3 Dirty jobs?

- Ask students to cover question 7.
- Students make their decisions individually, and then discuss in groups. Students should then reformulate their decisions on the basis of the follow-up question 7.

Writing

- (a) Write a letter to the managing director of one of these companies, trying to convince him/her to change the company policy. (b) Write a press release from one of these companies which wants to set up in your area. The statement should justify why, for example, testing beauty products on animals is needed and is not immoral.

(adapted from *Discussions A-Z* Intermediate by Adrian Wallwork, Cambridge University Press 1997)

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 My coursebook is good, but each unit follows the same pattern, so I need supplementary materials to give the students some variety.

2 I don't see why supplementary materials have to fit into the syllabus. Sometimes it's just good for learners to have a change – and have some fun.

3 You can't expect the coursebook to do everything for you – I often need supplementary materials for extra practice or for material and activities that the coursebook doesn't provide.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look at the contents pages ('map of the book') of a coursebook you have used. Where did you need to use supplementary materials? Make notes in your Teacher Portfolio on why you supplemented the coursebook and how.

2 Exchange information with your colleagues on supplementary materials and activities you have used recently. Make notes in your Teacher Portfolio on language level, preparation needed and any problems you experienced.

3 For ideas on using – and making – supplementary materials, look at Module 13, Units Four and Five of *A Course in Language Teaching* by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press 1996; Chapter 16, Sections 2-4 and 8-9 of *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005; Chapter 4 of *Teaching Practice*

Handbook (Second edition) by Roger Gower, Diane Phillips and Steve Walters, Macmillan 1995 and Dave's ESL Café at:
http://www.eslcafe.com/ideas/index.html
There are also a large number of free practice materials at:
http://www.nonstopenglish.com/

4 Three very useful series of photocopiable supplementary materials are:
Timesaver Resource Books, published by Mary Glasgow Magazines. This series includes cross-cultural lessons, grammar, vocabulary, skills development, games and communicative activities. Sample activities are downloadable free from:
http://www.maryglasgowmagazines.com
The Copy Collection, published by Cambridge University Press. This series includes grammar, vocabulary, skills development, Business English, materials for teenagers and young learners. Sample activities are downloadable free from:
http://www.cambridge.org/elt/ccc/
Penguin English Photocopiables, published by Pearson Longman. This series includes pairwork, group work, grammar games, vocabulary games, reading games and 'instant lessons'.

TKT practice task 25 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the supplementary materials with the teachers' comments listed **A-H**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Teachers' comments

A I can use it to test the meaning of vocabulary in an enjoyable way.
B It's really useful because there's no focus on problem sounds in my coursebook.
C I can go round and monitor my students' accuracy while they have a lot of fun.
D My students can choose books that are easier or more difficult for them.
E It helps my young learners get used to the rhythm of the language.
F My students can choose their own exercises and check their answers.
G It helps my visual learners when we're learning new vocabulary.
H It's full of ideas for discussions.

Supplementary materials

1 A book of grammar games
2 A website that helps the teacher make quizzes
3 A book of fluency activities
4 A collection of poems and songs
5 A book practising phonemes
6 A collection of graded readers
7 A CD-ROM of reading texts and tasks

Unit 26 Selection and use of teaching aids

■ How do we select and use teaching aids?

Teaching **aids** are the **resources** and equipment available to us in the classroom, as well as the resources we can bring into the classroom. They include interactive whiteboards, computers, CD players, DVD players and **overhead projectors (OHPs)** (i.e. equipment with a light in it that can make images appear larger on a screen), **visual aids** (pictures that can help learners understand), **realia** and the teacher himself/herself! We select and use aids by thinking carefully about the **main aims**, the **subsidiary aims** and **stage aims** of a lesson, and then choosing the most **appropriate** aids.

■ Key concepts

Look at the following list of classroom equipment. What other teaching purposes can you think of for each item?

Classroom equipment	Teaching purpose
board	writing up planned vocabulary, grammar examples and explanations
overhead projector (OHP)	displaying prepared exercises on **overhead transparencies (OHTs)** (plastic sheets)
CD player	listening practice
DVD player	listening practice with added visual information
computer	grammar exercises
language laboratory (i.e. a room where learners can listen to recordings and record themselves)	grammar **drills**

All of these aids can be used for many different purposes. Some examples of these purposes are given here.

Board	DVD player
• recording words and ideas that come up during the lesson • drawing or displaying pictures • building up ideas in diagrams, **word maps / mind maps** (diagrams showing vocabulary on the same topic), etc. • for learners to write answers/ideas • for whole-class compositions	• **information-gap activities** (e.g. with one learner viewing and one just listening) • viewing without sound and guessing the language • pausing and **predicting** the language (i.e. saying what you think is coming next) • with a camera, filming learners' performance

Overhead projector	*Computer*
• displaying results of group work • building up information by putting one transparency on top of another • covering up or gradually uncovering parts of the transparency • displaying pictures and diagrams on photocopiable transparencies	• **narrative** building with a word processor • **supplementary materials** for **coursebooks** • online language **tests** • using online dictionaries • using CD-ROMs and DVD-ROMs • email exchanges • online communication (chatting) • online newspapers and magazines • project work using the internet • viewing and uploading material on the internet
CD player	*Language laboratory*
• **presenting** new language in **dialogues** and stories • giving **models** for pronunciation practice • recording learners' oral performance • listening for pleasure	• pronunciation practice • **extensive listening** • **monitoring** and giving **feedback** to individual learners • developing speaking **skills**

Other aids are: realia, **flashcards** (cards with words, sounds, sentences or pictures on them, that the teacher shows the class) **cue/prompt cards** (cards small enough for the teacher to hold up one after another, or for students to use in pairwork with simple drawings or single words or phrases on them), **puppets** (models of people or animals that you can move by putting your hand inside them), **charts** (diagrams that show information), magazine pictures – and the teacher.

What different uses can you think of for these aids?

Here are some of the most common uses:

Realia

Real objects that we can easily bring into the classroom can be used to teach vocabulary, as **prompts** for practising **grammatical structures** or for building dialogues and narratives, for games and quizzes. Realia also include real texts, such as menus, timetables, leaflets, etc.

Flashcards

Like realia, flashcards can be used for teaching individual words or as prompts for practising grammatical structures.

| living room | kitchen | shower | television |
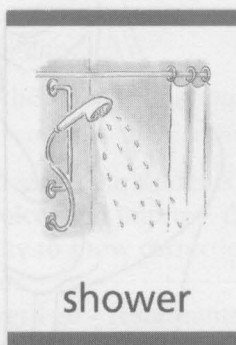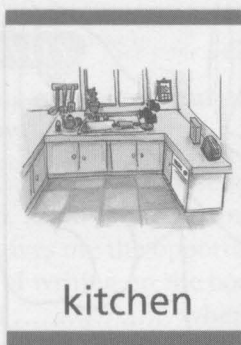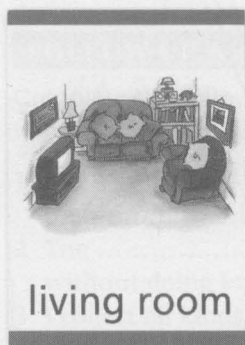
Puppets

Puppets are an excellent resource for teaching young learners. For example, we can introduce new language in dialogues between pairs of puppets (or between one puppet and the teacher). Children can also make their own simple puppets.

Charts

We can use posters and **wallcharts** (drawings or graphs that can be put on the wall of a classroom) to display larger, more detailed pictures, or a series of pictures telling a story or showing related objects in a **lexical set**. A **phonemic chart** shows the phonemic symbols and the positions in the mouth where the different sounds are made. The teacher can point at the symbols to prompt learners to correct their pronunciation. (See Unit 3 for an example of a phonemic chart.) We can also use charts to display diagrams, prepared drawings and tables of irregular verbs, or to build up a class dictionary.

The teacher

The teacher can use hand **gestures**, **facial expressions** and **mime** (actions which express meaning without words) to **elicit** vocabulary items, **clarify** meaning and create **context**. We can also build up a set of signals, such as in **finger correction**, which learners recognise as prompts to correct their own mistakes.
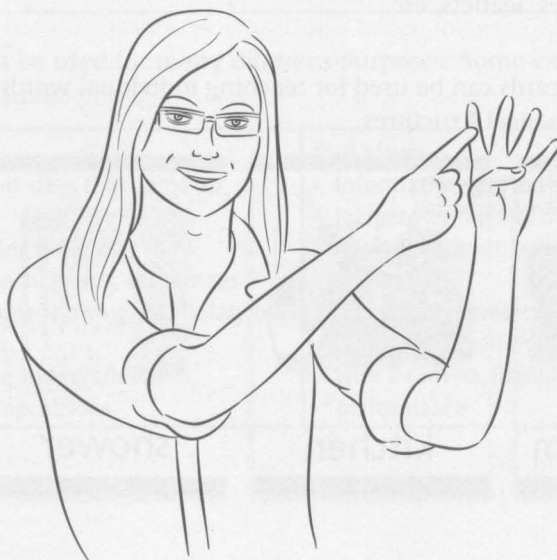
■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

It is a good idea to divide the board into different sections for different purposes, as in this example:

Reference material
(e.g. key **lexis**,
model sentences,
grammar rules,
etc.)

Lesson materials
(e.g pictures, key
grammatical
structures,
dialogues, etc.) at
different stages of
the lesson

Vocabulary
column for
noting all new
words
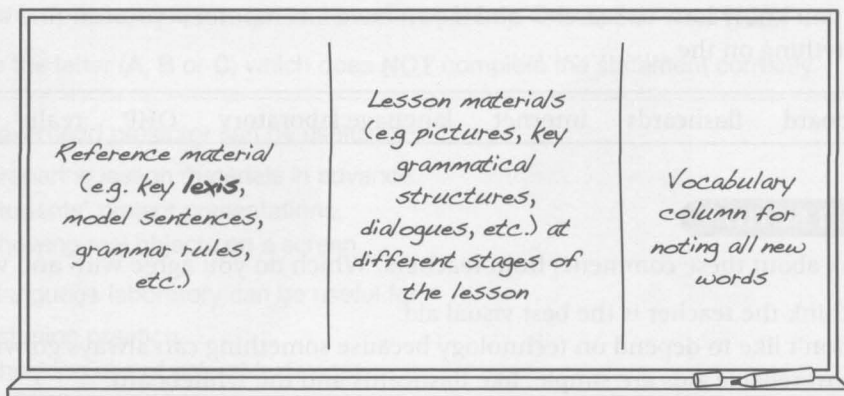
You can include records like this in your lesson plan for different stages of the lesson.

Read these tips and tick the ones that are important for you.

- Think about the best ways to use different aids (e.g. using flashcards to give quick, clear prompts, or using the overhead projector to show corrections to the whole class or for students to use for presentations). Different aids have different advantages and disadvantages. Make sure you choose the best one for your **specific** teaching purpose and context.
- Aids that you can prepare in advance, like charts, flashcards and transparencies for the overhead projector, will help you to make sure that **procedures** outlined in lesson plans match your aims. Another advantage is that you can save such aids and re-use them in future lessons.
- Make sure that you check any equipment before the lesson. If you use computers or the language laboratory, advance preparation is essential. It is important to plan all your instructions very carefully, as well as the **sequence** of activities for using the aids.
- Learners may also make use of a **self-access centre**, a place with books, **worksheets**, computers and CDs, where they can study by themselves.

See Unit 24 for the selection and use of coursebook materials and Unit 25 for the selection and use of supplementary materials and activities.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 242 for answers)*

Complete the following comments from teachers about classroom aids, using the words in the box below.

1 I like using the .... because it gives all the students a chance to practise their pronunciation, listen to their own voices and improve their pronunciation.
2 The .... gives me the opportunity to show corrections to the whole class without doing lots of writing on the board.
3 I collect all kinds of .... wherever I go – restaurants, hotels, railway stations – so I can bring authentic materials into my lessons.

4 .... enable me to give prompts for drills without saying anything.
5 I always keep one part of the .... for listing new vocabulary items.
6 The great thing about .... is that students get the chance to observe body language and facial expressions as well as listening.
7 If you know how to search – and if you have a computer – you can find almost anything on the ....

| board | flashcards | internet | language laboratory | OHP | realia | DVDs |

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I think the teacher is the best visual aid.
2 I don't like to depend on technology because something can always go wrong. The most reliable aids are simple, like flashcards and the whiteboard.
3 I like using an OHP because you're always in control of what students are looking at, you can add to what you've written and students can use it, too.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Think about a lesson you taught recently and the aids you used. Plan the same lesson again, this time using different aids (e.g. the board instead of an OHP) or no aids at all (e.g. reading out a text yourself instead of using a recording). In what ways would these changes make the lesson different? Make notes in your Teacher Portfolio.
2 What general advice about aids would you give to a colleague or a trainee teacher? And what specific advice would you give about particular aids?
3 For some very useful ideas on the use of aids, look at Chapter 11 of *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (Fourth edition) by Jeremy Harmer, Pearson Education Ltd 2007; Chapter 3 of *Teaching Practice Handbook* (Second edition) by Roger Gower, Diane Phillips and Steve Walters, Macmillan 1995; Chapter 10 of *Children Learning English* by Jayne Moon, Macmillan 2000 and Chapter 5 Section 7 and Chapter 16 Section 1 of *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005.
4 You can also find some interesting articles on using aids on this website: http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/resources.shtml
5 Use the *TKT Glossary* to find the meaning of these terms for aids: *board game, rubric, brochure, handout, leaflet, crossword puzzle, dice, flipchart, graph, grid, video clip, wordsearch*. Ask colleagues what they have used them for.

TKT practice task 26 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the incomplete statements about teaching aids and the three options for completing them listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the options complete the statements correctly. One option does **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** complete the statement correctly.

---

1 The overhead projector can be useful for

   A preparing lesson materials in advance.
   B students' project presentations.
   C showing real objects on a screen.

2 The language laboratory can be useful for

   A listening practice.
   B checking use of cohesive devices.
   C improving students' intonation.

3 Flashcards can be useful for

   A checking knowledge of vocabulary.
   B telling the class a story.
   C practising scanning.

4 A self-access centre can be useful for

   A giving every student individual work.
   B helping kinaesthetic students.
   C students working independently.

5 A phonemic chart can be useful for

   A oral fluency practice.
   B improving students' pronunciation.
   C highlighting contrasting sounds.

6 Cue cards can be useful for

   A giving prompts for substitution drills.
   B giving intensive reading practice.
   C encouraging the use of particular target language.

7 A video clip can be useful for

   A giving intensive listening practice.
   B noticing gestures and body language.
   C visualisation activities.

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TKT Module 2 | Practice test 2.1

A sample answer sheet is on page 234.

For questions **1-7**, look at the sequence of teacher's instructions and the three possible stage aims from a lesson listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the stage aim which matches the instruction.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

---

1 In your groups, decide on the very best way to spend your next holiday.

    A to practise presentation skills
    B to give learners practice in negotiating
    C to practise turn-taking in a formal discussion

2 In pairs, brainstorm as many words as you can think of connected with air travel.

    A to actively engage learners in the topic
    B to focus on the pronunciation of new lexical items
    C to get learners to work with different partners

3 Put the words from column A in the sets they belong to.

    A to check learners' accuracy in spelling
    B to practise deducing meaning from context
    C to categorise lexical items

4 Read the description of an airport and label the diagram.

    A to select and transfer information from a text
    B to identify mistakes in a text
    C to carry out instructions from a text

5 Listen to the announcement and note down the passenger's flight departure time.

    A to practise listening for gist
    B to listen for specific information
    C to deduce the speaker's attitude

6 Look at the examples from the announcement and, with your partner, try to work out a rule for forming the passive.

    A to revise the use of the passive voice
    B to encourage learning through guided discovery
    C to give learners fluency practice

7 Write a letter of complaint about the mistakes the passenger's travel agent has made.

    A to practise writing an informal letter

    B to give learners creative writing practice

    C to practise writing for a specific purpose

For questions **8-14**, look at the procedures from different lessons and the three stage aims listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the stage aims are appropriate for the procedure. One stage aim is **NOT**.

Mark the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) of the stage aim which is **NOT** appropriate on your answer sheet.

---

8 Show pictures and find out what learners know about the topic.

    A to build on learners' knowledge of the world

    B to contextualise the topic

    C to appeal to reflective learners

9 Learners brainstorm vocabulary connected with a familiar topic.

    A to revise lexical sets from previous lessons

    B to encourage autonomous learning

    C to lead-in to a text

10 Learners label a time line on the whiteboard.

    A to help learners discover a grammar rule

    B to clarify meaning

    C to appeal to all learning styles

11 Ask concept questions about time and tense.

    A to make sure that learners have understood a new language item

    B to give examples of different exponents of language

    C to help learners notice the use of language

12 Do a substitution drill, changing subject pronoun and verb.

    A to give learners restricted practice

    B to practise interactive strategies

    C to practise word order

13 Role-play a written dialogue in open pairs, then in closed pairs.

    A to give learners opportunities for fluency practice

    B to give learners guided practice

    C to develop learners' confidence about speaking in English

14 Learners write, then perform their own dialogues.

    A to give learners integrated skills practice

    B to give learners an opportunity to recycle language

    C to give learners practice in process writing

For questions **15-20**, match the general syllabus aims with the learning outcomes from a teacher's lesson plans listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

General syllabus aims

> **A** to prepare learners for an examination
>
> **B** to equip learners with a range of useful functions
>
> **C** to provide exposure to authentic language use

Learning outcomes

15 Learners will be more enthusiastic about reading narrative fiction.

16 Learners will improve their ability to write within strict word limits.

17 Learners will have practised making requests and asking for information.

18 Learners will be more confident about watching films in English.

19 Learners will have used language for asking for and understanding directions.

20 Learners will be familiar with standard task types.

For questions **21-27**, match the lesson plan components with the extracts from a teacher's lesson plan listed **A-H**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-H**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Lesson plan components

A Timetable fit
B Main aim
C Procedures
D Stage aim
E Personal aim
F Assumptions
G Anticipated problems
H Possible solutions

Lesson plan extracts

21 Revise the formation and use of comparative and superlative adjectives.

22 Although the topic is unfamiliar, learners should find it motivating.

23 following a lesson on conditional sentences and preparing for a class test

24 Some learners may not remember the vocabulary from the last lesson.

25 to make clearer connections between one stage and the next

26 to check learners' understanding of new lexical items

27 Give instructions in written form if learners have difficulties understanding them.

For questions **28-33**, read the stages of an integrated skills lesson and fill in the missing stages from the options listed **A-F**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-F**) on your answer sheet.

Stages

A Groups read a transcript and discuss the possible content of the missing sections.
B Teacher gives feedback on language errors.
C Learners read an article about sports training.
D Each group produces a plan for a new sports centre.
E Each group decides which plan they think is best.
F Teacher uses visuals to introduce the topic.

Lesson plan

• Warmer: learners mingle to form groups.
28 ....
• In groups, learners brainstorm vocabulary related to sports.
29 ....
• Learners listen to the dialogue to check their predictions.
30 ....
• Learners answer detail questions about the text.
31 ....
• Groups prepare then give their presentations.
32 ....
• The whole class discusses the advantages and disadvantages of all the plans.
33 ....

For questions **34-40**, look at the assessment aims and the three instructions listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the instructions match the assessment aims. One instruction does **NOT**.

Mark the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** match the assessment aim on your answer sheet.

---

34 to check learners' understanding of recently taught vocabulary

    A Put the words into groups under the appropriate headings.
    B Complete the spaces in the text, using the words in the box.
    C Check the meanings of these words in your dictionaries.

35 to assess learners' interactive speaking skills

    A Discuss the advantages and disadvantages with your partner.
    B Repeat this chant with your classmates.
    C Use the prompt cards to guide your role-play.

36 to test learners' accuracy and control of grammatical structures

    A Put the sentences into the same order as the events in the pictures.
    B Complete each sentence so that it means exactly the same as the one before it.
    C Put the words into the correct order to form sentences.

37 to assess learners' reading skills

    A Choose the sentence which best summarises the text.
    B Decide if the following statements are true (T) or false (F), or if the information is not mentioned.
    C Correct the underlined grammar mistakes in the following sentences.

38 to assess learners' awareness of features of connected speech

    A Underline the syllables that you expect to be stressed.
    B Listen to the ten words again and underline the words you don't understand.
    C Draw a line to show where there is linking between words.

39 to assess learners' listening skills

    A Write a message to your friend about the phone call you've just heard.
    B Tick the topics that are mentioned by the speaker.
    C Read the questions and say them with the correct intonation.

40 to assess learners' writing skills

    A Listen to the conversation and note down the names you hear.
    B Complete the topic sentence for each paragraph.
    C Complete the form with the appropriate personal information.

For questions **41-47**, match the dictionary entries with the types of dictionary listed **A-C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-C**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Types of dictionary

> **A** Dictionary of idioms
> **B** Dictionary of language and culture
> **C** Dictionary of phrasal verbs

Dictionary entries

41	**to give someone the cold shoulder** (vt) to be unfriendly to someone on purpose Example: Wife: Why do you always **give my mother the cold shoulder** when she comes to visit us? Husband: Because she always criticises me!

42	**breeze** **shoot the breeze** If you **shoot the breeze**, you talk with other people in an informal and friendly way.

43	**Race Re.la.tions Act, the** /ˌ· ·ˈ·· ˌ·/ a law passed in the UK in 1976 to protect the legal rights especially of black and Asian people, and to make sure that people of all races are treated fairly and equally

44	**take down** sth or **take** sth **down** to write something, especially something that someone says. *The police officer took my name and address down and said that he would contact me shortly. Did you take down that number?*

45	**pe.tro.dol.lar** /ˈpetrəʊˌdɒləʳll-ˌdɑːl-/ *n tech* an American dollar earned by the sale of oil, especially by the oil-producing countries of the Middle East

46	**family tree** /ˌ··· ˈ·/ *n* a plan or drawing showing the relationship of the members of a family, especially one that covers a long period. In Britain and the US, many people like to spend time finding out about their family tree.

47	**melting pot**
	in the melting pot
	If something is **in the melting pot**, it is constantly changing, so that you do not know what will finally happen to it.
	NOTE A 'melting pot' is a container in which metal is melted down before being made into new objects

For questions **48-54**, choose the best option (**A**, **B** or **C**) to complete each statement about reference resources.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

---

48   The main purpose of using a dictionary of collocations is to

     A   get to know which words go together.

     B   discover the meanings of new words.

     C   learn how to pronounce words correctly.

49   The main purpose of working with a bilingual dictionary is to

     A   find translations of new words.

     B   practise using new vocabulary.

     C   find definitions in your own language.

50   The main purpose of using a teacher's book accompanying a coursebook is to

     A   identify learners' revision needs.

     B   plan from lesson to lesson.

     C   design materials.

51   The main purpose of using a language awareness book for teachers is for teachers to

     A   improve their knowledge of the language.

     B   check the common collocations of words.

     C   find practice material for their students.

52   The main purpose of using a book about L1 interference is to

     A   anticipate learners' likely errors.

     B   find supplementary teaching materials.

     C   check learners' understanding.

53   The main purpose of using an L2 monolingual dictionary is to

     A   look up definitions in two languages.

     B   check the register of new language.

     C   see examples of meaning in context.

54 The main purpose of using a grammar reference book when planning lessons is to

    A keep up to date with new words and expressions.

    B find practice exercises for learners.

    C help identify the use of target language.

For questions **55-61**, look at the incomplete statements about adapting materials and the three options for completing them listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the options complete the statements correctly. One option does **NOT**.

Mark the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** complete the sentence correctly on your answer sheet.

---

55 If a practice exercise in the coursebook is too short, I often

    A write some more items practising the same structure.

    B use the same items again with different learners.

    C find a similar exercise in a supplementary resource book.

56 If a reading text includes out-of-date information, I often

    A look for another text on the same topic.

    B find the latest information to bring the text up to date.

    C use it anyway because the learners won't know it's out-of-date.

57 If there isn't enough listening practice in the coursebook, I often

    A look for a listening task at the right level on the web.

    B make my own recording of a reading text from the book.

    C give the learners an extra reading task instead.

58 If a unit in the coursebook is too long, I often

    A just do the first half.

    B leave out activities that are too easy or too difficult for the learners.

    C set some exercises for homework instead of doing them in class.

59 If the coursebook units all follow the same sequence, I often

    A ask the learners to write their own comprehension questions.

    B do some of the activities in a different way.

    C replace some of the activities with similar ones of my own.

60 If some learners find the coursebook too difficult, I often

    A give different practice materials to different groups.

    B look for more challenging materials in a teacher's resource book.

    C ask the stronger learners to help the weaker ones.

61 If the coursebook lessons all seem to have a similar pace, I
   A use a different interaction pattern for some tasks.
   B make some of the activities more visual.
   C give strict time limits for some tasks.

For questions **62-67**, match the teachers' comments about coursebooks with the uses of a coursebook listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Uses of a coursebook

A contextualising
B explaining
C practising

Teachers' comments

62 There's a very useful grammar reference section at the back of the book.

63 There are lots of opportunities for learners to use the language and the texts are motivating.

64 My young learners love the cartoons it uses to set the scene in each unit.

65 I like the way it uses situations that are related to teenagers' lives and interests.

66 The simple language it uses makes all the new ideas and concepts clear for my students.

67 There's a really good number of activities.

For questions **68-74**, look at the incomplete statements about supplementary materials and the three options for completing them listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the options complete the statements correctly. One option does **NOT**.

Mark the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** complete the statement correctly on your answer sheet.

---

68 A range of graded readers

   A gives learners the chance to read at their own pace.
   B provides a variety of texts to motivate learners.
   C allows the whole class to read the same book together.

69 A pronunciation practice book

   A enables learners to work on individual sounds.
   B helps learners to improve their stress and intonation.
   C helps learners to practise their interactive skills.

70 A board game

   A can focus on particular areas of language.
   B can help learners to analyse how language is used.
   C is a motivating way to give learners language practice.

71 A DVD film with subtitles

   A enables learners to read and listen at the same time.
   B helps learners to compare sound and spelling.
   C makes listening comprehension more challenging.

72 Interactive exercises on a computer

   A are designed for advanced learners only.
   B are highly motivating for many learners.
   C provide useful extension work.

73 Skills practice books

   A are a useful way of supplementing the coursebook.
   B help learners to check their own progress.
   C expose learners to additional language.

74 Exam practice books

   A focus on motivating learners.
   B familiarise learners with standard test types.
   C often include answer keys.

For questions **75-80**, match the teaching aids with the teaching functions listed **A-G**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-G**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Teaching functions

A to monitor and give feedback on learners' spoken language

B to show situations giving cultural information

C to provide a wide range of reference resources and texts for project work

D to record new vocabulary and use for poster activities

E to help visual learners correct their pronunciation

F to bring things from the outside world into the classroom

G to introduce young learners to new language through games and drama

Teaching aids

75 phonemic chart

76 DVD

77 school library

78 language laboratory

79 flipchart

80 realia

Module 3 Managing the teaching and learning process

Part 1 Teachers' and learners' language in the classroom

Unit 27   Using language appropriately for a range of classroom functions

■ **How do we use language appropriately for classroom functions?**

Classroom **functions** are the purposes for which we use language in the classroom. These functions are many and varied, for example explaining and **instructing**. For each classroom function there are different **exponents** we can use. The choice of exponent depends on the learning **context** and purpose, the learners' **needs**, their age and level. When we choose language that is right for the situation and our audience, we say that we use language **appropriately**.

■ **Key concepts**

> What are some of the more common classroom functions of teacher language and their exponents? List them.

Here is a sample of classroom **discourse** from a beginner class of young learners. How many of the classroom functions which you listed can you find?

Teacher:	Stand up, Adam. Stand up, Evi. OK, Adam will ask and Evi will answer.	1
	(*points to dialogue on board*). Um, yes, read this one.	2
Adam:	May I borrow your pencil, please? (*reads from board*)	3
Evi:	Here you are.	4
Teacher:	Now come on, Evi, look at Adam. (*Evi is looking fixedly at the board*).	5
Adam:	Thank you.	6
Evi:	You are welcome. (*turns round and looks shyly at Adam*).	7
Teacher:	Oh er, Shona (*pause*) and (*pause*) Brenda (*pause*). Come on, Shona,	8
	ask ... (*pause*)	9
Shona:	May I borrow your pencil, please?	10
Teacher:	Brenda, look at Shona.	11
Brenda:	You are welcome.	12
Teacher:	Welcome (*teacher is not satisfied with pupil's pronunciation*)	13
Brenda:	Welcome (*pupil repeats*)	14
Teacher:	May I borrow your pencil, please? Brenda, a bit louder.	15
	Look at each other when you ask questions.	16
	(from *Children Learning English* by Jayne Moon, Macmillan Heinmann 2000)	

Let's look at the some of the functions and exponents of teacher language in the sample in detail.

Getting learners' attention. *Stand up, Adam. Stand up, Evi.* (Line 1)
The teacher is **getting the learners' attention** at the beginning of the **sequence**. The teacher wants everyone to listen and wants Adam and Evi to stand up. There are different times in a lesson when we need to get the learners' attention, for example when we close an activity or when we want learners to look at the board. We usually keep these **utterances** short, and very often teachers develop their own exponents for getting attention with their different classes.

Instructing. *OK, Adam will ask and Evi will answer.* (line 1) /*read this one.* (line 2) / *look at Adam.* (line 5) /*Brenda, look at Shona.* (line 11) /*Look at each other when you ask questions.* (line 16)
The teacher gives learners instructions throughout the teaching sequence: before they start, during the activity (the instructions at this point are about non-linguistic behaviour) and at the end as a reminder. The language of instructions often uses the imperative, even with higher-level / older learners.

Modelling. *Welcome* (line 13) /*May I borrow your pencil, please?* (line 15)
The teacher **models** (gives a clear example of the **target language**) at two points in this teaching sequence. It is important, when we model language orally, that we say only what we want learners to repeat, as the teacher does here. In the first example Brenda (the learner) repeats the word *welcome* after the teacher has said it. In the second example, the teacher provides a model of the **structure** for the whole class, but they don't repeat it immediately.
In this teaching sequence the modelling is oral. We also model language in writing. We can guess that there is a written model on the board in this teaching sequence as the teacher says *read this one*.

Encouraging and instructing. *Now come on, Evi,* (line 5) /*Brenda, a bit louder.* (line 15)
Learners are often lacking in **confidence** and shy about speaking in front of the class. We can **encourage** them by using language which makes them feel positive about what they can do and which reduces their level of anxiety. We sometimes also have to tell them what to do (**instructing**).

Nominating *Oh er, Shona* (pause) *and* (pause) *Brenda* (pause). (line 8)
This is just one example of **nominating** (choosing and naming one learner to speak or do a particular **task**) in this teaching sequence. We use learners' names for a number of reasons, for example to get their attention, to make them feel we know who they are, to make sure that different learners answer.

Prompting a learner to continue. *Come on, Shona, ask …* (lines 8-9)
Prompting (helping learners think of ideas or remember a word or phrase or what to do) can sometimes be quite similar to encouraging. When we prompt we provide words, phrases, ideas or even time to help the learner continue or remember what to say. This means we sometimes leave our utterance unfinished for the learner to finish it for us, as in this example.

There is a range of different exponents for each classroom function. The exponents that teachers choose depend on the context, age and language level of the learners

and the **formality** or **informality** of the teaching situation. The exponents that teachers use must always be appropriate for the situation. Here are some examples of exponents for **eliciting**. You can see that some would be more appropriate to use in certain classrooms or with certain students rather than others.

Kyoko?
Answer, please?
What's number four?
Can anyone tell me the answer to number four?
Mr Giuliani?
Would anyone like to try answering number four?

Most of the time, teachers are able to communicate their message successfully to the learners using the target language, accompanied by **gestures** where appropriate. However, in some situations, particularly with young learners and with beginner or elementary learners, it may be necessary for the teacher to use the **mother tongue** or **L1** from time to time. These situations include:

- problems with **discipline**, for example the teacher needs to quickly stop a situation from getting out of control
- possible injury or danger to a learner, for example the teacher notices that a learner's chair is broken
- looking after a learner, for example a learner is very upset for personal reasons
- repeating instructions in L1 after they have been given in the target language, for example with a beginner young learner group
- checking understanding of more **abstract** vocabulary, for example with an advanced class.

It is not a good idea for teachers to use more L1 in the classroom than is necessary. If they do, learners can become more unwilling to use the target language because they are used to hearing (and perhaps using) L1.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Exponents used in the classroom must be appropriate for the classroom function, for the learning context and purpose, and for the level and age of the learners. Examples of when exponents might be **inappropriate** are: if the language is above the learners' level; if the language is too **informal** or direct and might seem impolite, for example: '*Sit down and get on with your work*' spoken to a learner in a business class.
- Language should be **graded** to suit the language level and age of the learners. Grading language means choosing exponents that are suitable for the language level of the learners. For example, with beginners we use simple words and phrases, but with higher-level learners our language can be more **complex**. Grading means using language at the right level for the learners to understand.
- Language needs to be sequenced appropriately to provide learners with a range of learning opportunities. **Sequencing** means using language in a **logical** order. This is particularly important for explanations and instructions, for example: *Listen. Work*

with a partner rather than *Work with a partner. Listen.* We usually give longer sets of instructions to learners in sections as and when they need them.

- Learners can learn **chunks** of language, just by hearing them again and again. So it is useful to use a fixed range of exponents for classroom functions at the early stages of learning, for example: *Open your books and look at page* ... Once learners are familiar with a set of exponents, we can extend the range to suit their level. With more advanced learners, we can take the opportunity to **expose** them to a wide range of language through the functional exponents we use.
- Choosing which exponents we're going to use for classroom functions before the lesson is important. If we do not plan or think about what language to use, we might use the L1, or language which is too complex or too simple, or language which does not respect the learners.

See Unit 4 for functions.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES   *(See pages 242-3 for answers)*

1 Look at this transcript from a lesson. For each underlined section of teacher talk, identify the classroom function. After you have done the activity, decide what level of class this is.

Teacher: OK ... <u>who can make the first sentence here?</u> ... Who wants to make a sentence about Penny ... or about ... <u>Abdullah, make a sentence about Penny, please.</u>

Student 1: What does Benn –

Teacher: No, no questions yet ... <u>just make a sentence.</u>

Student 2: Which one?

Teacher: No, no questions.

Student 2: Ah, it's Benny?

Teacher: <u>Yes, tell me something about Penny.</u>

Student 2: Benny washing –

Teacher: IS washing. <u>Penny IS washing.</u>

Student 2: Uh, shirt ... er ... on the last day ... the last day ... on the last day ... no.

Teacher: <u>Yesterday?</u>

Student 2: Yes.

Teacher: OK ... <u>What did she wash yesterday?</u>

Student 2: She was wash ... er She washing.

Teacher: <u>Mohammed, can you help him?</u>

2 Look at these three sets of teacher instructions. In each example, one of the instructions (A, B, C, or D) is out of sequence. Decide which one is out of sequence and then order the set of instructions correctly.

1 A Ready? I'm going to play the CD. Listen.
   B Take out your student books and turn to page 50.
   C Look at exercise 3.
   D Read the five true/false questions.

2 A On your own, write a list of what you ate for breakfast.
   B Work with the person sitting next to you.
   C Take it in turns to tell your partner what you ate.
   D Don't show your list to your partner.

3 A In groups of four, brainstorm some ideas about your personal heroes.

B Choose some points to use in your essay.

C Write a draft of your essay.

D Read the model essay in your student book to remind you of the organisation.

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I don't need to think about the exponents I'm going to use in my lessons. I just say what comes into my head, for example when I'm explaining some language or setting up group work.

2 My learners speak the same L1 as I do. So it's quicker and easier to set up activities, check understanding and things like that in the mother tongue.

3 I listened to an audio recording of one of my lessons. I noticed that I always use the same exponents. I don't think this is a good idea.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 For useful examples of classroom language for young learner classrooms, look at *English for Primary Teachers* by Mary Slattery and Jane Willis, Oxford University Press 2001. The classroom language is also on CD. It has been translated into several languages.

2 Audio-record a short section of one of your lessons. Listen to it and write down in your Teacher Portfolio some of the language you used to manage events in the classroom. What do you notice about the language you used? Do you think the exponents are appropriate for the learning purpose, context, age and level of the learners? If not, what could you change?

3 Use the *TKT Glossary* or a dictionary to find the meaning of these terms for classroom functions: *swap, set a question, stimulate discussion, report back, exchange*.

TKT practice task 27 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the examples of teacher's language in a class of elementary learners and the three possible trainer's comments on the language listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the trainer's comment (**A**, **B** or **C**) which matches the teacher's language.

---

1 If any of you don't understand what to do, I can repeat the instructions for you. OK?

   A You need to grade your language better for this class.

   B Try talking to the whole class together.

   C Why don't you prompt them here rather than elicit?

2 Who can help Juan with the answer?

   A You could ignore his answer.

   B Can you think of another way of checking understanding?

   C That was a good example of eliciting help from peers.

3 Now, we're going to do a brainstorming activity together and build a mind map on the board. Ready?

   A Can you revise the new vocabulary instead?

   B Wasn't the sequencing of your instructions a bit confusing?

   C How can you reformulate that so learners will understand?

4 Listen, … *comfortable*. Now repeat together.

   A Be careful with style. This was a little too formal.

   B You paused nicely. This gave students time to focus.

   C I'm not sure everyone was ready for the listening comprehension activity.

5 Now let's see. The family live in a … .

   A Your prompting worked this time. The students remembered the word. Yes - *flat*.

   B Remember it's important to get everyone's attention before giving instructions.

   C Try praising students a little more. You'll find they respond well.

6 Class. Shut up. Bernard is speaking.

   A Good. It's important that students learn to listen to each other.

   B It's not appropriate to say that to students. What else could you say?

   C When prompting, wait to see if the students can help before you make suggestions.

7 That's not the right answer. Try again. The question asks for three names.

   A Your feedback was very useful. It helped the student understand what was wrong.

   B When you correct students, try a different technique. You use echo correction a lot.

   C Prediction activities are a good way of activating students' vocabulary. They give them confidence.

Unit 28 Identifying the functions of learners' language

■ How do we identify the functions of learners' language?

The **functions** of learners' language are the purposes for which learners use language in the classroom. These purposes include taking part in **tasks** and activities, **interacting** with the teacher and with each other. Learners make use of a wide range of language functions as they take part in different aspects of a lesson, for example **greeting**, explaining, suggesting, checking instructions, **negotiating** (having a discussion in order to reach agreement), agreeing, disagreeing, **prompting**. The **exponents** they use to express these different language functions will vary according to their **needs**, age, level and the learning **context**.

■ Key concepts

What are some of the functions learners use at different points in a lesson? List them.

Read through the stages of this lesson. There are examples of some of the functions learners could use at each stage.

Outline of the stages of a lesson	Learners' possible language functions
1 The teacher enters a noisy classroom and asks the learners to be quiet. The teacher greets the learners (e.g. says hello) and they reply. The teacher quickly checks through the homework with the class before collecting it.	greeting, apologising, explaining, checking answers, accepting a correction, expressing doubt/surprise
2 The teacher hands out a reading text (a story) and gives learners instructions for the pre-reading discussion task. The learners check the instructions with the teacher and then do the task in pairs before class feedback.	**asking for clarification**, suggesting, giving reasons, negotiating, checking, repeating
3 The teacher sets the questions for the reading task. Learners do the task individually, then check in pairs before the teacher checks with the class.	negotiating, confirming answers, agreeing, disagreeing, asking for an opinion, providing information, **acknowledging** (showing you have noticed)
4 The teacher asks the learners to retell the story in their own words, checking understanding of vocabulary at the same time. The teacher focuses on pronunciation of new vocabulary.	retelling a story, **summarising**, explaining, giving a definition, **speculating** (making a guess using information about the situation), repeating, **self-correcting**
5 The teacher sets homework for the following day. The lesson ends.	checking instructions, asking for clarification, confirming information, saying goodbye

The functions learners use are often the same as those used by teachers, for example **clarifying** instructions (repeating or changing them so that they are clear), giving

a definition, checking instructions. This is because of the interactive nature of the classroom. However, teachers will tend to do more **instructing** than learners, and learners will tend to use different exponents to express the same language functions. The exponents learners use to express different language functions will vary according to their age, learning needs, level and the learning context.

There is a range of different exponents for each classroom function. The exponents that learners choose and use will vary. We teach our learners to use exponents which are **appropriate** for the context in which they are learning and in which they will be using the language, for example in a business situation. Here are some examples of a range of exponents for suggesting. You can see that they would not all be suitable for teaching to all learners.

This?

Let's do this.

Why don't we start with this picture?

Wait a minute. How about we begin here and then it'll be easier to do the rest of the task.

I've got an idea. What do you all think if we begin our discussion in groups and then after five minutes, we can share our ideas together as a whole group?

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Learners need a range of exponents so that they can interact appropriately with each other and with the teacher. In most classrooms, learners will use exponents which are **neutral** in style. However, in some learning contexts, for example with business or commercial students, it is useful for learners to learn exponents which are less **formal**, for example for use in a classroom/social context, or exponents which are more formal, for example for use in business meetings.

- Students can learn exponents as language **chunks.** They don't need to understand the grammar of the **utterance**. They need to know when to use it and what it means; for example: *It's my turn./It's your turn./I'm first./After you./I've won.*

- Sets of useful exponents can be displayed on the classroom walls as a reminder for learners.

- Exponents for common language functions should be introduced on a step-by-step basis. If we **encourage** learners to use these exponents regularly during lessons, they soon get used to using English as the medium of interaction. Many **coursebooks** or **textbooks** introduce exponents for classroom functions on a regular basis.

- Elementary learners, both adults and children, may not have sufficient English to be able to communicate the range of language functions in a typical lesson in the **target language**. This means that either they can't communicate as they want to (in English) or that they use **L1**. It's important to have a clear policy about use of L1 in class: when learners can use it and how much we let them use.

- Exponents can be introduced to learners by teachers **modelling** them as part of their own classroom language. For example, by using the exponent *Do you agree?* when **eliciting** students' opinions, we provide them with an exponent which they can use when eliciting each other's opinions in pair and group work.

Look at this transcript of part of a discussion activity between students. There are two speakers. Identify the main language function of each of the exponents underlined.

Maria: <u>My next-door neighbour ... he make much noisy</u> ... I can't tell to him because he's very good ... um ... kind.

Sylvia: <u>You don't want to say anything because get angry.</u> <u>Me do the same thing</u> because I've got one neighbour in my place, and do something bad but I don't like to say because ...

Maria: <u>Make upsetting ... upset.</u>

Sylvia: <u>Yeah make neighbour upset.</u>

Maria: I get worry ...

Sylvia: <u>To say something of course, like everyone</u> ...

Maria: <u>Er... no. Not that.</u> I not like them to see what I'm doing – when I coming home. That's no good. They want to check everything.

Sylvia: <u>Check?</u>

Maria: <u>Yeah, you know, learn what I do, when coming</u> ...

Sylvia: <u>Oh I see</u> ... it's a difficult ... yeah, difficult.

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 If I tried to teach my students all the exponents they need for everyday classroom functions, I'd never have time to teach them the language from the coursebook!

2 My learners usually use their L1 when they work in groups and when they ask me questions. I don't think they need to use English for these parts of the lesson.

3 My intermediate learners have their favourite expressions, like *I agree. Good idea.* I think they should use more complex language at their level.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Look in your coursebook at a lesson you are going to teach this or next week. Choose one interactive activity from the lesson. Brainstorm the likely language functions your learners will need to be able to complete the activity. Then for each function, write down at least one exponent that they don't know but that is appropriate for their level/age/context. Think how you are going to introduce them to this new language and help them to use it in the activity. Teach the lesson, introducing the exponents as you have planned. After the lesson, reflect on the outcomes in your Teacher Portfolio.

2 Choose two language functions which are common to teacher and learner language, e.g. encouraging, prompting, correcting. In your Teacher Portfolio, list four examples of exponents for each one, two which are appropriate for the teacher to use and two which are appropriate for the learners to use. Are any of the exponents applicable to both teachers and learners?

TKT practice task 28 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the examples of learner language with the functions listed **A-H**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Functions

A expressing doubt
B expressing support
C highlighting a grammatical
   structure
D giving reasons
E negotiating
F requesting clarification
G reformulating
H organising ideas

Examples of learner language

1 Let's look at the website first. Is that OK?
2 I think your answer should be 'he's seen', not 'he saw'. It should be the present perfect.
3 OK, so he got up, he had a shower – no, he had breakfast, then he had a shower – then … er … he got dressed. Right, now I'm ready to write it.
4 I'm not sure. I really don't think it's right.
5 I think they shouldn't allow mobile phones in schools because they can disturb the class.
6 That's a good idea.
7 When I was on holiday last summer I have tried … I tried snowboarding for the first time.

Unit 29 Categorising learners' mistakes

■ How do we categorise learners' mistakes?

Mistakes are either **errors** or **slips**. There are two main reasons why learners make errors: **L1 interference** and the stage of the learner's development. Mistakes result in problems of **accuracy**, i.e. students not using the correct form of the language; of **appropriacy**, i.e. students not using language suitable for the **context** or the situation; or of communication, i.e. students not making their message clear. We can categorise learners' mistakes in accuracy and appropriacy in a number of different ways. We can refer, for example, to what is missing from a word, sentence or **utterance**, what is wrongly used, what is unnecessary and what is **inappropriate** (see Unit 11 for more information on the role of error).

■ Key concepts

What kinds of mistakes do learners make?

Here are some examples of the ways in which we can categorise learners' mistakes.

Categories	Examples	Descriptions
Inaccuracy: pronunciation	*There was a terrible flood.* /fluːd/	Incorrect pronunciation of /flʌd/
Inaccuracy: grammatical	• *We swum in the lake every summer.* • *He have taken more than 100 photos last week.* • *News are reported 24 hours a day.* • *I'm pleased that you are interested of the story.* • *Do you come from the Canada?*	• Wrong/incorrect verb form • Unnecessary auxiliary used as part of the wrong tense / wrong subject-verb agreement • Wrong/incorrect subject-verb agreement • Wrong/incorrect (dependent) preposition • Unnecessary article
Inappropriate style/ **register**	*Give me a cup of coffee.* (used in a café to order a coffee)	Inappropriate register
Inaccuracy: lexical	*My grandfather is a senior man.*	Wrong/incorrect adjective
Inaccuracy: spelling	*The leafs were a beautiful colour.*	Wrong/incorrect spelling (plural *leaves*)
Inaccuracy: **punctuation**	*Where does he live.*	Inaccurate use of full stop

Mistakes can of course be oral or written. We can see some further examples of them in these **extracts**.

Oral mistakes

Here is an example of spoken learner **discourse** from the classroom. Two students are checking their answers from a listening activity. The mistakes are underlined.

Student A: <u>What you have for this one?</u> I have 'the supermarket'. He wants food and drink.

Student B: Yes, supermarket. And number two? I think it is his birthday, but <u>he talks for the birthday of friend</u> also.

Student A: Yes friend's birthday. He is sixty. (/'siksti/)

Student B: Sixty (/'siksti/) …? I think they are friends in school.

Student A: No, sixty (/'siksti/) … <u>as me and you</u> …

Student B: (laughing) <u>Sixteen (/siks'ti:n/) … not sixty (/'siksti/)</u> … <u>you speak bad</u>.

Student A: <u>That's nokind</u> … number three … I have …

Now read about the kinds of mistakes the students made.

<u>*What you have for this one?*</u> This **utterance** (unit of speech) is missing the auxiliary verb *do* and is an example of grammatical inaccuracy.

<u>*he talks for the birthday of friend*</u> There are several grammatical inaccuracies in this utterance: the preposition *for* after *talk* is incorrect; the possessive adjective *his* is missing and the phrase *the birthday of friend* should be constructed using the possessive '*s*' (*he talks about his friend's birthday*).

<u>*as me and you*</u> In this utterance the adverb *as* is used incorrectly, in place of the preposition *like*. This is an example of grammatical inaccuracy.

<u>*sixteen (/sikst'i:n/) … not sixty (/'siksti/).*</u> Student A pronounces the person's age incorrectly, making the friend 60, not 16.

<u>*you speak bad*</u> This utterance is an example of inappropriate language and grammatical inaccuracy. This is inappropriate language for one student to say to another student because it is impolite. In addition, the student has not formed the adverb correctly.

<u>*That's nokind*</u> In this utterance, the student has used an incorrect **prefix** to make the adjective *kind* negative. The correct form of this adjective is *unkind*.

The mistakes here are in different kinds of accuracy (grammatical and pronunciation) and in appropriacy.

Written mistakes

Here is an informal letter written by an intermediate learner. The numbers in the margin refer to the underlined mistakes in each line.

> 34 Green Street
> Brighton
> BN4 2QA
> 22 May
>
> Dear Janet
>
> 1 Thanks for your letter. I'm <u>absolutely excited</u> that you are coming to visit me in
> 2 Brighton. I hope you can stay for a week <u>for</u> I want to show you the town.
> 3 There are a lot of things to do in Brighton. I like <u>shoping</u>. We've got all the
> 4 big, famous shops here and there are also many small shops. You like <u>classic</u> music
> 5 I think. I will <u>look after</u> a concert for us to see.
>
> See you soon.
>
> 6 <u>Yours sincerely</u>
>
> Sarah

Now read about some of the mistakes the students made.

1 Incorrect intensifier (line 1): we use *absolutely* with extreme adjectives, for example *absolutely exhausted*. *Very* would be better here.

2 Inaccurate conjunction (line 2): *for* is incorrect here. *Because* would be more accurate.

3 Spelling (line 3): *shoping* is not spelt correctly.

4 Lexical inaccuracy (line 4): the adjective *classic* does not have the same meaning as *classical*. *Classical* would be correct here.

5 Lexical inaccuracy (line 5): *look after* is not the correct phrasal verb to use here. *Look for* would be accurate.

6 Inappropriate register (line 6): *Yours sincerely* is the close for a formal, not an informal, letter. *Yours* or *Best Wishes* would be more appropriate here.

These mistakes are in accuracy (grammatical, lexical and spelling) and appropriacy.

We can see that in speaking and writing, mistakes in accuracy relate to misusing forms of language and include grammatical, lexical, spelling, punctuation and pronunciation mistakes. Mistakes in appropriacy relate to misuse of register.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Learners can lose **motivation** if we correct every mistake they make. They become anxious and more unwilling to take risks and this can have a negative effect on their learning. We need to think carefully about what, how and when we correct.

- When correcting learners' written work, it is possible to use a **correction code**. This uses symbols, for example *sp* for spelling, which tells learners the type of mistake they have made. This can help **learner autonomy** because it raises learners' awareness of the types of mistakes they make and **encourages** them to correct their own mistakes. It's not possible to use a correction code with very young learners, because they are not able to categorise language in this way. (See Unit 32 for more on using correction codes.)

- How we **identify** and categorise mistakes influences the way we correct them. For example, learners may not have learnt the word or the **structure** yet; they may be using a word or structure from their first language by mistake (**L1 interference**); they may have great difficulty making certain sounds, which is another kind of L1 interference, or they may need more time to check and **edit** their writing.

- It is important not only to focus on mistakes of accuracy (e.g. grammar and **lexis**). Mistakes of appropriacy need correcting as well. Mistakes of appropriacy can often cause more misunderstanding and lack of communication than mistakes of grammar and lexis.

- Mistakes can be a very positive aspect of learning. They show us that learning is taking place and that learners are taking risks with the language.

- Some mistakes matter more than others. Mistakes that cause a breakdown in communication or cause miscommunication are more significant than those which do not, e.g. leaving off plural *s* is unlikely to cause a communication breakdown, while using the past instead of *going to* is likely to.

- It is useful to identify and categorise our learners' mistakes. We might identify common mistakes made by many students, or focus on mistakes made by individual students. We can use this information when we plan our lessons to make sure we focus on the problems that our students have, and help them develop ways to improve.
- We can get information on our learners' mistakes and their needs from homework **tasks**, **informal assessments**, observation checklists and so on.
- Students may also make mistakes in communication, e.g. in speaking, they may not be very fluent or may not have good **interactive strategies**, and in writing they may not organise their writing according to accepted structures. Learners' mistakes can be in accuracy, appropriacy or communication.

See Unit 32 for correcting learners.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(Open answers)*

Look at the table in the Key concepts section of the ways in which we categorise learners' mistakes. Think of at least two more examples for each category of typical mistakes your learners make. Include examples from their written work as well as from their oral work.

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I find it hard to categorise my learners' mistakes. I know something is wrong but I can't explain to the learners what it is.
2 It's very confusing for learners when we talk about *inappropriate* this or *incorrect* that. When something's wrong, it's wrong!
3 I can identify when there's a problem with word order but I don't always know why it's wrong.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Correct some of your learners' written work, and identify which are the most common types of mistake and categorise them. Think about why they might be making these mistakes. Which might be a result of L1 interference and which might be developmental? Write about what you have learned in your Teacher Portfolio.
2 Audio-record a short extract of your learners doing a task in the classroom. Identify the common mistakes and categorise them, as you did for activity 1. Reflect on the reasons for their mistakes and note your ideas in your Teacher Portfolio.
3 For more information on categorising learners' mistakes, look at:
   Chapter 9, Section 4 of *Learning Teaching* (Second edition) by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 2005
   http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/error-correction-1
   http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/error-correction-2
   Also look at 'Correcting written work' at:
   http://www.cambridge.org/elt/tkt

TKT practice task 29 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the learners' mistakes with the areas of grammar listed **A-D**.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Areas of grammar

A adverbs
B articles
C verb forms
D prepositions

Learners' mistakes

1 My sister wants to be dentist when she grows up.

2 If I seen him, I would have told him.

3 He is very keen of becoming a musician.

4 My sister and her husband always arrived lately.

5 I'm looking for accommodation to live on next year.

6 One of the students were late for class today.

7 I really want to visit the Oxford University next week.

Part 2 | Classroom management

Unit 30   Teacher roles

■ What are teacher roles?

Teachers need to behave in different ways at different **stages** of a lesson to manage the classroom and to successfully **guide** learners through the lesson. These different ways of behaving in and managing the class are called **teacher roles**. Teachers adopt (use) a number of different roles in every lesson. Teacher roles vary depending on the teaching approach (way of teaching) used and on the teachers' and learners' preferred **learning styles** and learning **needs**.

■ Key concepts

What roles do teachers adopt during a lesson? List four.

Here are some roles teachers often adopt.

Role	The teacher:
1 **Planner**	prepares and **reflects** on the lesson before teaching, **anticipates problems** and selects, designs and **adapts** materials.
2 **Manager**	organises the learning space, makes sure everything in the classroom is running smoothly and sets up rules and **routines** (i.e. things which are done regularly) for behaviour and **interaction**.
3 **Monitor/Observer**	goes around the class during individual, pair and group work activities, checking learning and providing support as necessary.
4 **Facilitator**	provides opportunities for learning, helps learners to access **resources** and develop **learner autonomy**.
5 **Diagnostician**	works out the causes of learners' difficulties.
6 **Language resource**	can be used by the learners for help and advice about language.
7 **Assessor**	**evaluates** the language level and attitudes of the learners by using different means of **informal** and **formal assessment**.
8 **Rapport** builder	tries to create a good relationship with and between learners.

You'll notice how teacher roles match with different aspects of teaching and with different stages of a lesson. We can be planners before the lesson, rapport builders during the **warm-up** and **lead-in** phase, language resources during the language **input** and practice phase, **monitors** during role-play, pairwork activities or writing, and assessors during the lesson, both formally and informally, and after the lesson when we are correcting learners' work.

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The teacher roles we adopt have to be **appropriate** for the teaching and learning **context**, the teaching approach, the lesson **aims,** the stage of the lesson, the type of activity and the age, level and attitude of the learners. A teacher using a **PPP** approach will, for example, at different times of the lesson, act as a controller, a **model** and a guide. However, these teacher roles are not so appropriate for a teacher using a **communicative approach**. Teacher roles more suitable for a communicative approach include facilitator, resource, provider of language, prompter.

Effective **classroom management**, i.e. organising the classroom and the learners, is dependent on the teacher adopting appropriate roles. For example, when learners arrive late in class or misbehave, the teacher needs to deal with the situation appropriately to ensure that the learners understand that this is not acceptable behaviour. In this situation, the teacher's role is primarily to maintain **discipline**. If, on the other hand, the teacher adopts **inappropriate** roles, this can have a negative effect on their classroom management. Imagine a situation where one learner is **dominating** the interaction in the classroom, resulting in other learners becoming annoyed and being unwilling to **participate** (take part in something). If the teacher lets the learner continue in a dominating role, he or she could lose the respect of the other students and will be less able to **facilitate** (make easier) their learning. However, if the teacher sets out clear classroom routines and codes of conduct in which learners **take turns** to participate and listen to each other's contributions, he or she will build rapport with the class and provide the learners with a more supportive learning environment.

There are several common situations in which a teacher has to adapt his or her role as appropriate to encourage smooth classroom management. These include learners not completing homework, monitoring learners during pair and group activities, learners failing to understand instructions, learners chatting during pair or group work and not focusing on the **task**.

The roles that teachers adopt also depend on the needs of the learners. With young learners, we might take on the role of a parent or a friend when a young student is unwell or unhappy. With teenage or adult learners, two of the key teacher roles are those of **motivating** students and maintaining **discipline** (establishing a clear system of rules and codes of behaviour). With adult students the teacher's roles are often those of facilitator, language resource and diagnostician.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- What we say, how we say it and what we do make our teacher roles clear to learners. When planning lessons, it is useful to first **identify** the roles we are going to take on during the lesson and then to think about what we are going to say and do to convey that role clearly to the learners.
- It takes practice and experience to know which teacher roles are appropriate with which classes and for which activities. Less experienced teachers may feel comfortable using a limited number of roles at first and then gradually extending their range.
- Some problems with classroom discipline, classroom management and facilitating learning are a result of teachers not adopting appropriate teacher roles.

- Learners take time to get used to the teacher working in different roles. For example, learners who are more familiar with a teacher in the role of manager might be confused by a teacher who takes on the role of facilitator. It is useful to provide some **learner training** and to introduce the new roles slowly so that learners get used to new ways of working.

- It is important to be flexible in teacher roles. Sometimes roles need to be changed because of circumstances in the lesson. For example, when we are monitoring a task and realise that learners have not understood the key language, we take on the role of language resource to **clarify** the language point so that learners can continue with the task.

- It is sometimes necessary to take on roles we do not always feel comfortable with. When learners do not complete homework tasks, for example, teachers have to be firmer in managing the learners than they usually are. The ability to take on appropriate roles in class is important for establishing class rapport and maintaining a positive and effective learning environment in the classroom.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 243 for answers)*

Here is an example of a classroom situation. Read and decide which role (A, B, or C) you think is the most appropriate for the teacher to adopt. Think about what the teacher might say (the exponents).

1 The teacher has just introduced the first conditional to a group of teenage, pre-intermediate students through a reading text and wants to find out if they understand what the structure means.
   A Language resource
   B Assessor
   C Monitor

2 Here are four classroom situations. Read and choose which classroom management choice (A, B or C) is most appropriate in each case. Why do you think it is the best course of action?
   1 The teacher has planned to start the lesson by going over homework set in the previous lesson. However, only half the class have done it.
      A The teacher starts the lesson by going over homework as he had planned.
      B The teacher puts the students into pairs, one who has done the homework and one who hasn't and goes over homework with the whole class.
      C The teacher collects the homework from the students who have done it and tells the other students to bring their completed homework to the next class.
   2 The teacher has finished what she planned to do in the lesson but there are still five minutes of the class left.
      A The teacher tells the students they can leave the class early.
      B The teacher tells students to close their books and to try and remember six of the new words from the lesson.
      C The teacher plays the listening text from the lesson again and tells students to listen more carefully.

3 Half the students always arrive late for the lesson because they have gym immediately beforehand.
   A The teacher gives a workbook exercise to the students who come on time.
   B The teacher punishes the students who come late.
   C The teacher prepares a game on the topic of the lesson for the students who come on time.

4 The students are passive and always wait for the teacher to tell them the answers and to give examples. He wants them to participate more actively in the lessons.
   A The teacher lets students check answers and ideas in pairs before eliciting answers from the class.
   B The teacher tells the students that they must participate more.
   C The teacher asks a question or asks for an example and then waits until a student answers.

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I like my class to be very organised and I like to be in control. I believe the main roles of a teacher are to manage and assess.
2 I think of myself as a facilitator in my classroom because I want my learners to become more independent.
3 I'm in my twenties. My students are the same age as me. I like the classes to be informal, so I don't think many of the teacher roles are appropriate for me.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Think about a lesson you have taught recently and look at the lesson plan. Which of the teacher roles in this unit did you use? Were you effective in making these roles clear to the learners? If not, why do you think that was? Are there any teacher roles that you didn't use and which, on reflection, you think would have been appropriate? Write your thoughts and reflections in your Teacher Portfolio.
2 Read *An A-Z of Classroom Management* by Simon Brown, English Teaching Publications, Issue 62, Keyways Publishing
   http://www.teacherplus.org/2009/october-2009/an-a-z-of-classroom-management
3 Look at 'Classroom management' at:
   http://www.cambridge.org/elt/tkt
   and also
   http://www.englishteacherlink.com/publication/ver/id/158/reacting-to-problem behaviour
   http://www.macmillanenglish.com/webinar.aspx?id=47122
4 Check the following roles in the *TKT Glossary* or in a dictionary: *contributor, counsellor, reflector, active role, passive role, narrator, supportive, unsupportive.*

TKT practice task 30 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the incomplete statements about teacher roles and the three options for completing them listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the options complete the statements correctly. One option does **NOT**.

Choose the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** complete the statement correctly.

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1 When acting as a monitor in pairwork, the teacher

   A stands watching the learners.
   B moves around the classroom.
   C partners a learner.

2 When acting as a language expert, the teacher

   A maintains discipline.
   B explains meaning to learners.
   C provides models.

3 When acting as a facilitator, the teacher

   A finds out learners' names.
   B develops learner autonomy.
   C encourages the use of learning strategies.

4 When acting as a manager, the teacher

   A organises learning resources.
   B presents new language.
   C sets up group work.

5 When acting as a diagnostician, the teacher

   A evaluates test results.
   B checks learners' homework.
   C introduces new lexis.

6 When acting as a rapport builder, the teacher

   A uses a correction code.
   B motivates learners.
   C gives positive feedback.

7 When acting as a resource for learners, the teacher

   A gives information on language.
   B gives homework.
   C advises on learning strategies.

Unit 31 Grouping learners

■ What does 'grouping learners' mean?

There are different ways in which we can organise our learners in the classroom.
For example, learners can work on their own, as a whole class, in pairs, in teams,
in groups. Organising learners into different working patterns is what we mean by
'grouping learners'.

■ Key concepts

What should we consider when grouping learners?

When planning our lessons, we decide which way of grouping learners or **interaction
patterns** to use. The interaction patterns we choose depend on the learners and their
learning styles, our own teaching style(s) and preferences, the teaching approach,
the learning **context**, the type of activity, the **aim** or learning purpose of the activity
and the **stage** in the lesson. There are many different interaction patterns to choose
from, e.g. **whole class** (the teacher leads the class and the learners focus on the
teacher), individuals, **open pairs** (two learners do a pairwork activity in front of
the class), **closed pairs** (learners all do an activity at the same time working with a
partner), groups, teams, **mingles**. Very often, the activity itself suggests a particular
interaction pattern.

Here are some examples:

Activity	Interaction pattern	Reason for using interaction pattern
Brainstorming	1 Groups or pairs: students working with other students. 2 Students to the teacher (**feedback**).	Reviews and shares students' knowledge of vocabulary and/or **structure** and the topic or **context**; develops **learning strategies**; energises the students and gets them all involved.
Bingo game	1 Whole class: teacher to the students. 2 Student to the teacher.	Reviews students' understanding of vocabulary; gives a change of **pace**; gives the teacher feedback; energises.
Reading and filling in a **chart**	1 Individuals (students complete the charts on their own). 2 Pairwork: student to student. 3 Open pairs (checking answers). Student to student with the teacher facilitating.	Calms students down, allows students to practise **scanning** in their own time; enables students to check their work together to give **confidence** before the class check.
Class **survey**	1 **Mingling** activity: students move around the classroom asking questions of other students. 2 Groups or pairs (students compare and discuss their answers). 3 Teacher asks different students in the class what they found out (feedback).	Gives students practice in all four **skills** and in managing their learning; gives opportunities for large amounts of practice; gives a change of pace; develops **learner autonomy**; every student in the class is active and involved.

Appropriate learner groupings have a positive effect on **class** or **group dynamics** (the relationships between the learners in the class or group) and on the teacher's ability to successfully manage the class and **facilitate** learning. Whole-class activities, such as mingles, enable all the students to practise the language at the same time. These activities are good for increasing confidence, especially amongst shy or weaker learners. Individual activities give students a chance to work at their own pace and to focus and organise their thoughts. Pair and group activities provide students with opportunities for developing longer **turns** and fluency through **interaction**. They also help with confidence building and give students opportunities for practice in a non-threatening environment.

On the other hand, poorly chosen groupings can result in problems in the classroom. Here are a few examples of classroom problems with possible reasons for them:

Classroom problems	Some possible reasons
Learners misbehave, e.g. they use their **mother tongue**, become noisy, don't do the activity.	Groups are too big; talkative learners are grouped with other talkative learners; friends are grouped with friends.
Learners are bored.	Learners are always in the same learner groupings.
Learners are very teacher-dependent.	Whole class work and individual work are the main learner groupings used; the teacher does not **encourage** or facilitate learner autonomy.
One or more learners **dominate** (has/have a strong influence on what happens / other learners get less chance to **participate** actively).	In whole-class or individual activities, the teacher allows the same learner(s) to answer; in pair and group work, dominating learners are paired with learners who allow themselves to be dominated.
One or more learners don't want to join in or participate.	There are few pair and group activities where learners are paired with other 'shy' learners or with learners with whom they feel comfortable.
Some learners have nothing to do because they have finished the activity more quickly than others.	Possible fast finishers are all grouped together rather than being mixed with learners of different working speeds.
Some learners are frustrated because they do not have time to finish the activity.	Slower learners are paired with slower learners.
Teachers are unable to **monitor** learners and learning successfully.	The above problems mean that the teacher has to manage the class and deal with difficulties rather than monitor and promote learning.

You can see from the table how much learner groupings can affect what happens in the classroom. Overall, it's important to have a balance and **variety** of learner groupings in any one lesson.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- It is useful to include a variety of interaction patterns in a lesson to keep the students interested and **motivated** and to give them different kinds of practice.
- Young learners do not have such fixed learning styles as adults and it is an important aspect of their development for teachers to introduce them to a range of learner groupings.
- All classes are **mixed ability**: students are at different points in their language learning, have different learning strengths and different intelligences.
- When grouping students in young learner classes, it is important to consider their **cognitive** and physical development. Young learners of the same age may not be at the same point in these aspects of development.
- Most of the time learners work well together in different groupings, but sometimes individual **learner characteristics** mean that some learners find it difficult to work together, e.g. one learner is shy and another is quite dominant.
- With a class of between 20 and 30 learners, we can manage a range of interaction patterns quite easily. With classes of more than 30 learners, interaction patterns such as pairs, groups, mingles, teams are possible, but need more careful planning.
- Gradual introduction of pair and group work is important when learners are used to working as a whole class. It is useful to start by doing short, quite structured pairwork activities and gradually introduce longer and more varied groupings.
- Activities do not always have to be done in the same learner groupings. Discussion activities can be done in teams rather than in groups or as a whole class, and role-plays in groups rather than pairs.
- Learners can be absent from class. It is frustrating when we plan groups for an activity and one or more of the learners are absent. So it's important to consider how we will manage, for example, if the predicted class of 20 (5 groups of 4) is a class of 18 on the day.
- Sometimes a student arrives late for class after we have organised the groupings for the activity. You can deal with this by putting the student in a group and have the group explain quickly to him or her what they are doing.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 243 for answers)*

Here is a lesson plan from a methodology book for primary learners.
Study the lesson plan and decide on appropriate learner groupings for each stage.
What aspects will you have to consider when grouping the learners?

Time	Teacher's activity	Pupils' activity
5-10 minutes	1 Warmer: brief revision of colours.	Pupils stand in lines behind flags of different colours. The teacher says a colour. Pupils behind the flag of that colour put up their hands.
10 minutes	2 Bring in a goldfish or a picture of a fish to introduce the topic to pupils. Discuss the fish – what it looks like, its colour, its parts. Check who has a fish at home.	Pupils gather round the tank and say what they know about fish. They tell each other something about their own fish.
	3 Tell pupils you are going to tell them a story. Pupils predict what the story will be. Get feedback from the pupils.	Pupils talk together to try to guess what will be in the story.
10 minutes	4 Explain the activity, i.e. pupils have to colour their fish as the story requests. Give out colours and photocopies of a fish drawing.	Group monitors give out crayons and blank sheets.
5 minutes	5 Tell the first part of the story with actions and pictures. Continue the story with instructions for colouring.	Pupils colour in the fish drawings, following instructions.
5 minutes	6 Get the pupils to compare drawings.	Pupils compare drawings.
	7 Elicit from different learners the colours of the little fish. Use sentence prompts, e.g. *His face is ...*	Pupils talk about the colours of the fish to the whole class, e.g. *His face is ...*
5 minutes	8 Ask pupils what they thought about the story, in L1 if necessary. Ask whether the big fish was right not to give the little fish colour for his lips.	Pupils give their opinions to the class.

(adapted from *Children Learning English* by Jayne Moon, Macmillan 2000)

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments. Which do you agree with and why?

1 My classes are only 45 minutes long, and it takes time to arrange students into different groupings for different activities. I think it's a waste of time.
2 When my students work in pairs and groups, the classroom becomes a noisy place. Other teachers comment on it in the staffroom. It makes me feel as if I'm not doing a good job.
3 I teach groups of business people and they prefer working on their own. I'm not sure if I should include other learner groupings or not.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Try out some learner groupings that you haven't tried before and write up the results in your Teacher Portfolio.

2 You will find some useful information on grouping young learners in Chapters 7 and 8 of *Children Learning English* by Jayne Moon, Macmillan 2000.

3 For more information on practical aspects of grouping learners and on interaction patterns, look at Module 16 of *A Course in Language Teaching* by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press 1996.

TKT practice task 31 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, match the teaching strategies with the problems with group or pairwork listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Problems with group or pairwork

> **A** Some students dominate.
> **B** Some students always finish first and get bored.
> **C** Some students use too much L1.

Teaching strategies

1 Plan short extension activities and have them ready to hand out to students.

2 Plan learner groupings carefully before the lesson so that all learners can take part.

3 Make sure students know the key expressions to use in the activities.

4 Demonstrate activities to provide students with models of language they need.

5 Make sure that activities are differentiated so that some students are challenged more.

6 Be ready to change learner groupings if some students are stopping others from taking part.

7 Make one student in each group responsible for monitoring language use.

Unit 32 Correcting learners

■ How do we correct learners?

We correct learners sometimes when they have made a mistake and we want to show them that something is wrong. There is a range of correction strategies and **techniques** we can use to **indicate** (show) that there is a mistake, and the ones we choose depend on a number of different **factors**, for example the **aim** of the activity, the age of the learners and the language level of the learners.

■ Key concepts

What strategies and techniques can we use for correcting learners' oral and written mistakes, and when do we use them?

Oral correction

1 **Time lines**. We can draw a time line on the board to show learners the relationship between the use of a verb tense and the time or aspect. This technique is particularly useful for mistakes such as *I have seen that film two weeks ago*. The time line to show this mistake might look like this.

Past ◄─────────── Now ─────────► Future

x
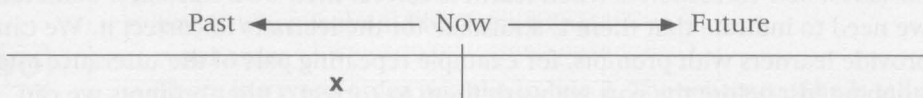
x = two weeks ago

This reminds learners that, because the event is in the past and the time is **specified**, they cannot use the present perfect. The correct sentence is *I saw that film two weeks ago*.

2 **Finger correction**. This shows learners where in an **utterance** they have made a mistake. We can indicate where the mistake is without speaking and **prompt** learners to self-correct. We show one hand to the class and point to each finger in turn as we say each word in the utterance. This technique is particularly effective when learners have left out a word in an utterance, because we can indicate that something is missing and they can see where in the utterance the missing word should go. It is also helpful when we want them to use a **contraction**, for example *I'm working* rather than *I am working*. We bring two fingers together to show that we want them to bring the two words together. (See illustration on page 168.)

3 **Gestures** and/or **facial expressions** are useful when we do not want to interrupt learners, but still want to show them that they have made a **slip**. A worried or questioning look from the teacher is often enough to indicate to learners that there is a problem with what they have said. As well as using facial expressions, it is possible to use gestures to indicate different kinds of mistake. One gesture that teachers often use to remind learners that a past tense is needed is to point back over their shoulder. The gestures that teachers use depend on what is **appropriate** for their culture and teaching situation.

4 Phonemic symbols. When learners are familiar with phonemic symbols, we can use them to focus on mispronounced sounds by pointing at the relevant symbols on the **phonemic chart** or writing the **relevant** symbol on the board. For example when a student uses a long **vowel** /uː/ when they should have used a short one /ʊ/, or when they mispronounce a **consonant**.

5 **Echo correcting** means repeating what a learner says with rising **intonation.** Repeating with rising intonation will show the learner that there is a mistake somewhere, because the rising intonation sounds like a question. This technique is effective when learners have made small slips which you feel confident they can correct themselves.

6 **Identifying** the mistake. Sometimes we need to **identify** the mistake by focusing learners' attention on it and telling them that there is a problem. This technique is more commonly used with **errors**. We might say 'Are you sure?' to indicate that there is a problem. We could then go on to provide the correct **version**.

7 Delayed correction. Sometimes it is best not to indicate or correct mistakes at the time they are made, for example when learners are taking part in role-plays or other **oral fluency** activities. As we **monitor** fluency activities we can make a note of any serious mistakes we hear. At the end of the activity, we can say the mistakes or write them on the board and ask learners what they think the problems are, and to suggest corrections without telling learners who made which mistakes.

8 Peer and **self-correction**. Peer correction involves learners correcting each other's mistakes. Self-correction is when learners correct their own mistakes. Sometimes we need to indicate that there is a mistake for the learners to correct it. We can provide learners with prompts, for example repeating part of the utterance and stopping just before the part we want them to correct. Other prompts we can use are gesture and facial expressions. Sometimes learners notice the mistake themselves and quickly correct it. Peer and self-correction help learners to become independent of the teacher and more aware of their own learning **needs**.

9 **Ignoring errors**. We ignore errors that are above the learners' language level. For example, an elementary learner telling us about what he did at the weekend might make an incorrect guess about how to talk about past time in English. We do not correct this mistake because the past simple is not a tense the learner has been taught yet. We might **reformulate** (see 10 below) part of the learner's utterance but we do not expect the learner to correct the mistake. We may also decide to ignore mistakes made by a particular learner because she is weak or shy. Finally, we often also ignore slips as learners can correct these themselves.

10 **Reformulating**. This is a technique which parents use when their young children make language mistakes. They correct the mistake by repeating the utterance correctly, without drawing the child's attention to the mistake. For example the child says 'We goed to the zoo yesterday' and the parent responds 'Yes, that's right, we went to the zoo yesterday'. We can also use this technique in the classroom, particularly when we do not want to interrupt a learner or stop the flow of the interaction.

11 **Recasting**. Sometimes we recast a student utterance by rewording it and saying it back to the learner in its improved form, for example the student says 'I am not of the same opinion as my friend' and the teacher says 'Oh, you mean you don't agree with him'.

12 Giving the rule and an example or definition. In some situations, it can help
learners if we provide the grammar rule and then give or **elicit** an example and a
definition. This would not be appropriate in a class of young learners but might be
appropriate in a class of adult learners at an high intermediate language level.

Written correction
Look at this story written by a learner. In the margin, there is a code written by the
teacher to show different kinds of mistakes. Can you work out what the code means?

> My Best Friend
>
> ⟨ʎ⟩ I going to tell you about my best friend. Her name is Betty. She is tall
> ⟨WO⟩ and has got long hair dark. Her favourite food is chocolate and her
> ⟨Sp⟩ favourite drink is cola. Her hobbies are writting short stories and
> ⟨V⟩ looking at TV. At the weekend we go shopping in the mall and meet our
> ⟨P⟩ friends. Its fun!

The teacher has used a **correction code** to indicate the types of mistakes that the
learner has made. This enables learners to make their own corrections. Here is an
explanation of the letters and symbols:

ʎ = word missing
There is a missing auxiliary in the first line. The learner has written 'I
going' when it should be 'I am going'.

WO = word order
There is a word order mistake in line 2. The sentence 'She is tall and has
got long hair dark' should be 'She is tall and has got long dark hair'.

Sp = spelling
There is a spelling mistake in line 3. The word 'writting' should be
'writing'.

V = vocabulary
There is a vocabulary mistake in line 4. The learner has used 'looking at'
when the correct word is 'watching'.

P = **punctuation** (comma, full stop, etc.)
The learner has used the wrong punctuation in line 5. The learner has
written 'Its' without the apostrophe. The correct version is 'It's'.

Other examples of symbols in a correction code are:

✔ = good sentence or expression

? = Ask me (I don't understand)

prep = preposition

T = verb tense

ag = agreement

We can correct students' written work using other techniques. For example:

- Teacher correction. The teacher corrects the learners' mistakes by writing the correct word(s) on the learners' work.
- Peer correction. The learners read each other's written work, in a **draft** or final version and give feedback. Learners can also correct each other's work or discuss possible corrections with each other.
- Self-correction. The learners, usually with the help of a guidance sheet on what types of mistakes to look for, find and correct mistakes in their own work. This is helpful for developing **learner autonomy** and for helping learners develop the ability to **edit** and **re-draft** their own work. It is an important technique for examinations.
- Ignoring the mistake. As in 9 above, sometimes we choose to ignore mistakes that learners make in their written work.

When using a correction code or marking students' written work, we rarely correct all the mistakes that students make because correcting all of them can be **demotivating** and confusing for students. We correct mistakes which are the focus of the piece of work and mistakes which we do not expect students of this level to make (e.g. **structures** and **lexis** they are already very familiar with).

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you

- It is important to be aware of the range of correction techniques and strategies available in the classroom. We choose the technique appropriate for the teaching approach, the learning purpose, the activity, the learner and the **context**.
- Over-correction can result in learners not wanting to say anything in class because they are afraid of making mistakes. So we choose carefully what to correct and what to ignore.
- Indicating mistakes and slips to learners so that they can self- or peer-correct will help them become more **autonomous** in their learning.
- We can try to extend our range of correction techniques and strategies. If we use the same technique all the time, for example echo correcting, learners will not have opportunities to correct themselves or become aware of their own errors.
- **Concept questions** can be a way of checking if learners have made an error of use rather than **form**. For example, the learner says 'I'll go to the beach at the weekend'. This is grammatically correct, but if we think the learner has already planned the trip and should be using the present continuous or *going to* future, we can use concept questions such as 'When did you decide to go to the beach? Did you decide now or before?' to check.
- When several learners make the same significant mistake during one or more lessons it sometimes means that the class needs further practice with that area of language in future lessons. If they are minor errors, this is probably not necessary. If only a few learners make the error, we can provide those learners with individual written or oral practice.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See pages 243-4 for answers)*

Read through the following classroom situations and decide which might be the most appropriate correction techniques to use. There may be more than one possibility.

1 The teacher is presenting a new structure to an elementary class and is asking students to repeat the target sentence in small groups. She notices that some of the students are not using an appropriate rhythm in the utterance.
2 A teacher is working with a class of young learners. He has asked them to take it in turns to talk briefly to the rest of the class about their favourite toy. Learners have brought in realia to help them. The first learner to speak makes mistakes with adjective order and comparatives.
3 The teacher has collected an essay which her intermediate students wrote for homework. She wants the students to become more aware of their own errors and mistakes.
4 Students in an intermediate young learner class are preparing posters on the unit topic for display. The teacher notices that there are several errors on the posters.

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 I'd like to use different strategies and techniques for correcting my learners, but I find that in the classroom I automatically use echo correction without thinking.
2 My students are all teenagers. I encourage them to use peer and self-correction but they prefer it when I correct them.
3 I always correct all my students' mistakes in their written work. I don't think it's a good idea to leave errors in their texts.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 Try using some different correction techniques and strategies in your classes and write up in your Teacher Portfolio your reflections on how the learners reacted to them and how effective you think they were.
2 For some more practical ideas on different correction techniques, look at Chapter 12 in *Tasks for Teacher Education: Trainers' Book* by Rosie Tanner and Catherine Green, Pearson Education Ltd 1998.
3 Observe one or more colleagues and notice what correction techniques they use. Use or adapt the Observation Sheet on page 249 of *A Course in Language Teaching* by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press 1996.
4 Look at 'Correcting written work' at:
   http://www.cambridge.org/elt/tkt

....

TKT practice task 32 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-6**, match the correction techniques with the teacher's aims listed **A-G**.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Teacher's aims

A to expose students to corrections without them being conscious of it
B to focus on pronunciation
C to focus on fluency and give students encouragement
D to develop understanding of language use by using a visual representation
E to focus students on features of connected speech
F to encourage self-correction
G to encourage peer correction

Correction techniques

1 The teacher decided to ignore the mistakes which she heard students making in their role-plays.
2 The teacher used finger correction, highlighting what the missing word in the question was.
3 The teacher reformulated a young learner's utterance.
4 The teacher put students into groups and asked them to read and comment on each other's written summaries.
5 The teacher pointed at a symbol on the phonemic chart.
6 The teacher drew a time line on the board showing the difference between the present simple and present continuous after several students had used the wrong tense.

....

Unit 33 Giving feedback

What is giving feedback?

Feedback is giving information to someone about their learning and/or showing them that you have understood (or not) what they have said. In the classroom, teachers can give feedback to learners, and learners can give feedback to the teacher.

When teachers give feedback to learners, they give them information about their learning. Teacher feedback can focus on learners' language or **skills**, the ideas in their work, their behaviour, their attitude to learning or their progress. Sometimes we give feedback to the whole class, at other times we give feedback to small groups or individual learners. We can give oral feedback or written feedback. The purposes of feedback are to **motivate** learners, to **encourage learner autonomy** and to help learners understand what their problems are and how they can improve. When learners give feedback to each other on aspects of their learning this is called **peer feedback**. Learners can also give feedback to teachers, for example on different aspects of the course and the lessons, such as materials, **methodology** (methods and procedures) and activities used in class.

Key concepts

> *Think of four examples of feedback, two oral and two written, you have given to your learners recently. What aspects of speaking or writing did they focus on? Why did you give them this particular feedback? How do you think it helped them to improve?*

Here are some examples of teacher feedback to learners.

Example	Focus	Purpose
Oral: 'Well done. That was very good. It was much better than last time. You really thought about the presentation.'	Progress, effort, **achievement**.	Encouraging the learner and telling her she did well (praising).
Oral: 'Have another look at number four. There's a problem with spelling and I think there are more than two people.'	Language and content.	**Identifying** where there was a problem and **prompting** what the learner needs to do to correct her own answer.
Oral: 'Let's look at the new **structure** on the board again. I think some of you have misunderstood how we use it.'	Language.	Reviewing a problematic language area with the whole class in an encouraging way.
Written: 'What an amazing story! You've used adjectives very well this time, but there were a few problems with past tenses. Have a look at the irregular verb list at the back of the **textbook**.'	Content, ideas, language, both strengths and weaknesses.	Giving a personal response to the piece of work in order to encourage the learner. Identifying a positive aspect of the work (adjectives) and also giving exact information about one problem area and about where the learner could find useful **reference material**.

Oral: 'You've made good progress in all your work this month. Your written work is much more accurate.'	Language and progress.	Informing the learner of her progress and identifying an area where particular progress has been made; encouraging.
Written: 'B/70%. Have a look at grammar section 5 at the back of the **coursebook** and check again the difference in meaning between the past simple and the past perfect.'	Language.	Giving a grade and informing the learner of what the problem was with their work and telling them exactly what they need to review and how.
Oral: 'You've done the pairwork activities quite well this week, but I heard too much Spanish and not enough English.'	Language, achievement and behaviour.	Encouraging learners, but also informing them about **inappropriate** behaviour. **Monitoring** students' behaviour over several lessons to give feedback on changes, e.g. improvements in behaviour or worsening of behaviour.

Teachers can also **elicit** feedback from their learners. This feedback can give information on whether learners like what they are doing, whether they are interested in the materials or activities, or whether they are having problems with the language. Learners can also make suggestions for materials and activities to use. Teachers often use questionnaires or learner diaries to find out information from their learners. In learner diaries, students write their feelings or comments on various aspects of teaching and learning as **guided** by the teacher, e.g. lesson content, activities, methodology, their own **learning styles**. Diaries can be written in **L1** or in the **target language**. Diaries are collected by the teacher on a regular basis. The teacher reads the comments and writes something in response to the content of what he/she has read: he/she does not correct the language. Learner diaries are not read by other learners or by other teachers. In this way teachers and learners can give and receive feedback within a safe and secure **context**.

Feedback to learners can be linked to **formal** or **informal assessment** and can be given to learners in the classroom or during individual **tutorials** (small meetings between the teacher and one student or a few students to discuss their learning). We can also write regular feedback in the form of comments, grades or marks on a learner's record sheet. The learner can keep this sheet in their **portfolio** or we might keep it with our records of their overall progress and achievement. We can use this feedback when we make our end-of-course assessment.

Learners can also give feedback to their classmates. This is called **peer feedback**. Peer feedback can be oral or written, and can cover the same focus areas as teacher feedback. Peer feedback is useful for all learners. The learners who give the feedback **reflect on** (think about) the work their classmates have done. The learners who receive feedback are given information on how they can improve. The learners are often guided by a feedback observation sheet. Young learners, though, are not able to give very detailed peer feedback because they are not yet able to think about their classmates' work very carefully. Peer feedback can have a positive effect on classroom dynamics and can help to train learners in skills they need to become **autonomous**.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

Read these tips and tick the ones which are most important for you.

- Wherever possible, feedback should be balanced, focused and helpful. It needs to be balanced so that there is comment on positive aspects of a learner's work as well as areas he/she needs to improve; focused so that the learner knows exactly what the good points are and what the problems are; helpful so that the learner knows what steps to take to improve. This is particularly important for weaker or less confident learners.

- Feedback can be given at different stages of a lesson, for example at the beginning of the lesson when we comment on work we have marked, during an activity, while we monitor learners doing pairwork or group work, at the end of an activity when we tell learners how they did, or correct their common **errors** at the end of or after the lesson when we are marking some written work.

- During class or individual feedback it is possible to revisit or **recycle** language that learners are having problems with, by providing learners with written exercises, or by including the language for review in an oral activity in the following lesson.

- Small-group feedback sessions are useful for the teacher and learners to give and receive feedback on classes and on teaching and learning.

- Feedback which is particularly personal or sensitive should be given to learners privately and not in front of the whole class.

- Written or oral feedback can be given to learners after formal assessment in addition to a mark or grade. This feedback should include guidance on how learners can improve their work.

- Learner diaries provide teachers with an opportunity for individual, private two-way feedback (learner to teacher as well as teacher to learner).

- Learners often need guidance to help them provide teachers with feedback. If we say to learners, for example, 'Write some feedback for me about the lesson and about your learning styles in your learner diaries. You have ten minutes,' it is likely that learners will not be able to provide much useful feedback because the **task** is too general. It is better to give learners guidance or a framework to work with. For example, we can review the activities in the lesson, what they did in each activity and the types of interaction. We can then ask learners to write about which activities they preferred and why. Over a number of lessons we can introduce other elements so that learners become more familiar with reflection and with giving feedback.

See Units 18 and 22 for assessment.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY *(See page 244 for answers)*

Look at this section of a lesson plan. What is the purpose of each of the underlined feedback sections? Feedback might be teacher to students, students to teacher or student to student.

Timing	Procedure
10-15 minutes	Listening: Tell students the gist question and play the CD. <u>Students compare their answers in pairs.</u> Elicit answers from the class.
10 minutes	Tell students to read the true/false statements silently. Check key words. Play the CD again. Students decide true or false for each statement. <u>Check answers with the class.</u>
5 minutes	<u>Elicit from students the strategies they used to do the true/false activity.</u> Remind them they have the same task in the exam.
5-10 minutes	Have students take out their notebooks. They complete the vocabulary exercise in their notebooks. <u>Monitor students as they do the activity. Remind them to look back in the book and check with their friends.</u>
5 minutes	<u>End the lesson by eliciting feedback from students on what they did in the lesson and what they think they learnt.</u>

REFLECTION

Think about these comments from teachers. Which do you agree with and why?

1 My learners are only interested in the marks they get for their work. They are not interested in my comments. They don't even read them.
2 I want to encourage my slower learners, but I sometimes find it hard to give them useful feedback on their work. They make so many mistakes!
3 I don't think we should ask learners to give feedback to their teachers. The teachers know what to do and how to do it. It's not the learners' job to tell teachers what to do.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

1 If you teach younger learners, try the feedback chat on page 111 of *English for Primary Teachers* by Mary Slattery and Jane Willis, Oxford University Press 2001. Note down what happened in your Teacher Portfolio.
2 For more ideas on how to give feedback, look at Units Three and Four of *A Course in Language Teaching* by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press 1996.
3 Try introducing peer feedback sessions in some of your classes. Are they effective? How do the learners feel about this approach? Note down what happens and the learners' reactions in your Teacher Portfolio.

TKT practice task 33 *(See page 245 for answers)*

For questions **1-7**, look at the classroom situations in which the teacher gives feedback and the three possible types of feedback listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the type of feedback (**A**, **B** or **C**) which matches the classroom situation.

1 The teacher noticed all the learners were having problems with some target vocabulary. She noted the problems down and did a revision exercise the next day.

   A delayed feedback   **B** peer feedback   **C** 1:1 feedback

2 A young learner had just finished talking to the class about his hobby. The teacher said: *Thanks, Juan. You tried hard. Well done.*

   A feedback on language   **B** feedback on effort   **C** feedback on ideas

3 A teenage learner had written a story for homework. The teacher marked the work and wrote this comment: *This is so much better than last week's homework. Well done.*

   A feedback on attitude
   B feedback on progress
   C feedback on strengths and weaknesses

4 The teacher wrote on the first draft of a learner's composition: *Look at this website for more ideas.*

   A feedback on grammatical mistakes
   B instructions on planning
   C help with finding reference resources

5 A teacher, talking to a group of primary children at the end of a group work activity, said: *You talked a lot today and worked well together.*

   A feedback on pronunciation
   B feedback on behaviour
   C feedback on learning styles

6 A group of students gave oral presentations to the class. Afterwards, the teacher said: *You didn't mention your reasons for choosing this topic. You need to include that next time.*

   A feedback on organisation of ideas
   B feedback on range of language
   C feedback on content

7 A student wrote in his learner diary: *You always ask the same students to answer. It takes me longer to think in English so I never have a chance to answer.*

   A feedback to the teacher on classroom procedure
   B feedback to the teacher on materials and activities
   C feedback to the teacher on a specific language problem

TKT Module 3 | Practice test 3.1

A sample answer sheet is on page 234.

For questions **1-6**, match the examples of teachers' classroom language with the functions listed **A-G**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-G**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Functions

> **A** getting attention
> **B** eliciting
> **C** narrating
> **D** managing interaction patterns
> **E** giving a definition
> **F** asking for clarification
> **G** modelling

Teachers' classroom language

1 A park is a place where people go to walk and relax. Children can play there, too.

2 OK, now ... everyone ... stop what you're doing.

3 I'm not quite sure what you mean. Give us some more detail.

4 It was the middle of the night and Tom was asleep. Suddenly he heard a sound.

5 You say it like this – *comfortable*. Now repeat.

6 The room in a house where people cook is called a k... , ki... ?

For questions **7-12**, look at the teacher's first two instructions in a sequence of instructions and the three possible ways of continuing them listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the instruction which would be most appropriate to continue the sequence.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

7 i) The teacher tells students to draw the time line from the textbook in their notebooks.

ii) The teacher tells students to write two example sentences for points A and B on the line.

A The teacher tells students to draw four more time lines.

B The teacher tells students to think carefully about the grammar we use for the two points in time.

C The teacher tells students to complete the grammar exercise in their textbooks.

8 i) The teacher tells students that they need to do some simple research for their class project.

ii) The teacher puts the students into groups and gives out a set of questions.

A The teacher asks a student to hand out the class set of dictionaries.

B The teacher tells students to answer the questions together.

C The teacher tells groups to go to the library in turn to collect some reference materials.

9 i) The teacher tells students they are going to do a listening activity. He writes three questions on the board.

ii) The teacher tells students to write their answers to the questions on a piece of paper as they listen.

A The teacher tells students that they do not have to write full sentences, that they can write notes.

B The teacher tells students to read the questions on the board.

C The teacher tells students to check their answers in pairs.

10 i) The teacher tells the students to get into groups of three for a role-play.

ii) The teacher asks groups to put their hands up in turn to check they are all in threes.

A The teacher tells students they have got five minutes to practise their role-plays.

B The teacher checks that students know exactly what they have to do.

C The teacher reminds students to use the prompts from the textbook.

11 i) The teacher tells her beginner students to watch a DVD and to listen for four examples of polite requests.

ii) The teacher asks the class to tell her the examples they heard.

A The teacher tells students to write a short dialogue using at least two of the examples.

B The teacher tells students to put up their hands when they hear an example.

C The teacher tells students to listen for examples of other functions.

12 i) The teacher tells students to open their textbooks and to look at the reading activity.

ii) The teacher tells students to look at the photos next to the reading passage.

A The teacher tells students to use the photos to try and predict what the text is going to be about.

B The teacher tells students to match the photos to relevant parts of the text.

C The teacher tells the students to read the text in detail to find where the photos are described.

For questions **13-19**, match the teacher's instructions to elementary primary learners with a trainer's comments on their appropriacy listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Trainer's comments

> **A** These instructions are appropriate for the learners.
>
> **B** These instructions are above the language level of the learners.
>
> **C** These instructions do not tell the learners exactly what to do.

Teacher's instructions to elementary primary learners

13 Describe the poster briefly to your partner. You've got a maximum of two minutes.

14 Open your books at page 12. Colour the picture in exercise 2.

15 Look at the board. Copy these five words into your notebooks.

16 Stand up and look at the flashcards on the walls.

17 Are you ready to get going? Can one team line their cards up face down here, and the others do the same over there.

18 Listen to the story about Tom and his cat and put up your hands.

19 Listen to the CD. Point to the toys in the picture when you hear the words.

For questions **20-26,** read the student dialogues. Match the second student's responses with the functions listed **A-H**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-H**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Functions

A emphasising

B prompting

C self-correcting

D checking understanding

E speculating

F encouraging

G changing the subject

H suggesting

Student dialogues

20 Julia: I'm not sure I can do this exercise.

Kyoko: Yes, you can. I'll help you.

21 Paula: Well, we were all on the plane waiting to take off. Then I saw the … er …

Naima: The pilot …

22 Lin: So what do you think picture A is? Is it the end of a pencil?

Peter: I suppose it could be if you turn it this way around.

23 Sven: I don't understand the homework. Can we do it quickly now?

Geraldo: No time. Why don't you come round to my house later and we can do it together?

24 Monique: Number 4. The answer's obvious. He didn't see her, so it's this one. Right?

Aafje: Do you mean this one is the answer?

25 Mohamed: Have you ever been to Australia?

Franck: Yes, I did … er … sorry, I have …

26 Wong: So, I had a great holiday and met lots of new people.

Stefan: Right … next one. Sport. I'm really good at tennis and softball.

For questions **27-33**, look at the conversation between two intermediate learners. Read the questions about their use of language and the three possible answers listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Choose the correct answer.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

Juan:	I'll start. I come from Spain and I love football.	line 1
Fernanda:	Me too. That is … I love football. I'm not from Spain, though. I'm from Italy.	line 2 line 3
Juan:	I guessed that from your T-shirt. Is that your town marked on the map of Italy?	line 4 line 5
Fernanda:	Yes! I designed it myself … got the map from the internet …	line 6
Juan:	Yeah … anyway, the teacher is looking at us … back to the task …	line 7
Fernanda:	Yeah … you come from Spain, you like football … and …	line 8
Juan:	Er … let me see … I've got two brothers and I'm studying to be a doctor. Your turn.	line 9 line 10
Fernanda:	I'm an only child. As for career, I'm into the arts. I want to be a designer.	line 11 line 12

27 When Juan says *I'll start* in line 1,
  A he has just decided he wants to begin.
  B it is his turn to say something.
  C the students decided earlier that he would start.

28 When Fernanda says *That is* in line 2,
  A she is highlighting an idea.
  B she is correcting Juan.
  C she is clarifying.

29 When Fernanda says *got the map from the Internet* in line 6,
  A she is making a suggestion.
  B she is giving instructions.
  C she is describing part of a process.

30 When Juan says *anyway* in line 7,
  A he is trying to get the attention of the teacher.
  B he is changing the direction of the conversation.
  C he is talking to a third student.

31 When Fernanda says *you come from Spain, you like football* in line 8,

    A she is summarising.

    B she is checking.

    C she is explaining.

32 When Juan says *let me see* in line 9,

    A he is looking at a picture.

    B he is organising his thoughts.

    C he is making a suggestion.

33 When Juan says *Your turn* in line 10,

    A he is helping Fernanda.

    B he is inviting Fernanda to speak.

    C he is telling Fernanda the rules.

For questions **34-40**, match the learners' written mistakes with the types of mistake listed **A-H**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-H**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Types of mistake

> **A** wrong conjunction
> **B** missing pronoun
> **C** unnecessary auxiliary
> **D** wrong modal verb
> **E** missing article
> **F** wrong preposition
> **G** wrong adverb
> **H** wrong tense

Learners' written mistakes

34 Her birthday's on June. It's on 21st.

35 They played hardly during the match. They deserved to win.

36 My niece is coming to stay with us.
        I don't like very much!

37 What do you are think of this CD?

38 She did well in the exam as she was very happy.

39 Last night I saw cat in my garden.
        It was beautiful.

40 I have visited Italy last summer for my holidays.

For questions **41-47** match the classroom situations with the classroom management choices listed **A-H**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-H**) on your answer sheet.

There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Classroom management choices

A Divide the class into As and Bs. As do the activity first while Bs do some exercises. Then they swap.

B Write some useful classroom language on posters and put it around the classroom walls. Teach the phrases to students and remind them to use them in fluency work.

C Don't use the mother tongue with students. If they know you won't translate, they'll listen more carefully.

D Make sure you start the lesson with a flexible pair or group activity so you can start the lesson properly when everyone is present.

E Prepare some extension activities before the lesson to hand out to the faster students. Try not to hurry the slower students.

F Try nominating before you ask the question.

G Use warmers that relax and calm your students to get them ready for the lesson. Avoid games and quizzes.

H Change the class seating regularly so that the problem students are not always sitting in the same places.

Classroom situations

41 It takes your lively students a long time to settle at the start of a lesson.

42 Your students pretend they don't understand when you give instructions in English. They wait for you to give them in L1.

43 You notice that some students need more time to finish their work in class. The other students finish quickly and get bored and talkative.

44 Your students never respond to you when you are eliciting. They don't say anything.

45 You find mingles difficult with the large number of students in your classes.

46 Your students often use L1 when they are doing activities in pairs and groups. Some of them do the activity but they don't do it in English.

47 You have several students who are late for class because they have an extra lesson during the break. You know it's not their fault, but it always disturbs the class.

For questions **48-54**, match the classroom management techniques with their purposes listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Purposes

> **A** It promotes learner autonomy.
> **B** It encourages student participation in class.
> **C** It supports differentiation.

Classroom management techniques

48 The teacher decides to ask questions to the whole class rather than nominating.

49 The teacher has class sets of dictionaries and teaches the students how to use them.

50 Students correct their own work before writing their final drafts.

51 The teacher adapts some of the activities in the coursebook and prepares extension activities before the lesson.

52 The teacher responds to the content of what students say and does not over-correct.

53 The students set their own learning goals and review them regularly with the teacher.

54 The teacher regularly changes the student groupings and pairings to match students' abilities.

For questions **55-61**, match the teacher activities with the teacher roles listed **A-D**.

Mark the correct letter (**A-D**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Teacher roles

> **A Assessor** (someone who evaluates the students' performance and behaviour)
>
> **B Motivator** (someone who encourages the students)
>
> **C Planner** (someone who plans what the students are going to do)
>
> **D Contributor** (someone who gives ideas and information about a topic)

Teacher activities

55 The teacher brings in photos and pictures from magazines to help students think of what to say.

56 The teacher responds to what students say with enthusiasm and gives everyone a chance to speak.

57 The teacher keeps records of students' work and progress.

58 The teacher regularly prepares a scheme of work.

59 The teacher uses regular tests to monitor students' level of language proficiency.

60 The teacher expresses her point of view in class discussions.

61 The teacher meets with her colleagues to decide on an appropriate methodology for the English lessons.

For questions **62-67**, look at the incomplete sentences about ways of grouping students and the three options for completing them listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Two of the options complete the statements correctly. One option does **NOT**.

Mark the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which does **NOT** complete the statement correctly on your answer sheet.

---

62 The teacher wants the students to share their ideas before the class feedback so she

   A tells them to check answers with a partner.
   B collects the students' answer papers.
   C tells them to exchange answer papers.

63 The teacher wants the students to work in mixed-ability groups so he

   A has them choose their own student groupings.
   B plans the student groupings before the lesson.
   C groups students using the results from a test.

64 The teacher wants the students to think about the learning strategies they used in an activity so she

   A gives three minutes' individual thinking time.
   B does a team quiz with the class.
   C puts them into groups of three for reflection.

65 The teacher wants the shy, quiet students to take a more active role in the class so she

   A keeps a list of students to nominate and tries to include everyone in a lesson.
   B gives the class 20 seconds thinking time between asking the question and eliciting the answer.
   C accepts responses from students who put their hands up first.

66 The teacher wants the students to talk to as many of their classmates as possible so he

   A does an open pair activity.
   B does a class survey.
   C does a mingle.

67 The teacher wants the students to work at their own pace in a revision activity so he

   A lets students work individually.
   B has the fast finishers do an extra activity.
   C asks students to do a brainstorm in pairs.

For questions **68-73**, match the classroom situations in which students make mistakes with the most appropriate correction strategies listed **A**, **B** and **C**.

Mark the correct letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) on your answer sheet.

You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Correction strategies

A delayed correction

B peer or self-correction

C immediate teacher correction

Classroom situations

68 The learners do a role-play in groups of three and many of them make the same unimportant grammar error but it doesn't stop them communicating.

69 A learner, without knowing, uses an expression incorrectly and, by mistake, makes everyone laugh. This makes him embarrassed.

70 A shy, elementary primary learner gives a short talk about his favourite toy. He often leaves out the verb *to be* in his sentences.

71 A learner reports back after a pairwork activity. He makes a couple of slips with language he already knows.

72 A group of learners take part in a class discussion. One learner presents his argument but makes several lexical errors which result in miscommunication. The other learners in the class cannot follow his argument.

73 The learners write the same story in groups of four. Each group produces one copy of the story for the next group to read. The stories all contain some slips.

For questions **74-80**, look at the classroom situations and the three ways of giving written feedback listed **A**, **B** and **C** for the classroom situation.

Two of the ways of giving written feedback are appropriate. One is **NOT**.

Mark the letter (**A**, **B** or **C**) which is **NOT** appropriate for the classroom situation on your answer sheet.

---

74 The teacher wants to give feedback to her young learners on their written work. She wants to encourage and motivate them.

   A She puts a smiley face next to their writing.
   B She reads out the marks to the whole class.
   C She writes *Well done* at the bottom of their writing.

75 The teacher wants to give written feedback to an individual student on his behaviour. He writes a comment in his portfolio.

   A Your mark of 86% is very good.
   B I am quite pleased with you this term. You have really tried hard.
   C This was a good term for you. You have calmed down a lot.

76 The teacher wants to give feedback to encourage students to make better use of a correction code for their written work.

   A This will help you in examinations because you'll learn to find your own mistakes.
   B As you use the correction code, notice if you keep making the same mistakes. Think about how you can avoid them next time.
   C You should be able to do this on your own so only ask me if you have to.

77 The teacher wants to give feedback to an intermediate student on his speaking in preparation for an examination. He is quite fluent but makes several basic errors.

   A You're still making quite small mistakes when you speak. Try recording yourself and then see if you notice the errors yourself.
   B Take more time in the examination. Don't feel you have to hurry. Think before you speak!
   C Don't worry too much about those small mistakes. The examiner won't notice.

78 The teacher wants to give feedback to an intermediate student. In a 1:1 and small-group situation the student speaks quite well but in a class situation he lacks confidence.

   A Your speaking is good! Think how well you did that role-play the other day. Don't worry about making mistakes in front of the class.
   B It's important you get over your lack of confidence. I'd like you to give a short oral presentation tomorrow.
   C I know you feel worried about talking in front of the class. But they're worried too when they speak out. Have a go!

79 The teacher wants to give written feedback to a young learner on the ideas in a story he has written.

   A You used all the adjectives and adverbs in the list. Well done.
   B This was a great story. I loved reading it. Thank you.
   C The characters really came to life. Maybe you'll be a writer one day.

80 The teacher wants to give some general feedback to a strong class on their oral presentations.

   A Most of you used the structure I suggested and, in general, the presentations were very successful.
   B Most of the presentations were interesting, though yours, Paola, and yours, Sylvio, were rather weak.
   C These went well, don't you think? I thought they were all very professional and well organised.

SAMPLE

Candidate Name
If not already printed, write name
in CAPITALS and complete the
Candidate No. grid (in pencil).

Candidate Signature ....

Examination Title

Centre

Supervisor:

If the candidate is ABSENT or has WITHDRAWN shade here ▭

Centre No.

Candidate No.

Examination Details

0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9

Use a pencil.

Mark ONE letter for each question.

For example, if you think F is the
right answer to the question, mark
your answer sheet like this:

0 A B C D E F G H I

Rub out any answer you wish to
change with an eraser.

1 A B C D E F G H I
2 A B C D E F G H I
3 A B C D E F G H I
4 A B C D E F G H I
5 A B C D E F G H I
6 A B C D E F G H I
7 A B C D E F G H I
8 A B C D E F G H I
9 A B C D E F G H I
10 A B C D E F G H I
11 A B C D E F G H I
12 A B C D E F G H I
13 A B C D E F G H I
14 A B C D E F G H I
15 A B C D E F G H I
16 A B C D E F G H I
17 A B C D E F G H I
18 A B C D E F G H I
19 A B C D E F G H I
20 A B C D E F G H I
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65 A B C D E F G H I
66 A B C D E F G H I
67 A B C D E F G H I
68 A B C D E F G H I
69 A B C D E F G H I
70 A B C D E F G H I
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74 A B C D E F G H I
75 A B C D E F G H I
76 A B C D E F G H I
77 A B C D E F G H I
78 A B C D E F G H I
79 A B C D E F G H I
80 A B C D E F G H I

Exam tips for the TKT

- The TKT is divided into modules which can be taken separately or together.
- Candidates can take one or more modules – it's up to them.
- Each module contains 80 questions.
- Each module lasts 80 minutes.
- All the questions in the modules carry the same number of marks as each other.
- The task types used in the TKT are: one-to-one matching (e.g. pages 120-121, questions 51-55), 3/4/5 option-matching (e.g. page 228), multiple-choice (e.g. page 112), sequencing (e.g. page 175, questions 28-33), and finding the odd one out (e.g. pages 125-126, questions 75-80).

Before the exam

1 Get to know and understand the necessary English language teaching terms and concepts. Read the relevant parts of this book, do the Follow-up and Discovery activities and think about the points in the Reflection sections. Doing this will give you confidence and familiarity with the terms and their meanings.

2 Look at the list of terms in this book and in the *TKT Glossary.* In the *TKT Glossary* the terms are listed together with their meaning. Make sure you understand the terms, because any of them might appear in the exam. Test yourself on them. See the *TKT Glossary*:

   http://www.cambridgeesol.org/TKT

3 Don't just learn the meaning of the terms. Think about the ideas behind the terms and what they mean for teaching and learning, too.

4 When you prepare your lessons, as you teach and after teaching, reflect on your lessons in terms of different aspects of the TKT, e.g. lesson planning, correction techniques, activity types. Write about your reflections in the Teacher Portfolio: https://www.teacherportfolio.cambridgeesol.org/

5 Do some TKT practice tests to help you get familiar with the task types, and get used to working within the time limit. Remember that the number of questions in each module is fixed at 80, and there is one mark for each question.

6 Remember and practise the 4 Rs: Reading, Reference, Record-keeping and Reflection.

7 Have a good night's sleep before the test!

During the exam

1 Don't worry about your English. Remember that the TKT doesn't ask you to speak, listen to or write English. You just need to read the test and shade (make darker) the letter (A, B, C, D, etc.) of the correct answers on your answer sheet. There is a sample answer sheet on page 234 of this book.

2 Quickly skim through the whole test when you receive it to get a general idea of its content. The layout of the TKT is clear and simple, and all the task types are of similar kinds: matching, multiple-choice, odd one out or sequencing.

3 Work through the test from question 1 to question 80 if you can. In this way, you won't forget to do any questions. But, if you really can't answer a question, leave it, put a cross against it in the margin on your question paper, and come back to it when you have completed the others.

4 Read the instructions for each task very carefully, then read each question within each task very carefully, too. Make sure that you understand exactly what you need to do. Candidates who do not follow the task instructions are likely to get answers wrong.

5 There are two kinds of matching tasks. In matching tasks such as those on pages 118-119, questions 41-45 and 226, questions 34-40, the tasks contain extra options. This means you do not need to use one of the options in your answers.
   In the other kind of matching tasks, such as those on pages 113, questions 8-13 and 181, questions 62-67 you need to use all the options (A, B, C, D, etc.) and will need to use one or more of them more than once.

6 When you answer matching and sequencing tasks, tick each option on the question paper when you are confident it is the right answer to a question. This helps you to see which options are left for the other questions.

7 In the matching tasks, if you feel unsure of an answer to one question, go to the next question, then the next, etc. You may find that, at the end of the task, the answer to your problem question then becomes clear.

8 Don't choose answers just because they contain a word which is the same as a word in the question. In fact, these answers are unlikely to be the right ones.

9 There is only one answer for each question. Never give two or more answers for a question or write notes to the examiner on your answer sheet. This wastes time and will not be read by a marker.

10 Don't forget to transfer your answers to the answer sheet.

11 Make sure you have answered the question you mean to answer. For example, don't write your answer to question 20 in the place for answer 19, and don't shade letter A when you mean to shade letter B.

12 Don't spend too long on any one part of the test. If you do, you will spoil your chances on the other parts of the test. Divide your time equally across all the questions.

13 Leave five minutes at the end of the test to check your answers.

14 If you are getting too worried to answer properly, take a very short break. Relax.

Good luck!

Answer key for Follow-up activities

UNIT 1

1

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs	Determiners
London dining table turn on* nobody*	take advantage turn on	hard lovely his usual only faster	as really often very hard only faster	both that either his

Prepositions	Pronouns	Conjunctions	Exclamations
as on the left of because of	both that either his theirs nobody	as that either even though only*	mmm

*In this use, these words are above B1 level.

2 *Possible answers:*

decide
decision, decisive, decisively, decided, decidedly, indecisive, indecisively, decisiveness, decider

luck
lucky, luckily, unlucky, unluckily, luckless
able
ability, inability, unable, disabled, disability

3 *Possible answers:*

Examples of structures	Term	Form
A cold day in Prague	Noun phrase	Indefinite article + adjective + common noun + preposition + proper noun
The most expensive place of all	Superlative adjective	Definite article + *most* + long adjective
The girl who I saw last night	Defining relative clause	Subject + relative pronoun + relative clause
Newspapers are printed every day	The present simple passive	Subject + *to be* + past participle (+ *by* + agent)
She can't stand doing the shopping	Verb + gerund	Subject + verb + gerund + object
As he didn't understand	Subordinate clause of reason	Conjunction of reason + subject + finite verb
He told them to keep quiet	Indirect command	Subject + verb of command + indirect object + infinitive with 'to'
You ought to hurry up	Modal verb	Subject + modal verb + infinitive without 'to'/ bare infinitive

4 *was leaving*: describing a background activity
it was going to: making a prediction
As soon as: indicating exactly when something happened
wouldn't: describing unwillingness
I'd stood: describing an impossible event

on my head: describing where something happened
bigger and heavier: comparing two things
couldn't: describing inability
lots of: describing an amount
I've heard: referring to an event that happened at an unspecified time in the past

UNIT 2

1 A lexical set
   B antonyms
   C idioms
   D collocations
   E synonyms
   F compounds
   G words with suffixes
   H words with prefixes
   I word family
   J homophones

UNIT 3

3 *word*
   3 phonemes: /wɜːd/
   game
   3 phonemes: /geɪm/
   board
   3 phonemes: /bɔːd/
   afternoon
   7 phonemes: /ɑːftənuːn/ (UK), /æftənuːn/ (US)
   exercise
   7 phonemes: /eksɜːsaɪz/
   thirty
   4 phonemes: /θɜːti/
4 thirty vegetable impossible persuade
   connection
5 I live in **Manchester**, not London.
   Brasília is in the **middle** of Brazil, not on the
   sea.
   The girl was very tall, but her brother was
   really **short**.
6 A fantastic (enthusiasm) ↗↘
   B fantastic (doubt) ↗
   C fantastic (surprise) ↘↗

UNIT 4

1 and 2 *Possible answers:*
   Agreeing
   Yes, right (N), absolutely (N), I couldn't agree
   more (F), yep (I)
   Clarifying
   What I meant was (N), what I'm trying to say
   is (N), I mean (N)
   Giving an opinion
   I think (N), as far as I'm concerned (F), I
   reckon (I), I believe (F), in my opinion (N)
   Thanking
   Thanks (N), cheers (I), ta (I)
3 You might choose to teach the neutral
   exponents to beginners and the others to

secondary school learners, or advanced
business students. But if your learners were
beginners in regular contact with native
speakers in everyday situations, you might
want to introduce informal exponents as well.

UNIT 5

1 Activity 1: learning key vocabulary, relating
   the topic to your knowledge of the world
   Activity 2: relating the topic to your
   knowledge of the world
   Activity 3: scanning, reading for detail
   Activity 4: learning key vocabulary, reading
   for detail
   Activity 5: consolidating language or
   evaluating opinions in the text, relating the
   topic to your knowledge of the world

UNIT 6

1

Line	Pronouns	Conjunctions	Topic sentences
1	'I'		
2	everything I	and	
3	I	but	
4		and	
5	I		I suppose history must have been my favourite because it's what I chose to do at college.
6	it I		
7	I	and	
8	It		
10		and if	
12	I	and	
13	I then		
14		and	
15	I	and that	
17	I		
18	that I	But	

19	I them	and	
20	I		
21		and	
22	they one another	and	
23-24	they	and	The national stereotypes do come out though, and they're often true.
24	they	or	
25		and	
26		that	
27		and	

2 **A** Activity 1: understanding the task
   Activity 2: understanding the task, developing ideas
   Activity 3: developing ideas / extending ideas
 B Structuring ideas / planning, providing a model, thinking about your reader
 C Drafting, practising spelling

UNIT 7
Possible answers:

Characteristics of spoken language	Listening text types	Different accents	Features of connected speech	Listening subskills
Disappears once spoken Incomplete sentences Simpler grammar/ vocabulary Connected speech May be disorganised Supported by body language	Conversations Lectures Announcements	Scottish Welsh RP Texan Australian	Contracted forms Linking Word stress Sentence stress	Listening for gist Listening for specific information Extensive listening Listening for attitude

UNIT 8

A Accuracy	B Connected speech	C Appropriacy	D Fluency	E Functions	F Interaction
1, 5, 6, 7, 11	1, 6, 7, 11	2, 3, 12	8, 10	2, 3, 4, 9, 12	2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 12

UNIT 9
1 *Possible answers:*

Activities	Areas of motivation
A	Interest, personal relevance
B	Self-confidence
C	The teacher, rapport, self-confidence
D	Autonomy, personal relevance, culture
E	Self-confidence
F	The classroom atmosphere, self-confidence, rapport
G	Autonomy
H	The classroom atmosphere, interest
I	Goal, culture
J	The task, self-confidence
K	The teacher, rapport, autonomy

UNIT 10

Acquisition	Interaction	Focus on form
4, 9, 10	2, 5, 8, 10	1, 3, 6, 7

UNIT 11

This conversation shows that the learners manage to communicate with one another although they make many mistakes. They seem to be experimenting with language and trying hard to communicate and help each other communicate.

Probable slips: you, go, you went to the school?; is, was important for me

Developmental errors: it is likely that most of the other errors in this conversation are developmental errors, as these learners are only at lower intermediate level.

Interference errors: it is difficult to know without speaking Japanese or Italian whether any of these errors are due to interference.

Fossilised errors: it is very unlikely that any of the errors are fossilised, as these learners are still very much at the beginning of their learning of English, and haven't had time to develop 'bad habits'.

If these learners were communicating with one another for a fluency activity, it would probably be best not to correct them, and just to allow them to practise communicating. The teacher could always listen for common mistakes and note them down for correction after the activity, e.g. past tenses might be a useful area to correct.

UNIT 12

1 *Possible answers:*
   Child with parents
   - The child is getting individual attention.
   - The learning time is not limited.
   - The child is interacting with his parents.
   - The child is enjoying communicating and interacting.
   - The parents can respond to the child's interests and needs.
   - The atmosphere is relaxed.

   Teacher with class
   - Learners cannot get much individual attention.
   - The bell will ring after e.g. 30 minutes and end the lesson.
   - The teacher is telling the learners something. There may be no interaction.
   - The pupils may not be enjoying the lesson.
   - The teacher cannot easily respond to each learner's interests and needs.

2 *Possible answers:*
   Miriam
   A, B, F, G
   Santiago
   Possibly A, B, D (with supervision), G, H
   Bao
   Maybe A-H, depending on his learning style, availability of time and degree of motivation.

UNIT 13

1 *Possible answers:*
   It is hard to give definite answers as we don't know a lot about these learners and how willing or able they are to change, but possibly:
   Raquel
   As she is a very young learner who seems to prefer kinaesthetic and social things, she may well learn best through play, movement and working in groups.
   Mahmoud
   Mahmoud seems to have definite ideas about how to learn and seems to like learning quite abstract things (he likes maths and physics). He might respond well to learning grammar rules, learning vocabulary and doing exercises rather than just 'chatting' and communicating. These would help him feel that English is a 'serious' subject. It could be useful, too, if his teacher explained to him the value of doing communicative activities.
   Xiu Xiu
   It sounds as if Xiu Xiu would benefit from a communicative course focusing on social and business English. She could also continue learning lots of new words as she enjoys and appreciates doing that.

2 *Possible answers:*
   A analytic/reflective
   B kinaesthetic
   C group
   D analytic
   E auditory
   F autonomous
   G impulsive
   H kinaesthetic/group/impulsive
   I visual
   J visual/reflective
   These activities could all be suitable for adults, depending on their learning style, needs and expectations. All the activities except D and F could also be suitable for young learners.

UNIT 14

1 *Pilar*

Pilar will probably need to develop her cognitive abilities in English through learning about the world, so a course with a content-based learning approach could be suitable for her at this stage.

It seems she will also need to receive lots of praise and encouragement from her teachers, and that she may well learn best by reading and drawing. A course containing a reading element and kinaesthetic activities would therefore be useful. It may be that later on she will need English to communicate with friends internationally.

Kulap

Needs to learn banking English. She needs to learn to understand people from all over the world speaking in English. She will also need to learn many expressions of politeness and firmness to use in her telephone conversations. She needs lots of practice in speaking, and probably in working collaboratively with others in an evening class. The best course for her might be a specialised one focusing on call centre language for dealing with bank clients.

2 *Possible answers:*

A interests, educational background, learner autonomy, cultural background

B learner autonomy, motivation

C educational background, learning gap (e.g. exams or poor accuracy)

D need for security

E need for security, need to work at suitable level

F professional language requirements

G exam strategies

H learning gap

I learner autonomy, interests

J learning gap, being understood, possibly professional or exam need, e.g. oral performance

UNIT 15

Possible answers:

1 A more structured approach such as the Structural Approach or the Lexical Approach might suit these learners at the beginning of a course, then as they gained more confidence, they might react well to some Task-based Learning (TBL).

2 TBL, with some light touches of the Structural Approach and the Lexical Approach.

3 A mix of TBL and the Lexical Approach so that they get practice in using language for real purposes but also have a firm lexical base to their language.

4 A mixture of all three approaches. The Structural Approach and the Lexical Approach would raise their awareness of language accuracy and help them become more accurate. But it would be important to see how the group reacted to these approaches, and to make sure they appreciated the approach used.

5 Mainly Task-based Learning, though a mix of approaches would match the variety of learning styles in the group. But it should be remembered that these learners are still quite young, and therefore may not react well to abstract language work such as a focus on grammar, so, if done, this may need to be done in small amounts.

We can see from these answers that it is difficult to say that only one approach suits one group. It depends on the group, their needs, preferences, level, learning expectations, etc. The eclectic approach which combines approaches is often a useful one for these reasons.

UNIT 16

1 contextualisation, noticing, focus on form, text as input

2 contextualisation, focus on meaning, using aids, eliciting, text as input

3 contextualisation, concept checking, focus on meaning, using aids

4 contextualisation, focus on form, focus on meaning, text as input, eliciting

5 contextualisation, guided discovery, focus on meaning, focus on form, text as input

6 contextualisation, using aids, noticing, focus on meaning

7 contextualisation, noticing, focus on meaning, focus on form, modelling

UNIT 17

1 A4 B7 C6 D3 E8 F5 G9 H1 I2

2

Controlled practice	Freer practice	Free practice
A, C, E, G, H, I	B, E	B, D, F

UNIT 18

1 1 Following instructions: listening for specific information
   2 A presentation: ability to talk for an extended period, discourse management, fluency, accuracy, pronunciation, range and accuracy of grammar and vocabulary
   3 Cloze: reading for detail, deducing meaning from context
   4 Discussion: oral fluency, interactive strategies, quality of ideas, pronunciation, accuracy of grammar and lexis
   5 Self-assessment: evaluating progress
   6 Informal assessment: contribution/ participation and pronunciation

2 *Possible answers:*

Reading	Writing
True/false O Yes/no questions O Multiple-choice O Open comprehension questions S Information transfer, e.g. table completion O/S Ordering paragraphs O Choosing titles for texts or paragraphs O Cloze tests O	Copying O Jumbled words O Labelling O Form filling O/S Sentence/dialogue completion O/S Completing the middle/end of a story S Story writing S Picture/diagram description S Writing essays/ compositions/emails/ letters/postcards/reports S

UNIT 19

1 E   2 H   3 D   4 C   5 F   6 A   7 B   8 G

UNIT 20

1 E   2 A   4 C   7 D   8 B

UNIT 21

1 A   2 G   3 D   4 E   5 B   6 C   7 F

UNIT 22

1 F In cloze tests we blank out every *n*th word.
2 T
3 T
4 T
5 F Summary writing is a subjective assessment activity.
6 T
7 T

8 F Sentence transformation is an inauthentic assessment activity.
9 F Interviews are challenging because learners cannot prepare all their answers.
10 T

UNIT 23

1 B/C/E   2 G/F   3 A/C   4 A/F   5 D   6 E
7 F

UNIT 24

Open answers

UNIT 25

Open answers

UNIT 26

1 language laboratory
2 OHP
3 realia
4 flashcards/realia
5 board
6 DVDs
7 internet

UNIT 27

1 who can make the first sentence here? The teacher is eliciting from the learners.
   Abdullah, make a sentence about Penny, please. The teacher is nominating and instructing.
   just make a sentence. The teacher is clarifying instructions.
   Yes, tell me something about Penny. The teacher is encouraging, clarifying and correcting (the teacher corrects the learner's use of Benny to Penny).
   Penny IS washing. The teacher is echo-correcting two aspects of the learner's utterance, by stressing the missing auxiliary and by repeating the correct name: Penny. The teacher is also modelling the correct utterance.
   Yesterday? The teacher is checking, clarifying, prompting and perhaps also encouraging.
   What did she wash yesterday? The teacher is organising the learner's ideas and prompting him to continue.
   Mohammed, can you help him? The teacher is nominating another learner, and asking for peer support.
   This is a beginner, adult class.

2   1   Take out your student books and turn to page 50.
Look at exercise 3.
Read the five true/false questions.
Ready? I'm going to play the CD. Listen.

    2   On your own, write a list of what you ate for breakfast.
Work with the person sitting next to you.
Don't show your list to your partner.
Take it in turns to tell your partner what you ate.

    3   In groups of four, brainstorm some ideas about your personal heroes.
Choose some points to use in your essay.
Read the model essay in your student book to remind you of the organisation.
Write a draft of your essay.

UNIT 28

My next-door neighbour … he make much noisy introducing/extending the topic
You don't want to say anything because get angry. developing the idea / adding own opinion
Me do the same thing agreeing
Make upsetting … upset. prompting/supporting/adding/self-correcting
Yeah make neighbour upset. repeating/confirming the idea
To say something of course, like everyone adding own opinion / perhaps prompting
Er … no. Not that. hesitating/disagreeing
Check? asking for clarification of meaning or of word used
Yeah, you know, learn what I do, when coming giving a definition / explaining / clarifying meaning by using synonyms
Oh I see confirming understanding

UNIT 29

Open answers

UNIT 30

1   B Assessor. After introducing new language to students it's important that the teacher checks that they understand the meaning of the new language. To do this, she needs to check the concept. Example exponents: *Are we talking about now? Is this always true? When we use 'if' does that mean it is sure … or not?*

2   1C   This is the best course of action because the students who didn't do the homework still have to do it and the teacher collects the homework of the students who have done it.

    2B   This is the best course of action because it lets students review the lesson before they leave the class.

    3C   This is the best course of action because it is motivating for the students who come to the lesson on time.

    4A   This is the best course of action as it helps students to become confident and to speak more in the 'safe' environment of a pair activity.

UNIT 31

Learner groupings and aspects to consider at each stage of the lesson.

1   Team game: mix of abilities and learner characteristics in the teams.

2   Whole class: everyone can see, shyer learners are not pushed to the back.

3   Group work: balance of learner abilities in groups, possibly strong with strong and weak with weak; class feedback: making sure dominant learners don't take over.

4   Whole class: silence, not chatting in L1.

5   Individual work: listening, not chatting in L1.

6   Pairwork: give learners key language to use, otherwise they might just point or use L1.

7   Whole-class feedback: use of names to make sure everyone has a chance to answer.

8   Class discussion: provide some useful language for giving opinions, use of names to make sure everyone has a chance to give their opinion.

UNIT 32

1   The teacher could model the target sentence again while all the students listen. She could also beat out the rhythm using gesture to show students what the correct pattern is.

2   The teacher's correction technique depends on whether the mistakes interfere with communication. If the other learners in the class cannot understand what the learner is trying to say, then the teacher can gently correct using echo correction or reformulation. If the mistakes do not interfere with communication, then the teacher could give the learner individual feedback after the activity.

3 The teacher could use a correction code so that the learners work out the mistakes for themselves. The teacher could then look at each learner's work to make sure they have written in the corrections correctly.

4 The teacher could go round each group and tell them to look carefully at the posters and to check for mistakes (peer correction). She can also have groups look at other groups' posters to check them for accuracy. If this technique does not result in the level of accuracy that the teacher wants, then she will have to tell the learners what the mistakes are and help them correct them. To keep learners motivated, she may think it is best not to correct at all. This will depend on the class.

UNIT 33

Students compare their answers in pairs. The purpose of this student-to-student feedback is to enable the students to compare their work with a partner (cooperation) and, when there are differences, go back to the text or the exercise and check more carefully for the correct answer (linguistic). This type of student-to-student feedback can give learners more confidence in offering answers to the class when the teacher elicits them.

Check answers with the class. The purpose of this feedback from the students to the teacher is for the teacher to make sure that students have understood the listening sufficiently well to complete the task. If she finds that the students have not been able to complete the task, she might a) play the CD again, b) give students information before they listen again to make the task easier, c) provide the answers, e.g. on the board, and move on to the next activity.

Elicit from students the strategies they used to do the true/false activity. The purpose of this feedback is to encourage students to reflect and to become more autonomous. An added purpose is to enable students to become better at certain types of task, for example those which they will meet in examinations.

Monitor students as they do the activity. Remind them to look back in the book and check with their friends. The purpose of monitoring is for the teacher to provide students with feedback on their work, and/or for students to be able to ask questions of the teacher if they have any queries. By reminding students to look in the book and check with their friends, the teacher is promoting learner autonomy and peer support.

End the lesson by eliciting feedback from students on what they did in the lesson and what they think they learnt. The purpose of this feedback is for the teacher to a) find out what the students think they have done and learnt in the lesson (it might not always match with the teacher's aims), b) find out what she might need to recycle in another lesson (if students have not fully understood), c) promote learner autonomy and reflection amongst the students.

Answer key for TKT practice tasks

Answer key for TKT practice tests

MODULE 1 PRACTICE TEST 1:1

1 B 2 C 3 A 4 B 5 B 6 C 7 A

8 A 9 B 10 C 11 A 12 C 13 B

14 A 15 A 16 B 17 B 18 B 19 C

20 C 21 B 22 C 23 B 24 B 25 C 26 B 27 A

28 B 29 C 30 C 31 B 32 B 33 A

34 A 35 C 36 B 37 C 38 C 39 A 40 B

41 F 42 E 43 D 44 B 45 C

46 B 47 A 48 C 49 C 50 B

51 F 52 D 53 B 54 E 55 A

56 B 57 C 58 A 59 A 60 B 61 C

62 D 63 A 64 B 65 E 66 G 67 C

68 B 69 B 70 A 71 B 72 A 73 C 74 B

75 A 76 A 77 B 78 C 79 B 80 C

MODULE 2 PRACTICE TEST 2:1

1 B 2 A 3 C 4 A 5 B 6 B 7 C

8 C 9 B 10 C 11 B 12 B 13 A 14 C

15 C 16 A 17 B 18 C 19 B 20 A

21 B 22 F 23 A 24 G 25 E 26 D 27 H

28 F 29 A 30 C 31 D 32 E 33 B

34 C 35 B 36 A 37 C 38 B 39 C 40 A

41 A 42 A 43 B 44 C 45 B 46 B 47 A

48 A 49 A 50 B 51 A 52 A 53 C 54 C

55 B 56 C 57 C 58 A 59 A 60 B 61 B

62 B 63 C 64 A 65 A 66 B 67 C

68 C 69 C 70 B 71 C 72 A 73 B 74 A

75 E 76 B 77 C 78 A 79 D 80 F

MODULE 3 PRACTICE TEST 3:1

1 E 2 A 3 F 4 C 5 G 6 B

7 B 8 C 9 A 10 B 11 A 12 A

13 B 14 A 15 A 16 C 17 B 18 C 19 A

20 F 21 B 22 E 23 H 24 D 25 C 26 G

27 A 28 C 29 C 30 B 31 A 32 B 33 B

34 F 35 G 36 B 37 C 38 A 39 E 40 H

41 G 42 C 43 E 44 F 45 A 46 B 47 D

48 B 49 A 50 A 51 C 52 B 53 A 54 C

55 D 56 B 57 A 58 C 59 A 60 D 61 C

62 B 63 A 64 B 65 C 66 A 67 C

68 A 69 C 70 A 71 B 72 C 73 B

74 B 75 A 76 C 77 C 78 B 79 A 80 B

Alphabetical list of glossary terms

All these terms are related to English
language teaching (ELT). They appear in
the *TKT Glossary* published by Cambridge
ESOL and are highlighted in bold and
defined and discussed in this book on the
page given below.

Unit-by-unit list of glossary terms

The following terms are used in the book. They are highlighted in bold and are defined in the following units.

MODULE 1

Unit 1
affix
contraction
convey meaning
feature
(grammatical) structure, form
part of speech
prefix
suffix

Unit 2
affixation
antonym
base word
chunk
collocation
compound
compound noun
context
extension (activity)
false friend
highlight
homonym
homophone
idiom
key word
lexical set
lexis
recall
synonym
varieties of English
word family

Unit 3
connected speech
consonant
contraction
contrastive stress
diphthong
distinguish

emphasise
intonation
linking
minimal pairs
phoneme
phonemic chart
phonology
primary, main stress
rhythm
schwa
secondary stress
sentence stress
stress
syllable
unvoiced sound
voiced sound
vowel
weak form
word boundary
word stress

Unit 4
appropriacy
appropriate
ask for clarification
colloquial
exponent
formal language
formality (level of)
function
inappropriate
informal language
informality (level of)
neutral (language)
register
request

Unit 5
brainstorm
coherence
cohesion
complex (language)
comprehension

deduce meaning from context
discourse
extensive reading
graded reader
infer attitude, feeling, mood
intensive reading
introductory activity
layout
lead-in
predict
prediction
pre-teach (vocabulary)
read for detail
read for gist
read for global understanding
receptive skill
scan
skill
skim
subskill
text structure
text type

Unit 6
accuracy
cohesion
cohesive
cohesive device
complex
draft (noun + verb)
edit
evaluate
extract
guide
guided writing
layout
model
narrate
paragraph
process writing

product writing
productive skill
proofread
re-draft
skill
summarise
text type
topic sentence
version

Unit 7
authentic material
connected speech
facial expression
gesture
hesitation
infer attitude
introductory activity
listen for detail
listen for gist
listen for global
understanding
receptive skill
relevant
simplify
skill
subskill
text type

Unit 8
clarify
controlled practice
integrated skills
interaction
interactive strategies
lead-in
learn by heart
oral fluency
paraphrase
productive skill
skill
subskill
text type
turn taking

Unit 9
achieve
achievement

confidence
demotivated
factor
goal/target
learner autonomy
learner independence
motivation
target language culture
unmotivated

Unit 10
acquire (language)
acquisition
communicative approaches
exposure (noun)
focus on form
Grammar-Translation
method
notice (language)
paraphrase
pick up (language)
Silent period
Structural Approach
work language out

Unit 11
conscious
developmental error
error
first language
fossilisation
fossilised errors
ignore (errors)
interference
interlanguage
L1/ L2
mother tongue
overgeneralisation
process (verb)
reformulation
slip

Unit 12
abstract
academic
cognitive
concrete
expectation

first language
L1/L2
mature
maturity
silent period

Unit 13
attention span
auditory learner
autonomous
communicative activity
kinaesthetic learner
learner characteristics
learner training
learning strategies
learning style
maturity
memorise
mingle
visual learner

Unit 14
Content and Language
Integrated Learning (CLIL)
English-medium school
feedback
interaction pattern
needs (learner needs)
pace

Unit 15
authentic material
chunk
cognitive
communicative approaches
Content and Language
Integrated Learning (CLIL)
content-based learning
eclectic (approach)
Functional Approach
Grammar Translation
(method)
guided discovery
input
Lexical Approach
Presentation, Practice and
Production (PPP)
silent period

253

Structural Approach
Task-based learning (TBL)
Total Physical Response
  (TPR)

Unit 16
concept checking
concept questions
controlled practice
contextualise
elicit
guided discovery
ice-breaker
introductory activity
lead-in
meaningful
mime
model (verb)
personalisation
personalise
presentation
Presentation, Practice and
Production (PPP)
pre-teach (vocabulary)
procedure
relevant
restricted practice
situational presentation
survey
target language
Task-based Learning (TBL)
technique
Test-teach-test
warmer

Unit 17
choral drill
controlled/restricted
practice
drill
individual drill
integrated skills
jigsaw reading
jumbled (pictures)
less controlled practice/freer
practice
mingle
multiple-choice questions

rank-ordering/prioritising
substitution drill
task
transformation drill
true/false questions

Unit 18
achievement test
assess
assessment
assessment criteria
continuous assessment
diagnose
diagnostic test
formal assessment
formative assessment
gap fill
informal assessment
objective task
peer assessment
placement test
portfolio
proficiency test
progress test
self-assessment
subjective task
subskill
summative test
test

MODULE 2
Unit 19
aid
aim
consolidate
exponent
functional exponent
main aim
objective
outcome
personal aim
phonemic chart
procedure
reinforce
sequence
specific
specify
stage

stage aim
subsidiary aim
syllabus

Unit 20
aim
anticipate (language)
problems
assumptions
components (of a lesson
  plan)
interaction pattern
main aim
personal aim
procedure
rationale
solution
stage
stage aim
subsidiary aim
timetable fit
timing
variety

Unit 21
logical
outcome
scheme of work
set the scene
step

Unit 22
achievement test
assess
assessment
cloze test
continuous assessment
feedback
formal assessment
gap-fill
informal assessment
information-gap activity
monitor (verb)
portfolio
proficiency test
progress test
proofread
sentence transformation
turn

Unit 23

bilingual dictionary
language awareness
monolingual dictionary
reference materials
reference resources
resources
supplementary material
teacher's book
worksheet

Unit 24

activity book
adapt (material)
audio script
class profile
coursebook
dialogue
needs (learner needs)
realia
tapescript
transcript
workbook

Unit 25

authentic (material)
differentiation
mixed ability/mixed level
supplementary material

Unit 26

aid
chart
cue card
finger correction
flashcard
language laboratory
mime
mind map
overhead projector (OHP)
overhead transparency
(OHT)
phonemic chart
predict
prompt card
puppet
realia
self-access centre
visual (aid)

wallchart
word map

MODULE 3

Unit 27

encourage
function
get learners' attention
grade (language)
instruct
L1
model (verb)
mother tongue
nominate
prompt (verb)
sequence (verb)

Unit 28

acknowledge
clarify
greet
negotiate
speculate
textbook

Unit 29

accuracy
appropriacy
correction code
interference
utterance

Unit 30

assessor
classroom management
diagnostician
discipline
facilitate
facilitator
language resource
manager
monitor/observer (noun)
participate
planner
rapport, rapport builder..
routine
teacher role

Unit 31

class dynamics
closed pair
dominate
group dynamics
interaction pattern
mingle
open pair
whole class

Unit 32

concept question
correction code
echo correct
facial expression
finger correction
gesture
identify
ignore (errors)
indicate
punctuation
recast
reformulate
self-correction
time line

Unit 33

feedback
methodology
peer feedback
praise
recycle
reflect
tutorial

Acknowledgements

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The **TKT** Course
Teaching Knowledge Test
Modules 1, 2 and 3

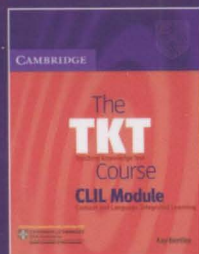MARY SPRATT · ALAN PULVERNESS · MELANIE WILLIAMS

This is the updated version of *the* teacher training course for teachers and trainee teachers preparing for the Cambridge ESOL Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT). The revised second edition contains:

- Three brand new TKT practice tests.

- Revised and expanded information on the key concepts related to each area of the TKT syllabus.

- Additional guidance on preparing for the TKT.

- An additional unit on approaches to language teaching.

- New activities and tasks in every unit.

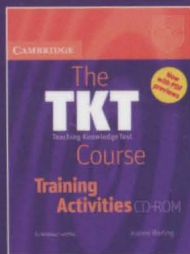- Revised ELT terms matching the latest Cambridge ESOL TKT Glossary.

This best-selling course has been written in collaboration with Cambridge ESOL by a team of experienced TKT writers. It provides a comprehensive and reliable package for TKT candidates, as well as for teachers preparing for other initial teacher training qualifications and those on in-service training programmes.

- ELT terms and concepts are clearly introduced and explained using non-specialist language.

- TKT practice tests help candidates to become familiar with the format, level and style of the TKT.

- Regular concept checking tasks and full answer keys make the course perfect for self-study.

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