

The
TKT
Teaching Knowledge Test
Course

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Part 1 Describing language and language skills

Unit 1 Grammar

■ What is grammar?

Grammar describes how we combine, organise and change words and parts of words to make meaning. We use rules for this description.

■ Key concepts

What are parts of speech, grammatical structures and word formation?

We can use grammar to describe parts of speech, grammatical structures and how words are formed.

There are nine parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, determiners, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions and exclamations. A **part of speech** or word class describes the function a word or phrase has in a sentence. This controls how the word or phrase can operate and combine grammatically with other words. For example, in English:

- a noun can act as the subject of a verb but an adjective 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 table below shows the functions of the different parts of speech:

Part of speech	Examples	Function(s)
Nouns (e.g. countable, uncountable)	<i>children</i> <i>sugar</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to name people, places, things, qualities, ideas, or activities • to act as the subject/object of the verb
Verbs (e.g. transitive, intransitive)	<i>see</i> <i>run</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to show an action, state or experience

Module 1

<i>Part of speech</i>	<i>Examples</i>	<i>Function</i>
Adjectives (e.g. comparative)	<i>easier</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to describe or give more information about a noun, pronoun or part of a sentence
Adverbs (e.g. of degree, manner, time)	<i>completely</i> <i>quickly</i> <i>yesterday</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to describe or give more information about how, when or where something happens to add information to adjectives, verbs, other adverbs or sentences
Determiners (e.g. possessive adjectives, articles, demonstrative adjectives, quantifiers)	<i>my</i> <i>the</i> <i>this</i> <i>both</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to make clear which noun is referred to or to give information about quantity
Prepositions (e.g. of time, place, direction)	<i>after</i> <i>at</i> <i>towards</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to connect a noun, noun phrase or pronoun to another word or phrase
Pronouns (e.g. personal, possessive, relative, reflexive)	<i>she</i> <i>mine</i> <i>who</i> <i>myself</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to replace or refer to a noun or noun phrase just mentioned
Conjunctions (e.g. of reason, addition, contrast)	<i>as</i> <i>and</i> <i>but</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to join words, sentences or parts of sentences
Exclamations (e.g. of doubt, pain)	<i>Er</i> <i>Ow</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to show a (strong) feeling – especially in informal spoken language

We can divide the parts of speech into further categories, e.g. countable and uncountable nouns and transitive and intransitive verbs.

Grammar rules also describe **grammatical structures**, i.e. the arrangement of words into patterns which have meaning. The rules for grammatical structures use grammatical terms to describe forms and uses. ‘Form’ refers to the specific grammatical parts that make up the structure and the order they occur in. ‘Use’ refers to the meaning that the structure is used to express. Look at these examples:

<i>Term</i>	<i>Form</i>	<i>Use</i>
Past continuous tense	subject + past tense of verb <i>to be</i> + <i>-ing</i> form of verb e.g. <i>he was running</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to describe a temporary or background situation or action in the past
Passive voice	subject + <i>to be</i> + past participle (+ <i>by</i> + agent) e.g. <i>the road was built (by the company)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to show what happens to people or things
Comparative of ‘long’ adjectives	<i>more</i> + long adjective (+ <i>than</i>) e.g. <i>he was more embarrassed than his friend</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> generally used with adjectives of two syllables or more to compare separate things or people

We also use grammar to describe how words are formed. English uses **prefixes** (a group of letters added at the beginning of a word) and **suffixes** (a group of letters added at the end of a word) to create new words. The prefixes and suffixes are added to base words (e.g. *stop*, *book*) to make new grammatical units such as tenses, parts of verbs, the plural of nouns, possessives, e.g. *talked*, *goes*, *going*, *books*, *girl's*. Many other prefixes (e.g. *un-*, *il-*, *pre-*, *dis-*) and suffixes (e.g. *-tion*, *-est*, *-ly*, *-able*) are also used in English to make new words e.g. *disappear*, *careful*, *friendly*. Some languages, e.g. Turkish and German, make a lot of use of prefixes and suffixes to create new words. Other languages make little or no use of them.

Grammar includes a large number of terms, grammatical structures, uses and forms. This unit only introduces them generally. The *TKT Glossary* (<http://www.cambridgeesol.org/TKT>) and the grammar books and websites suggested in the Discovery activities on page 8 provide more information.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

- Grammar rules describe the way that language works, but language changes over time, so grammar rules are not fixed. They change too. Unfortunately, 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* from *do not*, *isn't* from *is not*, *won't* from *will not*) are common features 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.
- Learning some grammatical rules and terms makes language learning easier for some learners. Other learners – e.g. young children – may not find them useful at all.
- Just learning grammatical rules and structures doesn't give learners enough help with learning how to communicate, which is the main purpose of language. So, much language teaching has moved away from teaching only grammar, and now teaches, e.g. functions, language skills and fluency as well as grammar.

See Units 9–14 for how we learn grammar, Units 15 and 16 for teaching grammatical structures, Units 18, 19 and 20 for planning lessons on grammatical structures and Units 28 and 31 for approaches to and ways of correcting grammar.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES (See page 171 for answers)

- Which part of speech is each of these words? To help you, think of the words in sentences and look at the table on pages 5–6. (Some words are more than one part of speech.)
 box during walk because younger well wow
 all decide water we clever herself though
- Use prefixes and suffixes to make as many words as you can from these words:
 new possible run
- Find three grammatical structures in your coursebook and complete this table.

Term	Form	Use

REFLECTION

- What do you think these learners' comments mean? Do you agree with them? Why?/Why not?
- Learning grammar doesn't help me to speak English with English-speaking people.
 - Learning grammar rules is really useful, but learning grammatical terms isn't.
 - I didn't need to learn grammar when I learnt my first language.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

- Find out which reference materials are available in your school to help you with grammar. Which are most useful? Why?
- Compare any two of these books on grammar or the grammar information on these two websites. Which do you prefer? Why?
Practical English Usage (second edition) by Michael Swan, Oxford University Press 1995
Discover English by Rod Bolitho and Brian Tomlinson, Macmillan 1995
English Grammar In Use (third edition) by Raymond Murphy, Cambridge University Press 2004
Uncovering Grammar by Scott Thornbury, Macmillan 2001
<http://www.learnenglish.org.uk>
<http://www.englishclub.com>
- Use a grammar book or the *TKT Glossary* to find the meaning of these terms:
active/passive voice, clause, modal verb, phrase, question tag, tense.

.....

TKT practice task (See page 176 for answers)

For questions 1-6, match the underlined words in the text below with the parts of speech listed A-G. There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Parts of speech

- | |
|---------------|
| A conjunction |
| B preposition |
| C noun |
| D adverb |
| E pronoun |
| F verb |
| G adjective |

I want you to write a (1) list of ten things which (2) you like. Do it (3) carefully. But don't talk to me or your sister. (4) Ask me about any (5) difficult words you can't spell. (6) When you have finished, you can watch television.

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
-

Unit 2 Lexis

■ What is lexis?

Lexis is individual words or sets of words, i.e. vocabulary items, that have a specific meaning, for example: *tree, get up, first of all*.

■ Key concepts

What meanings does the word *tree* have?

Vocabulary items 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’. 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, denotation. 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 were 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 is created by adding **prefixes** or **suffixes** to base words (e.g. *nationality, unprofessional*), or by making **compound words** (two or more words together that have meaning as a set, e.g. *telephone number, bookshop*) or by **collocation** (words that often occur together, e.g. *to take a holiday, heavy rain*).

To help distinguish the meaning of words from other related words, vocabulary items can be grouped into **synonyms** (words with the same or similar meanings), **antonyms** (words with opposite meanings), and **lexical sets** (groups of words that belong to the same topic area, e.g. members of the family, furniture, types of food). The table below shows some examples.

Vocabulary items	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	<i>simple</i> (for meaning 1) <i>certain</i> (for meaning 3)	(none)
Antonyms/ Opposites	<i>confusing</i> (meaning 1), <i>untidy, covered</i> (meaning 2) <i>unsure</i> (meaning 3)	(none)
Lexical sets	(none)	<i>stone, plastic, cloth, etc.</i>

Vocabulary items	clear (<i>adjective</i>)	paper (<i>noun</i>)
Prefixes + base word	<i>unclear</i>	(none)
Base word + suffixes	<i>clearly, a clearing</i>	<i>paperless</i>
Compounds	<i>clear-headed</i>	<i>paper knife, paper shop, paperback</i>
Collocations	<i>clear skin, a clear day</i>	<i>to put pen to paper</i>
Figurative meanings	<i>a clear head</i>	<i>on paper</i> (e.g. <i>It seemed a good idea on paper</i>)

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* vs the verb *to clear*. We can also see that not all words have all the kinds of forms, and that it is not always possible to find synonyms for words, as few words are very similar in meaning.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

- Really knowing a word means knowing all its different kinds of meanings.
- Knowing a word also involves understanding its form, i.e. what part of speech it is, how it works grammatically, and how it is pronounced and spelt.
- Whether we are learning our first or our second language, it takes a long time before we fully know a word. We often recognise a word before we can use it.
- Teachers need to introduce vocabulary items again and again to learners, expanding gradually on their meaning and their forms. This also increases the chances of learners remembering the item.
- We can introduce vocabulary items in reading and listening before we ask learners to use the items.

See Module 1.2 for factors affecting the learning of vocabulary, Module 1.3 for techniques for the teaching and assessment of vocabulary and Module 2.2 for resources for teaching vocabulary.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES (See page 171 for answers)

- 1 What does each of these sets of words have in common? Are they synonyms, antonyms, lexical sets, compounds, collocations, 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 a straight road, a brilliant idea, hard work, no problem, extremely grateful
 - D neat–tidy, precisely–exactly, to doubt–to question, nobody–no one
 - E microwave, compact disc, toothbrush, paper clip, lampshade, bottle top
 - F illness, badly, useless, doubtful, affordable, ability, practical
 - G imperfect, rewrite, unable, illiterate, incorrect, ultramodern
- 2 Put these words in their right place in the first column in the table on the next page:
 - compound words synonyms antonyms collocations denotations
 - lexical sets prefix + base word base word + suffix

Term	care (<i>noun</i>)	to decide
A	sensitive attention	to choose one option after thinking about several
B	love and attention, worry	to make up your mind
C	neglect	to hesitate
D	politeness, admiration, respect	to think, to hesitate, to wonder
E	(none)	undecided
F	careful, careless, carelessness	decided, decidedly
G	caretaker	(none)
H	great care, take care of	finally decide

REFLECTION

Think about these teachers' comments:

- 1 Beginner learners only need to learn the denotations of words.
- 2 Learners don't need to learn the names for the different types of meaning.
- 3 The only way to learn vocabulary is through reading widely.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

- 1 Look up three words from your coursebook in an English–English dictionary. What kinds of meanings are given for each word?
- 2 Look at Chapter 7 'Vocabulary' in *Learning Teaching* by Jim Scrivener, Macmillan 1994. It tells you more about the meaning of words and gives ideas for teaching vocabulary.
- 3 Look at <http://dictionary.cambridge.org> and <http://www.vocabulary.com>. Which is more useful for teaching vocabulary to your learners? Why? Write your answers in your TKT portfolio.
- 4 Use a dictionary or the *TKT Glossary* to find the meanings of these terms: *affix, homophone, idiom, phrasal verb, register*.

.....
TKT practice task (*See page 176 for answers*)

For questions 1-5, match the examples of vocabulary with the categories listed A-F. There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

<p>Examples of vocabulary</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 impossible, unhappy, disadvantage, rename 2 hard work, a heavy subject, a great idea 3 wonderful, marvellous, brilliant, great 4 longest, director, wooden, slowly 5 oranges, apples, mangoes, bananas 	<p>Categories</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> A synonyms B collocations C compound words D lexical set E words with suffixes F words with prefixes
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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 the signs and symbols in this word mean?

/'stju:dənt/

A **phoneme** is the smallest unit of sound that has meaning in a language. For example, the *s* in *books* in English shows that something is plural, so the sound /s/ has meaning. 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 between words such as *so* and *show*, *sock* and *shock*, *sore* and *shore*. But in Cantonese, you can use either /s/ or /sh/ in words without changing their meaning, i.e. in Cantonese they are not two separate phonemes.

The phonemes of a language can be represented by phonemic symbols, such as /i:/, /aɪ/ and /ɜ/. Each **phonemic symbol** represents only one phoneme, unlike the letters of the alphabet in English where, for example, the letter *a* in written English represents 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. A **phonemic script** is a set of phonemic symbols which show (in writing) how words are pronounced, e.g. *beautiful* is written /bju:tɪfl/, *television* is /telɪvɪʒn/ and *yellow* is /jeləʊ/.

Dictionaries use phonemic script to show the pronunciation of words. They usually have a list of all the phonemic symbols at the beginning of the book, together with an example of the sound each symbol represents. The symbols are often grouped into consonants and vowels, and the vowels are sometimes divided into monophthongs (single vowel sounds as in *put* /pʊt/ or *dock* /dɒk/), and **diphthongs** (a combination of two vowel sounds, e.g. the vowel sound in *make* /meɪk/ or in *so* /səʊ/). There are several phonemic scripts and some small differences in the symbols they use. TKT and most learner dictionaries use symbols from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). There is a list of some of these symbols on page 187.

In dictionary entries for words another symbol usually accompanies the phonemic script. This can be ^ˈ, as in /^ˈbju:tɪfl/, or _ˈ, e.g. /bjuːtɪfl/ or [˚], e.g. /bjũ:tɪfl/. These signs are used to show **word stress**. This is the part of the word which we say with greater energy, i.e. with more length and sound on its vowel sound. Compare the **stress** (the pronunciation with greater energy) in the vowel sounds in the stressed syllables and the other syllables in: pencil, children, important. (The stressed syllables are underlined.) 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 incomplete sentences 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**. One word in the sentence has **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 as the word with main stress. Other words in the sentence are unstressed. For example, in 'She came home late last night' or 'I can't understand a word he says', the words with the main stress are 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* and *I, a, he*.

Main and secondary stress are usually on content words rather than structural words. Content words are nouns, verbs, adverbs or adjectives, i.e. words that give more information. Structural words are usually 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 structural 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. For example, 'The girl ran to 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 girl ran to the sea and jumped in quickly. (i.e. not another person)

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

The girl ran to the sea and jumped in quickly. (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** and vowel shortening in unstressed words and syllables, e.g. the schwa sound /ə/ in *potato* /pə'teɪtəʊ/ or *London* /lʌndən/. 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.

Intonation is another important part of pronunciation. It is the movement of the level of the voice, i.e. the tune of a sentence or a group of words. We use intonation to express emotions and attitudes, to emphasise or make less important particular things we are saying, and to signal to others the function of what we are saying, e.g. to show we are starting or stopping speaking, or whether we are asking a question or making a statement.

To hear 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 should follow 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 16.

■ Key concepts and the language classroom

- Learners of English need to be able to understand a wide variety of accents in English, as English becomes more and more a global language.
- As pronunciation communicates so much of our meaning, producing sounds in a way that can be widely understood is extremely important in language learning. Learners' pronunciation needs to be clear to speakers from many countries.
- A regular focus in lessons on different aspects of pronunciation helps to make learners aware of its importance.
- Teaching materials sometimes include activities or exercises which focus on hearing or producing different sounds in a **minimal pair**, i.e. words distinguished by only one phoneme, e.g. *ship* and *sheep*, *hut* and *hat*, *thing* and *think*, *chip* and *ship*.

See Modules 2.1 and 2.2 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 171 for answers)

- 1 Look at the phonemic symbols on page 187. Practise saying each symbol. Learn them, then test yourself or a colleague.
- 2 How many phonemes are there in each of these words? What are they?
book flashcard number thirteen morning
- 3 Underline the stressed syllable in each of these words:
twenty monkey difficult forget remember
- 4 On which word would you put the main stress in each of these sentences?
My name is Julia, not Janet.
Brasilia is in the middle of Brazil, not on the coast.
The girl was much taller than her older brother. He was really short.
- 5 Say 'I'm sorry' with these different intonations:
A a quick apology B a request for repetition C with surprise

REFLECTION

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

- 1 I don't expect my learners to pronounce the language like a first language speaker.
- 2 Young children learn good pronunciation naturally. You don't need to teach it to them.
- 3 Good teachers need to understand phonology.
- 4 It's not very useful for my learners to learn any of the phonemic symbols.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

- 1 Here is an extract from a pronunciation syllabus. Which parts would be relevant for teaching to your learners?

Lesson	Pronunciation focus
1	Polite intonation in questions
5	Intonation in question tags to show agreement
Progress check	/i/ and /iː/; being aware of speaker's attitude
7	Stress and intonation when correcting someone
12	Word stress in sentences
15	Stress in compound nouns

(adapted from *Reward* by Simon Greenall, Macmillan 1995)

- Find five words you will soon teach your learners. Check their pronunciation in a dictionary. Decide which sounds might be problematic for your learners.
- Have a look at *Sound Foundations* by Adrian Underhill, Macmillan 1994. It has lots of useful information about different aspects of phonology.
- Listen to other people's pronunciation and practise your own on this website: <http://towerofenglish.com/pronunciation.html>
- Play with the phonemic symbols on this website: <http://janmulder.co.uk/Phonmap>
- Use a dictionary and/or the *TKT Glossary* to find the meaning of these terms: *consonant*, *linking*, *syllable*, *voiced/unvoiced sound*, *vowel*.

.....

TKT practice task (See page 176 for answers)

For questions 1-5, look at the questions about phonology and the possible answers. Choose the correct answer A, B or C.

-
- How many phonemes does the word *heart* have?
A two B three C four
 - How is *paper* written in phonemic script?
A pæpə B pɪpə C peɪpə
 - Which of the following is true about a stressed syllable?
A It contains the schwa sound. B It sounds stronger. C It is spoken fast.
 - Which of the following is a minimal pair?
A pin/bin B so/sing C lot/list
 - Which of the following is a contraction?
A see you B ASAP C haven't
-

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 purpose or function. Here are some examples of functions:

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

Functions are a way of describing language use. We can also describe language grammatically or lexically (through vocabulary). When we describe language through functions we emphasise 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 (in speech marks)	Function
A boy wants to go to the cinema with his friend tonight.	The boy says to his friend: ‘Let’s go to the cinema tonight.’	<u>Suggesting/making a suggestion</u> about going to the cinema
A girl meets some people for the first time. She wants to get to know them.	The girl says to the group: ‘Hello. My name’s Emilia.’	<u>Introducing</u> yourself
A customer doesn’t understand what a shop assistant has just said.	The customer says to the shop assistant: ‘Sorry, what do you mean?’	<u>Asking for clarification</u> (i.e. asking someone to explain something)
A girl writes a letter to a relative thanking her for a birthday present.	The girl writes ‘Thank you so much for my lovely ...’	<u>Thanking</u> someone for a present

The language we use to express a function is called an **exponent**. The pieces of direct speech in the middle column in the table above are all 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 several different functions. 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 these two different contexts:

Module 1

<i>Context</i>	<i>Function</i>
A boy talking to his mother while he does his homework	Requesting to stop doing homework
A patient talking to her doctor	Describing feelings

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. How are they different from one another?

Coming for lunch?

Come for lunch with us?

Would you like to come to lunch with us?

Why don't you come for lunch with us?

We would be very pleased if you could join us for lunch.

These exponents express different **levels of formality**, i.e. more or less relaxed ways of saying things. Generally speaking, **formal** (serious and careful) exponents are used in formal situations, **informal** (relaxed) exponents in informal situations and **neutral** (between formal and informal) exponents in neutral situations. It is important to use the level of formality that suits a situation. This is called **appropriacy**. A teacher who greets a class by saying 'I'd like to wish you all a very good morning' is probably using an exponent of the function of greeting that is too formal. A teacher who greets a class by saying 'Hi, guys!' might be using language that is too informal. Both of these could be examples of **inappropriate** use of language. It would probably be **appropriate** for the teacher to say 'Good morning, everyone' or something similar.

■ Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

- In language teaching, coursebooks are often organised around functions.
- For example, the map of the book in a coursebook could list functions and language like this:

<i>Functions</i>	<i>Language</i>
Expressing likes	First and third person present simple affirmative: <i>I like ...</i> , <i>he/she likes ...</i>
Expressing dislikes	First and third person present simple negative: <i>I don't like ...</i> , <i>he/she doesn't like ...</i>

- Functions are often taught in coursebooks together with the grammar of their main exponents. There is an example of this in the map of the book above. You can see that the language in the second column includes 'present simple affirmative', which is a grammatical term, while '*I like ...*, *he/she likes ...*' are exponents of the function 'Expressing likes'.

- Combining functions and grammar helps to give grammar a meaning for learners and helps them to learn functions with **grammatical structures** that they can then use in other contexts.
- A functional approach to teaching language helps teachers find real-world contexts in which to present and practise grammar, and helps learners to see the real-world uses of the grammar they learn.

See Units 15 and 16 for teaching activities for functions, Units 18 and 20 for lesson planning and Units 26–27 for classroom functions.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES (See page 171 for answers)

- 1 List at least four different exponents for each of these functions: introducing yourself, suggesting, asking for clarification, thanking.
- 2 Go through the list of exponents you made in 1 and mark them F (formal), N (neutral) or I (informal).
- 3 Look at your list of exponents. Which are suitable to teach to a beginners' class?

REFLECTION

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

- 1 It is easier to teach functions than grammar.
- 2 Functions contain too much complicated grammar for beginner learners.
- 3 Learners don't need to learn the names of functions – just some of the exponents.

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

- 1 Look at the map of your coursebook. Is it organised around functions? What kinds of activities are used in the coursebook units to introduce and practise functions?
- 2 In your TKT portfolio, list six functions your learners might need to learn to use their English outside the classroom. List the most useful exponents for them, too.
- 3 To find out more about functions and exponents, look at Chapter 5 of *Threshold 1990* by JA van Ek and JLM Trim, Council of Europe, Cambridge University Press 1998.
- 4 Here are the names of four common functions: *enquiring, negotiating, predicting, speculating*. Use a dictionary and/or the *TKT Glossary* to find their meanings. Can you think of two exponents for each one?

.....
TKT practice task (*See page 176 for answers*)

For questions 1-6, match the example sentences with the functions listed A-G.
There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Example sentences

- 1 I don't think that's a very good idea.
- 2 It's a beautiful place with a big river.
- 3 He might be able to, I'm not sure.
- 4 What I mean is ...
- 5 I'd really love to fly to the moon.
- 6 They're much older than their friends.

Functions

- A describing
 - B clarifying
 - C comparing
 - D disagreeing
 - E wishing
 - F suggesting
 - G speculating
-

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 text. To do this we need to understand the language of the text at word level, sentence level and 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. These sentences are connected to one another by grammar and vocabulary and/or knowledge of the world. Reading also involves understanding the connection between sentences. For example:

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

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 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'.

When we read we do not necessarily read everything in a text. What we read depends on why and how 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.

These examples show us that we read different text types and we read for different reasons. 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. Learning to read also involves learning how to handle these different text types.

Our reasons for reading influence how we read, i.e. which reading **subskill** (a skill that is part of a main skill) we use. For example, 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 hurry 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**, i.e. reading quickly 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.

A third reading subskill is **reading for detail**. If you read a letter from someone you love who you haven't heard from for a long time, you probably read like this, getting the meaning out of every word.

Another way of reading is **extensive reading**. Extensive reading 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.

Sometimes, especially in language classrooms, we use texts to examine language. 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**. They are not a reading skill, but a language learning activity.

We can see that reading is a complicated process. It involves understanding letters, words and sentences, understanding the connections between sentences (coherence and cohesion), 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

- 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, and they need help to transfer these skills. Teachers need to check which reading subskills their learners are good at, then focus on practising the subskills they are not yet using well, and, if necessary, on teaching them language which will help them do this.
- Giving learners lots of opportunities for extensive reading, in or out of class, helps them to develop their fluency in reading.
- The reading subskills that we need to teach also depend 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. These learners need to learn the script of English, and maybe also how to read a page from left to right.
- We need to choose the right texts for our learners. Texts should be interesting for learners in order to motivate them. Texts should also be at the right level of difficulty. A text may be difficult because it contains complex language and/or because it is about a topic that learners don't know much about.

- We can make a difficult text easier for learners to read by giving them an easy comprehension task. Similarly, we can make an easier text more difficult by giving a hard comprehension task. This means that the difficulty of a text depends partly on the level of the comprehension task that we give to learners.
- Sometimes we may ask learners to read texts that are specially written or simplified for language learners. At other times they may read articles, brochures, story books, etc. that are what a first language speaker would read. This is called **authentic material**. The language in authentic material is sometimes more varied and richer than the language in simplified texts. Experts believe that learners learn to read best by reading both simplified and authentic materials.
- Different reading comprehension tasks and exercises focus on different reading subskills. Teachers need to recognise which subskill a task focuses on.
- Teachers need to choose comprehension tasks very carefully. They need to be of an appropriate level of difficulty and practise relevant reading subskills.
- The activities in a reading lesson often follow this pattern:
 - 1 Introductory activities: an introduction to the topic of the text and activities focusing on the language of the text
 - 2 Main activities: a series of comprehension activities developing different reading subskills
 - 3 Post-activities: activities which ask learners to talk about how a topic in the text relates to their own lives or give their opinions on parts of the text. These activities also require learners to use some of the language they have met in the text.

See Unit 16 for activities practising different reading subskills, Module 2.1 for lesson planning and Module 2.2 for resources to help plan lessons.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY (See page 171 for answers)

Look at this text and activities from a coursebook for intermediate level teenagers and young adults. What does each activity aim to do? Match the activities with the aims in the box. (There is one extra aim.)

to relate the text to our world knowledge	to practise skimming
to introduce the topic	to practise reading for specific information

BEFORE READING

- 1 Do people eat out a lot in your country?
- 2 What different kinds of foods are there?

When people think of food in the United States, they think mostly of fast foods like hamburgers and hot dogs. In fact, in U.S. cities like New York and Los Angeles, there are thousands of different kinds of restaurants with foods from all over the world.

So if you like to try different foods, the United States is the place for you. The United States has people from all over the world, and they bring with them typical foods from their countries. You can eat tempura in Japanese restaurants, tacos in Mexican restaurants, paella in Spanish restaurants, pasta in Italian restaurants, and you can also eat America’s most popular food, pizza.

Yes, pizza! Pizza is originally from Italy, but today it is an important part of the U.S. menu. There are about 58,000 pizzerias in the United States – that’s about 17 percent of all restaurants in the country, and the number is growing.

The United States has eating places for all tastes – and all pockets. You can buy a hot dog on the street and pay one or two dollars. Or you can go to a four-star restaurant and pay \$200 for a dinner.

AFTER READING

A Read the article and fill in the information:

1 Number of different kinds of restaurants in the U.S.	
2 Cost of a meal at a very good restaurant	
3 Cost of a hot dog on the street	
4 Number of pizzerias in the U.S.	

B Make a typical menu from your country. Include food for breakfast, lunch and dinner.

(adapted from *SuperGoal 2* by Manuel dos Santos, McGraw-Hill 2001)

REFLECTION

- 1 What are the easiest and most difficult things for you about reading in English?
- 2 What helped you most to read English well when you were a learner?

DISCOVERY ACTIVITIES

- 1 Look at one 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 TKT portfolio.
- 2 Exchange ideas with colleagues about books or magazines in English that you have enjoyed.
- 3 Teach a reading lesson. Put your plan and your materials in your TKT portfolio. Include some comments about what was successful/not successful and why. Also comment on how you would improve the lesson next time.
- 4 Look at these websites:
<http://www.learnenglish.org.uk> for reading texts and activities for primary-age learners
<http://kids.mysterynet.com> for mystery stories to read and solve
<http://www.thenewspaper.org.uk> for newspaper extracts with sports, news and music for teens.
- 5 Use the *TKT Glossary* to find the meaning of these terms: *deduce meaning from context, prediction, text structure, topic sentence*. Think about how these terms could influence your teaching.

.....

TKT practice task (See page 176 for answers)

For questions 1-5, match the instructions with the ways of reading listed A-F.
 There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

Ways of reading

- A reading for specific information
- B reading for detail
- C reading for gist
- D intensive reading
- E deducing meaning from context
- F extensive reading

Instructions

- 1 Find all the words in the story about pets.
 - 2 Read the text. Decide which is the best heading for it.
 - 3 Read the article to find out exactly how the machine works.
 - 4 Finish reading the story at home.
 - 5 Read the poster to find the dates of Annie's, Sam's and Julie's birthdays.
-