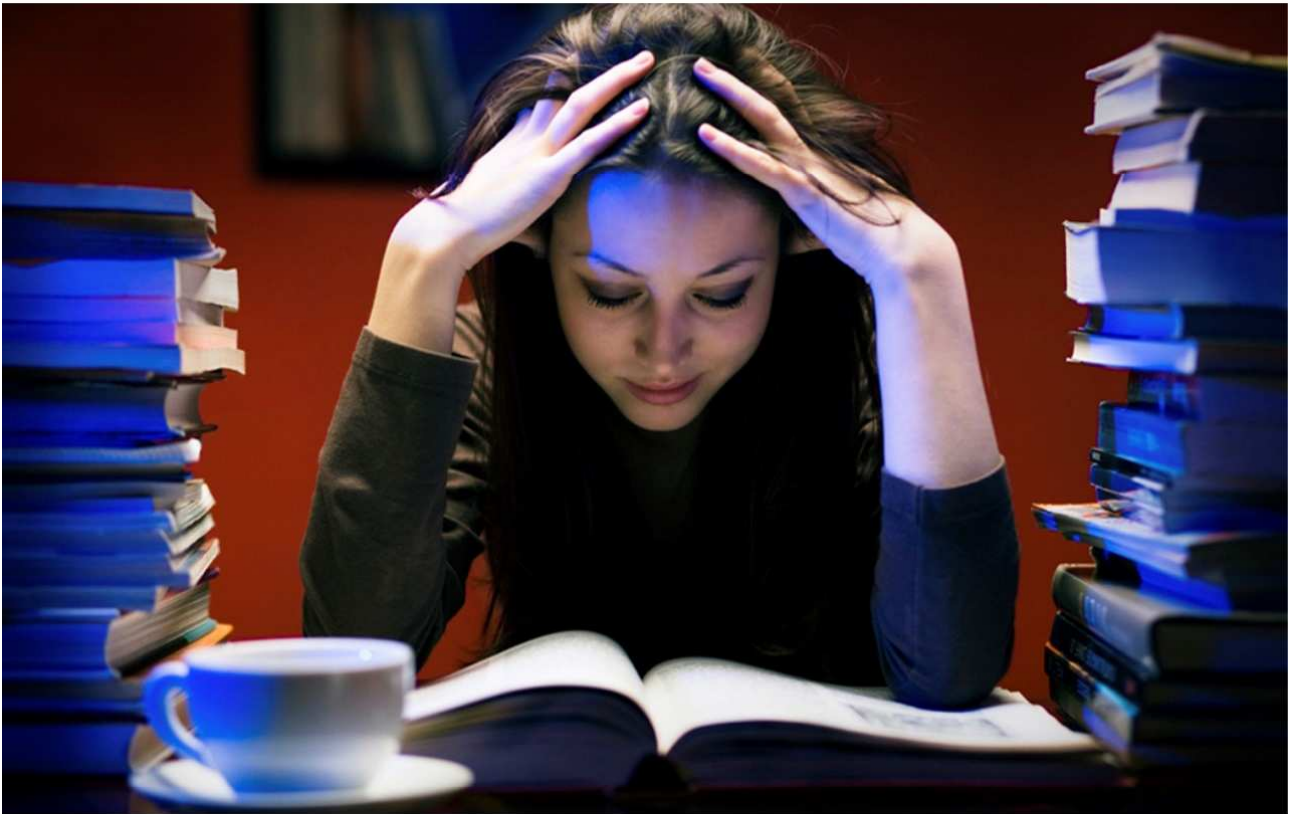# ELT Concourse

The Cambridge Teaching Knowledge Test
a candidate's study companion to the course on
www.eltconcourse.com

The TKT scheme
Testing your knowledge
Preparing for the examination

Notices

This booklet is not for sale.

For your free copy, go to: www.eltconcourse.com/training/tkt/tkt_companion.html

Copyright:

From time to time, this booklet will be updated, amended or extended. When that happens, the version number in the header will change.

Contents

Introduction

How to use this study companion

This booklet does not take the place of the course on ELT Concourse, or any other TKT course you are taking. It has four main functions:

1. It is a handbook for you to keep with you to remind yourself of the most important things you need to know when you are taking the TKT examination.

2. It looks at the syllabus for each of the three TKT Modules and has self-test questions for each part of each Module.

3. It lists and explains the key ideas and concepts that you need to understand for the TKT examination.

4. It provides links to all the TKT materials on the site and to other materials you may find helpful.

What is TKT?

TKT is a modular course which is assessed *via* a paper-based examination. There is no practical teaching assessment.

In Cambridge's own words:
TKT shows how you are developing as a teacher. It is ideal for people who want to prove their teaching knowledge with a globally recognised certificate.
With TKT, you show employers that you:
>*are familiar with different teaching methodologies*
>*know how to use teaching resources effectively*
>*understand key aspects of lesson planning*
>*can use different classroom management methods for different needs.*
Source: https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/teaching-english/teaching-qualifications/tkt/

As well as the course at https://www.eltconcourse.com/training/tkt/tkt_index.html, many institutions worldwide offer face-to-face courses to prepare you for the examinations.
You do not have to take a face-to-face course to enter the examinations. You can enter through any Cambridge Open Centre.

The TKT Scheme – purposes

TKT is not a teaching qualification because you are not observed and assessed on your classroom teaching skills. It is, as the name says, a test of your knowledge **about** teaching, not a test of **how well** you can teach. However, Cambridge claims that

> *TKT is recognised as an English language teaching qualification by many organisations*
> *and institutions around the world.*
> (TKT Handbook)

If you are successful in the TKT examination, you have shown that you are knowledgeable about

- ■ language and language use
- ■ the background to and practice of language teaching and learning

Being successful in the TKT examination will increase your confidence and allow you to go on take a more advanced qualification, such as The Cambridge Delta or Trinity DipTESOL.

Registering to take TKT

To take your TKT examination, you must register directly with an authorised Cambridge centre. There are 875 centres around the world so there should be one near you. If you go to:

https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/find-a-centre/find-a-teaching-centre/

you can search for centres that offer TKT. As at April 2018 there are TKT examination centres in the following countries:

Albania, Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bangladesh, Belgium, Bolivia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brazil, Bulgaria, Cambodia, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, Estonia, Ethiopia, Fiji, France, French Guiana, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Hong Kong, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iraq, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Korea, Republic of Kosovo, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Lebanon, Libya, Macau, Malaysia, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, Moldova, Republic of Morocco, Myanmar, Nepal, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Palestine, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Tajikistan, Thailand, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela, Vietnam
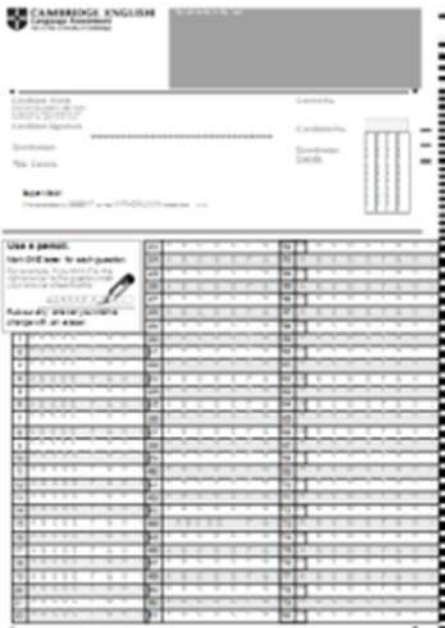
How is TKT assessed?

For each module there are 80 multiple-choice or matching questions.

You fill in your answers on an answer sheet like the example on the left.

You do not have to write anything else.

There are 4 assessment Bands:

- Band 4: To come into Band 4, you will need 70 out of 80 possible marks (87.5%). You have shown that you have
    - A comprehensive and accurate / extensive knowledge of areas on the TKT syllabus
    - An understanding of a full range of topics
- Band 3: To come into band 3, you will need 45-50 marks out of 80 (56.25-62.5%). You have shown that you have
    - A generally comprehensive and accurate / extensive knowledge of areas on the TKT syllabus
    - An understanding of most topics
- Band 2: You have shown that you have
    - A basic knowledge of areas on the TKT syllabus
    - An understanding of some topics
- Band 1: You have shown that you have
    - A restricted knowledge of areas on the TKT Module syllabus
    - An understanding of a restricted range of topics

You should only be interested in gaining Band 3 or Band 4.

The ELT Concourse training course for TKT gives you plenty of practice. Many of the practice tests are based on the formats you will find in the real examination.

TKT pass rates

Worldwide, the figures look like this:

Pass Band 4	10.5%
Pass Band 3	61.4%
Pass Band 2	23.6%
Pass Band 1	1.7%

Source: https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/research-and-validation/quality-and-accountability/grade-statistics/2018

You should be aiming for at least Band 3 and the on-line course is intended to help you do even better than that.

Doing the course on ELT Concourse

Should I follow the guides in order?

Yes. If you are new to TKT, follow the guides in order starting with the beginning of Module 1 (grammar) and finishing at the end of Module 3 (giving feedback).

Module One starts at: https://www.eltconcourse.com/training/tkt/tktmodule1/tkt_m1_index.html
Module Two starts at: https://www.eltconcourse.com/training/tkt/tktmodule2/tkt_m2_index.html
Module Three starts at: https://www.eltconcourse.com/training/tkt/tktmodule3/tkt_m3_index.html

Each part of the course is written on the basis that you have followed the previous parts.

If you are coming to the course for some extra work and revision, you can take the guides in any order.

What if I don't understand something?

You can:

- Repeat the guide.
- Search ELT Concourse to find more guides to the area that puzzles you.
- Ask a question. This is a free course, so you don't have immediate tutor support, but you can use the contact link from the home page to ask a question. If lots of people ask the same question, we'll try to answer it.

What equipment do I need?

You'll need to read and take notes in many of the guides because they have tasks for you to complete. If you do not do the tasks, you will not learn as much or engage with the materials.
A printer will be helpful for some guides, but you do not need one.

What resources do I need?

If you follow this course carefully and read other guides on this site which are linked to it, you will have everything you need to pass TKT. **No further reference materials or activities are needed.**

How do I revise?

The really simple way is to do the course again!

There are short revision courses for all three Modules on the site and they are linked from the TKT index page. Do not do these until you have followed the course for the Module.

As you work through the course, there are tests to help you know if you have learned what you need to know. You can repeat all the tests and exercises in each Module.

What other help is on ELT Concourse?

From the teacher-training index, you can follow links to all the guides on the site. There are too many to list here so go to www.eltconcourse.com/training/training_index.html for the index and look around from there.

Essential background for TKT

There are some critical ideas and concepts that you need to be clear about as you follow the course for TKT preparation on eltconcourse.com.

Use the information here to identify the areas you want to learn more about and then follow the links at the end to access the guides on eltconcourse.com. What follows here will give you some essential data to work with and help you to understand what your tutors are talking about.

Communicative vs. structural approaches to language teaching

Communicative approaches to language teaching start from the premise that people listen and read, speak and write to communicate something to someone else or understand what is said or written to them. For example, we may want to ask a question, give some information, apologise, invite, complain, follow instructions, find places and information, understand what people want or express an opinion. These things are known as **functions** of language and they form the basis of communicative language teaching.

Structural approaches to language teaching start from the premise that language is a system of rules and patterns and it is these that need to be taught. We need, to be able to speak a language, to master its pronunciation (called the phonological system), its writing (alphabet, spelling and so on), its word classes (adjectives, nouns, verbs etc.) and its tense structures (past, present, future and so on). The list could be very greatly extended, of course.

Nowadays, many teachers who prefer a communicative approach to teaching will not hesitate to teach structure and many teachers who are comfortable with a structural approach will recognise that language is produced to fulfil a communicative function and will include opportunities in teaching programmes for that to happen. Nevertheless, the distinction between the two approaches is real and important.

Second-language acquisition (SLA)

This refers to how people learn a language other than their first language. Although some people believe the processes are similar if not identical, others will assert that the processes are completely different. Nobody, not even eltconcourse.com, knows the right answer.

Four important concepts

Use vs. Usage

If, for example, someone says

> *I have a terrible headache*

and the reply is:

> *It's nearly 6 o'clock in New York*

we know what the words mean but they carry no communicative value.

That is language usage – paying attention to form rather than communication.

If, on the other hand, the reply is:

> *I'll get you something for it*

then we understand the words and they carry a useful communicative value.

That is language use – what people do with the language to communicate.

Deductive vs. Inductive learning

Deductive processing involves the application of given rules to the data.

For example, once you have been made aware that putting the right ending (*-d* or *-ed*) on a verb in English forms the past tense, you can take any of hundreds of verbs and form the correct past tense e.g.,

smoke – smoked

finish – finished

and so on.

Inductive processing works the other way around.

Given the examples of the transformation above and some more examples, such as

smoke – smoked

finish – finished

open – opened

close - closed

etc.

You can figure out for yourself what the rule is.

You will not, by the way, be right for all the verbs in the language because some are irregular (*break – broke, come – came* etc.) and this won't help you much with meaning, but you will, one way or another, have learned a useful rule.

Behaviourism

It is well attested that one can teach rats (and all sorts of other creatures) by a process of stimulus and reward. Rats, famously, can be taught complex sequences of behaviour such as finding their way through a maze based purely on rewarding, i.e., positively reinforcing, certain behaviours and punishing, i.e., negatively reinforcing, unwanted behaviour.

Behaviourism is the theory of learning that still underlies how you train your dog or drill your learners' pronunciation. It can be visualised like this:

Briefly, and somewhat unscientifically:

1. The process starts with a stimulus, say, a question from the teacher such as *Where did you go yesterday?* put to the organism (in this case, a learner of English). The stimulus can elicit a variety of responses but only the 'right' one will be reinforced.
2. So, for example, if the organism responds with *I go to the cinema* the teacher will negatively reinforce it with *No, that's wrong* or simply not reinforce it by saying nothing.
3. If, on the other hand, the organism produces the preferred response, *I went to the cinema* the teacher will reinforce it with *Yes, that's right!* (preferably in a loud and enthusiastic voice because the strength of the reinforcement is critical in instilling the correct habit). In this case, the reward is the teacher's approval but it could just as well be a chocolate biscuit.
4. Enough Stimulus > Response > Reinforcement cycles will see the habit instilled and the language acquired.

This theory of learning underlies drilling language in the classroom, setting mechanical (and not so mechanical) exercises, repetition of language and much else.

Cognitivism

Is the opposed view and sees language learning as an active process involving the learners in thinking, forming associations and hypothesising rules from the data they are given. An influential idea is called Active Construction of Grammar Theory which asserts that learners of both first and second languages are actively

hypothesising what its rules are and refining their hypotheses as more data become available. It explains, among much else, the fact that both first and second language learners may apply a newly-acquired rule indiscriminately and, for example, put an *-ed* ending on all verbs to show past tenses before they refine the hypothesis and link the phenomenon only to regular verbs in English.

For example, a child learning English as its first language and an older learner learning it as an additional language may both start by saying *came* and *went* and then, having spotted the rule for making past tenses in English, start to say *comed* and *goed* before noticing the exceptions and limitations and reverting to the correct forms. For obvious reasons, that is known as the U-shaped learning curve.

Links to guides on eltconcourse.com

There are some guides on the site:

An overview of methodology – what it is and how we can describe it
www.eltconcourse.com/training/initial/teaching/methodology_essentials.html
How learning happens
www.eltconcourse.com/training/training/initial/teaching/learning.html
The background theory index on the site for more is at
www.eltconcourse.com/training/initial/indexes/background_methdology_index_ip.html

A glossary of methodology and background terminology

You will not need to understand and use everything in this list for the purposes of a TKT course but if you are confused by some terms you hear or read about, this may help.

Term	Gloss
Acceptability	A judgement concerning the appropriateness or accuracy of a language item
Achievement test	A test designed to measure how well something has been learned
Acquisition	A term contrasted with learning referring to the unconscious acquiring of a language
Active vocabulary	The vocabulary a learner can use as well as understand
Adjacency pair	Two utterances related by function and often co-occurring. For example, accusing and apologising
Affect	Emotional effect
Affective filter	A hindrance to learning caused by stress or uncertainty
Approach	A term often used instead of *methodology* to describe a theory of language and a theory of learning. E.g., a communicative approach
Appropriateness	Descriptive of the social acceptability of a language item
Audio-visual aid	Any chart, diagram, video sequence or audio recording etc. used in a classroom
Aural	Referring to hearing / listening
Authenticity	The degree to which teaching materials come from the 'real world'
Behaviourism	A theory of learning based around the acquisition of habit and reinforcement of learning
Cloze test	Technically, removing, e.g., every fifth or seventh word from a passage and asking test takers to guess the missing words. Informally, a gap-fill test
Cognate	A word which has the same derivation and is similar in form in more than one language (meaning may or may not vary)
Cognition	Mental processes such as thinking, remembering, recognising, inferencing, deducing and classifying
Communicative	To do with the exchange of information, feelings, attitudes etc. between a Sender (the speaker / writer) and the Receiver (the listener / reader)
Communicative Language Teaching	An approach which has as its aim the ability to communicate effectively and which uses simulated or real communicative situations in teaching
Communicative competence	The ability to: a) form accurate language b) understand the rules of speaking c) know how to make and understand speech acts and perform identifiable functions in language d) know where and when to use the language (i.e., understand what is appropriate)
Competence	A person's internalised grammar
Comprehensible input	Input of language which can be understood and form the basis of learning
Computer assisted language learning (CALL)	Using computers as a major element in the teaching-learning process
Concept checking question	A display question intended to ascertain whether an idea has been understood

Term	Gloss
Co-text and Context	The first refers to the language around an item, the second to the broader setting in which the language occurs. The term context is often used for both.
Co-operative / Collaborative learning	An approach in which learners are organised into groups or pairs to work together
Deductive learning	Learning based on being given the rule and from that to produce acceptable language
Delayed correction	A technique which avoids the interruption of an activity and leaves correction of language until its completion
Descriptive grammar	Grammar which describes what native speakers do rather than attempting to say what is right or wrong
Direct method	Teaching a language in the language
Discourse analysis	Analysing language above the level of the sentence
Discovery learning	Learning through being led to the rules by observation and noticing
Drill	Any technique based on repetition or cueing
EAP	English for Academic Purposes (i.e., studying in the language)
Extensive	Reading or listening in quantity rather than to limited amounts of language
FLA	First Language Acquisition
Function	The social purpose for which language is produced
Grammar translation	An approach to teaching which focuses on accessing the culture and literature of the target language using translation and grammatical study
Humanism	A term referring to the importance of human values, self-awareness, sensitivity and cultural appropriateness in teaching methodologies
Inductive learning	A learning theory which assumes that people can arrive at a language rule by being given access to sufficient examples of it in action
Information gap	A communicative task based around a difference of information provided to the task doers
Interaction	The use of language to maintain social relationships
Interlanguage	A learner's current ability on a scale of knowing none of the language to full mastery
Lexicon	A learner's total knowledge of words in a language
Meaningful drill	A type of drilling in which it is necessary for the learner to understand the meaning of the cue to be able to respond
Mechanical drill (aka meaningless drill)	A type of drill in which it is possible for the learners to produce a correct response even if they do not understand the meaning of the cue
Method	A way of teaching based on principles and theory
Modelling	Providing an example to imitate
Motivation	The willingness to expend effort in doing something
Oral	Concerned with speaking
Pedagogic grammar	A grammar designed for learners and for teachers to use
Performance	What people actually say in a language. Cf. competence
Phonemics	The study of the sound units of a language
Phonetics	The study of all speech sounds
Pragmatics	The study of the use of language to communicate
Prefabricated language	Language learned and used as a single concept or chunk, e.g., *What's the matter?*
Prescriptive grammar	Grammar which sets out what is considered right and wrong rather than describing what people say
Process approach	An approach to teaching (especially of writing) which focuses on subskills such as drafting, proofing, expanding and so on rather than the product

Term	Gloss
Product approach	An approach to teaching (especially of writing) which focuses on producing a text based on a model provided
Redundancy	Describing the fact that a message will contain more information than is required for comprehension. For example, in *He says*, the *-s* ending is redundant because the pronoun already carries the third person singular information
Scanning	Looking through a text to locate specific information
Schema (pl. schemata)	A mental framework in which information is ordered and classified
Semantics	The study of meaning (cf. pragmatics)
Situational Language Teaching	An oral approach to teaching which sets language in a social context and focuses on function words in particular
Structural linguistics	The study of language from a structural point of view involving phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences and texts as a hierarchy
Style	Variation in formality
Topic sentence	The sentence in a paragraph, usually the first, which sets out the theme of the paragraph
Use / Usage	The former refers to an utterance's communicative value, the latter to its significance or form
Wait time	The amount of time a teacher waits after asking a question before moving on

Language Systems Analysis for TKT

A basic training course: This covers both methodology and language structure. Find it at:
https://www.eltconcourse.com/training/courses/basic/introduction_basic.html

A language analysis course: This only covers language structure and is more difficult and more complete.
Find it at:

https://www.eltconcourse.com/training/courses/lacourse/language_analysis_course_index.html

Try to do at least one of those before you start the TKT course. It will prepare you well.

Grammar books

If you are preparing to take a TKT examination, you will need understand some essential grammar.

There are two types of grammars, divisible into two subgroups:

> Prescriptive grammars, which tell you what is correct and what is wrong

> Descriptive grammars, which attempt to describe and analyse what native speakers say and write

The subgroups are:

> Pedagogic grammars intended for learners which usually simplify somewhat

> Reference grammars intended for teachers and other researchers

Author(s), publishers and dates	Title	Notes
Alexander, L. G, Longman, 1988	*Longman English Grammar*	Accessible and easy to understand
Carter, R, Cambridge University Press, 2006	*Cambridge Grammar of English*	A reference grammar that is more technical
Foley, M & Hall, D, Pearson, 1988	*Longman advanced learners' grammar*	Designed for learners but very helpful
Leech, G and Svartvik J, 3rd edition, Longman, 2003	*A Communicative Grammar of English*	A technical reference grammar for people who are serious
Parrott, M, Cambridge University Press, 2010	*Grammar for English Language Teachers (2nd Ed.)*	Clear and descriptive
Swan, M, Oxford University Press, 2005	*Practical English Usage (3rd Ed.)*	Intended for learners but very useful
Thornbury, S, Oxford University Press, 2004	*Natural Grammar*	Slightly more unusual but a good addition to your shelf

A fuller list which includes some texts on how to teach grammar is on eltconcourse.com at

www.eltconcourse.com/training/common/grammar_reference.html and you may have other resources to hand.

Pronunciation

There is a course on ELT Concourse to teach you how to transcribe the sounds of English. It's at:
www.eltconcourse.com/training/courses/transcription1/transcription.html

What is a phoneme?

In what follows, you will see that certain letters appear between two diagonal lines, like this: /b/.

The diagonal lines are the conventional way to show that we are talking about the sound, not the letter itself.

For example, the first letters of *cinema* and *cave* are the same, a 'c', but the sound they represent is different. In *cinema*, it is an /s/ and in *cave* it is a /k/ sound. Those are phonemes.

A phoneme is, essentially, a sound but the critical point is that it is a sound which carries meaning.

The first thing to be aware of is that we are talking about <u>English</u> sounds. The study of language sounds (phonemic analysis) is <u>language specific</u>. A phoneme in one language is not necessarily a phoneme in another.

Phonemes:

In English, we make a difference between the words *pat* and *bat* simply by changing the 'p' to a 'b' sound. This is because the sounds /p/ and /b/ in English are phonemes. Selecting one sound or another will make a difference to the meaning of the noise you make when you say a word.

If you change a single sound in a word and make a new word, the sound you have changed is a phoneme in that language.

In other languages, Arabic, for example, these two sounds are not phonemes and changing one to the other will not change the meaning of a word (but it might sound odd).

Allophones:

Allophones are slightly different pronunciations of certain phonemes which do not affect the meaning of what is said (although it may sound odd). We saw above that /p/ and /b/ are allophones in Arabic as are, incidentally, /f/ and /v/ in some varieties.

For example, in English the sound /t/ can be pronounced with and without a following /h/ sound. Compare the sounds in *track* and *tack*.

If you hold a thin piece of paper in front of your mouth and say *tack* loudly, the paper will move.

If you do the same with the word *track*, the paper won't (or shouldn't) move (unless you shout).

In English, these two ways to say the letter 't' are not phonemes because you can change from one to the other without changing the meaning of the word. In some languages, Mandarin, for example, the two ways to say 't' are separate phonemes and swapping them around will change the meaning of what you say.

Minimal pairs:

Pairs of words which are distinguished only by a change in one phoneme are called minimal pairs. For example, *hit-hat, kick-sick, fit-bit, sheep-ship, jerk-dirk, hot-cot, love-live* etc. are all distinguished in meaning by a single change to one sound. That's in English, of course. It bears repeating that what is an allophone in English may be a phoneme in other languages and vice versa.

Consonants:

Consonants are the hard sounds of English. If we only have the consonants in a phrase we can still understand the phrase because the consonant sounds carry the most meaning.

For example, try to understand this:

r y cmng t th prty?

If we put the other letters back, we get: *Are you coming to the party?*

In English, 21 letters of the alphabet represent consonants: B, C, D, F, G, H, J, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R, S, T, V, X, Z, and usually W and Y.

However, English spelling is not a good guide to English pronunciation and there are, in fact, 24 consonant sounds.

Vowels:

Vowels are the soft sounds of English. If we only have the vowels in a phrase we cannot usually understand it because the vowels alone carry little meaning.

For example, try to understand this:

ə u ʌ ɪ ə ə ɑː i

If we put the consonants back, we get the more familiar: *Are you coming to the party?*

Vowels can, however, form minimal pairs as in, for example:

> *hare* and *here*
>
> *hot* and *hat*
>
> *put* and *putt*

and so on so they are not without meaning in themselves.

A sound chart

Here is a chart of all the sounds in English with examples and transcriptions:

/iː/	sleep sheep free	/æ/	sat hat flab	/ɪə/	here beer mere	/p/*	pin pat pop	/f/	fan fear huff	/h/	hat hop hip
/ɪ/	kid slid blip	/ʌ/	blood cup shut	/ʊə/	shore pour door	/b/	big bad fib	/v/	van veer cover	/m/	man came mix
/ʊ/	put foot wolf	/ɑː/	part large heart	/ɔɪ/	boy joy toy	/t/*	tip tap pot	/θ/	thin think path	/n/	know near pan
/uː/	goose loose spruce	/ɒ/	hot cot shod	/eə/	lair share fair	/d/	dig dog pad	/ð/	this then breathe	/ŋ/	ring thing sang
/e/	set dead said	/i/	happy navvy sally	/eɪ/	lace day tray	/k/*	cake kick cot	/s/	sit kiss some	/l/†	love lull little
/ə/	about father across	monophthongs		/aɪ/	price wine shine	/g/	got bag hug	/z/	zoo houses maze	/r/	rear ran rob
/ɜː/	verse hearse curse	diphthongs / consonants		/əʊ/	boat coat note	/tʃ/	chair batch choice	/ʃ/	shut push shave	/j/	yet yacht yell
/ɔː/	fought caught brought	voiced consonants		/aʊ/	south house louse	/dʒ/	judge badge jerk	/ʒ/	pleasure leisure measure	/w/	went win water

*These sounds are aspirated when the only consonant at the beginning of the stressed syllable or the first, stressed or unstressed, syllable in a word: /tʰ//pʰ//kʰ/

†/l/ has the allophones, 'light' [l] (leaf /liː f/ and 'dark' [ɫ] (feel /fiːɫ/)

Words

Syllables

Many words in English have only one syllable – they are monosyllabic. For example, words like *house, good, live, out, and, soon* etc. all have only one syllable.

Many other words have two or more syllables – they are polysyllabic. For example, *going* (two syllables), *internet* (three syllables), *national* (four syllables), *contextualise* (5 syllables) and so on.

In English, all words which have two or more syllables will be stressed on one of them. So, we say, for example: *go*ing not go*ing*, e*con*omy not econ*omy*, cont*rol* not *con*trol and so on.

A simple rule for 2-syllable words is to stress the first syllable if they are nouns, adjectives or adverbs and the second syllable if they are verbs but that doesn't always work and getting words stress right is very difficult for learners.

Morphemes

A morpheme is usually defined as the smallest meaningful unit of language. Morphemes are the building blocks from which we make words and some of the grammar.

For example, a word like *book* only has one morpheme and is it *book*. It is a free morpheme that can stand alone.

But in the word *booking* we have two morphemes, *book* and *ing* and the second one cannot stand alone. It is a bound morpheme.

In *bookkeeper*, we have three morphemes, *book*, *keep* and *er*, the first two free morphemes and the last one a bound morpheme.

Prefixes and suffixes

In English, we often make new words by adding to the beginning of a word (a prefix) or adding to the end (a suffix).

For example, if we add the morpheme *dis* to the word *please*, we get its opposite meaning: *displease*.

If we add *ed* to the word *finish* we get its past tense: *finished*.

If we add *ity* to the word *stupid* we change it from an adjective to a noun.

Adding suffixes usually changes the grammar or the type of word. Adding prefixes usually changes the meaning.

Compounding

Often in English, we can put two words together to make a new meaning.

So, for example: *suit* + *case* makes a new word *suitcase* and *loud* + *speaker* makes *loudspeaker*. It is usually (but not always) possible to work out the meaning by knowing the meaning of the original words.

Types of words

There are, by most reckonings, 10 or 11 different sorts of words. Here are two examples of all 10 word classes.

they	ah!	happily	an	enjoy
he	ouch!	fast	the	go
by	but	this	hopeful	ability
out	whereas	those	blue	flower

1. *they* and *he*

    these are pronouns. They function to stand for people or things so instead of

    > *Mary worked in the garden*

    we can say

    > *She worked in it*

    with *she* standing for Mary and *it* standing for the garden.

2. *ah!* and *ouch!*

    these are interjections. They carry little meaning in themselves but they show the speaker's attitude. For example:

    > *Ah! I see* (showing dawning comprehension)

    > *Ouch!* (expressing pain)

3. *happily* and *fast*

    these are adverbs, showing how something is done in, e.g.:

    > *He agreed happily* (how he agreed)

    > *Jane drove fast* (how she drove)

    they can also tell us more about an adjective. For example:

    > *That's <u>very</u> beautiful* (emphasising the adjective)

    they can also tell us about another adverb. For example:

    > *He came <u>extremely</u> <u>reluctantly</u>*

4. *an* and *the*

    these are articles (and the other one is *a*). They give us information about the noun. For example:

    > *I saw a car* (**any** car)

    > *I saw the car* (a **particular** car)

5. *enjoy* and *go*

    these are verbs which tell us about an action, state or event.

    > *I enjoyed the party* (expressing a state of mind)

    > *I go on Thursday* (expressing movement away)

6. *by* and *out*

    these are prepositions which tell us when or where a verb refers to.

    > *I'll arrive by 6* (expressing the connection between an action and the time)

    > *They went out the window* (expressing the connection between an action and a place)

7. *but* and *whereas*

    these are conjunctions which serve to connect ideas.

    > *I rang but she was out* (expressing a negative result)

    > *He lives in London whereas his sister lives in Paris* (expressing a contrast)

8. *this* and *those*

    these are demonstratives telling us about the number and position of something (there are only two others: *that* and *these*)

> *Those are nice* (more than one thing far from the speaker)
>
> *This is beautiful* (one thing near to the speaker)

9. *hopeful* and *blue*

    these are adjectives telling us about a person, feeling or thing

    > *He's feeling hopeful* (telling us about *he*)
    >
    > *The blue vase* (telling us about the *vase*)

10. *ability* and *flower*

    these are nouns for an abstract idea and an object and nouns can also be people, times, feelings and places

    > *The child has ability*
    >
    > *The flowers are gorgeous in spring*

The 11th word class

In many grammars, you will see words described as **determiners**. These words all tell us about the noun in a sentence. The words **in bold** here are all determiners:

The man arrived	**Some** rain would be nice	We went to **that** cinema
Two people left	**All the** money has gone	**My** car has broken down

Two varieties of words

lexical or content words: these words carry meaning even when they stand alone and include:

- adjectives such as *blue, big, lonely, happy* etc.
- verbs such as *go, arrive, contemplate, type, think* etc.
- nouns such as *Monday, table, The President, army, fish, sugar* etc.
- adverbs such as *quickly, fast, slowly, alone, recently* etc.

function or grammar words: these words carry no intrinsic meaning but make the grammar of the language work and connect lexical words together. They include:

- pronouns such as *he, she, it, they, mine, yours, one, everyone, nobody* etc.
- conjunctions such as *because, so, if, when, and, as, although* etc.
- demonstratives: *this, that, these, those*
- articles: *a, an, the*
- determiners: including articles, demonstratives, quantifiers and possessives such as *the, those, five, your* etc.

Word relationships

This is a complicated area but we will look only at the key ideas here. For more, go to the site.

1. **Homonymy**

   The term homonymy comes from the Greek and means 'same name'. The reference is to words like these:

   - *dear and deer*

     These words are written differently but pronounced the same and have **different meanings**. They are **homophones**.

   - *lead weight* and *lead an army*

     These words are written the same but pronounced differently and have **different meanings**. They are **homographs**.

   - *fancy* (adjective) and *fancy* (verb)

     Sometimes homographs are spelt and pronounced the same way but have **different meanings**. They are homographs and homophones and often simply called **homonyms**.

2. **Synonymy**

This refers to words of the same meaning (but they don't always mean exactly the same to all people and often aren't interchangeable).

Examples are:

unhappy-sad	*angry-irritated*	*happy-contented*
old-aged-elderly	*inexperienced-green*	*war-conflict*

and so on.

3. **Antonymy**

Antonymy refers to words which have opposite meanings. For example:

- *tall – short*
- *male – female*
- *open – closed*

and so on.

4. **Collocation**

Some words very often occur together so we have, for example:

- *torrential + rain*
- *raining + heavily*
- *extinguish + fire*

and so on.

Some words do not collocate so we can have:

- *strong winds and heavy snow*

but not

- *strong snow and heavy winds*

5. **Idioms**

Some groups of word act like a single word and cannot be understood by understanding the words in the group. These are called idioms.

For example: *that's a whole new can of worms* does not refer to cans or worms at all but means that something is new and very different. It is impossible to understand what is meant by knowing the meanings of *can* and *worms*. In the jargon, it is opaque.

Some idioms are less opaque so, with a knowledge of boxing conventions, we might be able to work out what is meant by *She threw in the towel*.

Syntax: phrases, clauses and sentences

The study of how well-formed sentences are made in languages is called syntax. It concerns the relationships between words (see above), phrases and clauses.

Here is an example of how a sentence in English may be broken down into its constituent parts. It is called parsing a sentence and you need to know how to do this.

To explain a little:

Subjects, verbs and objects

this man is the <u>subject</u> of the sentence. It tells us **who wants**.

wants is the <u>verb</u> which tells us **what is happening** and it has an *s* at the end to show that it is singular and refers to *he, she* or *it*. In English that is the only change we make in the present tense and it's called an <u>inflexion</u>. Other languages are much more sophisticated and complicated.

some coffee is the <u>object</u> of the sentence and tells us **what the man wants**. Not all verbs have objects but they all have subjects. In this example, it's classified as a mass noun. That means it does not, in this meaning, take a plural form. Other examples include *water, money, sugar, furniture, information* etc. all of which take no plural and use a singular verb (*the furniture etc. **is***, not ***are***).

In English, we almost always put the subject first, then the verb and then the object (if there is one). Other languages may do things differently.

Complements

What sometimes looks like an object of a verb is, in fact something called a complement. For example, in the sentence

> *The water came in through the roof*

You could be forgiven for thinking that *the roof* is the object of the verb. It isn't, it forms part of the <u>complement</u> of the verb. The whole complement is *in through the roof*.

In the same way, in the sentence:

> *She is getting angrier*

the word *angrier* is the complement of the verb (*be*).
but in:

> *She is getting the money*

The money **is** the object of the verb *get*.

Some verbs in English usually connect the subject with a complement and these are called copular or linking verbs. For example, all the **verbs** in these sentences are copular verbs:

> He **looks** upset
> She **appeared** at the door
> John **is** the manager
> His aim **was** making lots of money
> He **looks like** his brother

In all these cases, we have subject + copular verb + complement (not object).

Phrases

Phrases work like single words.
For example, we can say:

> He wants coffee

and we can say

> This man has wanted some coffee

In both cases, *he* and *this man* are doing the same thing – telling us **who** wants. *this man* is called <u>a noun phrase</u> – it is a group of words acting as a single grammatical element.
In both cases, *wants* and *has wanted* are doing the same thing – telling us what is **happening**. *has wanted* is called <u>a verb phrase</u> – it is a group of words acting as a single grammatical element.
In both cases, *coffee* and *some coffee* are doing the same thing – telling us **what** the man wants. *some coffee* is another <u>noun phrase</u> – it is a group of words acting as a single grammatical element.
We can have other sorts of phrases:

> *big, blue* is an adjective phrase
> *extremely quickly* is an adverb phrase
> *in the house* is a prepositional phrase

Clauses

Clauses are independent units of meaning and may be whole sentences or parts of sentences. They are phrases which contain at least one verb.
For example, a sentence like:

> He saw me and ran away

contains two independent clauses:

> he saw me
> [he] ran away

joined by the simple conjunction *and*. (We don't need to repeat *he* because that's the subject of both the verbs.)
Sometimes one of the clauses is not independent and cannot stand alone **with the same meaning**. For example, in the sentence:

> She saw me when I came to the door

We have a main clause

> she saw me

and a subordinate clause

> I came to the door

joined by the conjunction *when.* (This time, the subject of the two verbs is different (*she* and *I*) so we make it clear.)

Conjunctions come in two sorts:

1. Coordinating conjunction (like *and* in the example) which join two clauses of equal importance.
2. Subordinating conjunction (like *when* in the example) which join two clauses but the meaning of one clause depends on the meaning of the other.

Sentences

Sentences have four fundamental functions in language.

Sentence	Function	Comment
John saw a unicorn	Simple statement	This is sometimes called a positive sentence or clause
Did John see a unicorn?	Interrogative	A question form which can also be formed with *who, what, why* etc.
Look at the unicorn	Imperative	Used for commands and suggestions etc.
What an odd-looking unicorn!	Exclamation	Usually introduced with *What* or *How*

Statements are sometimes called <u>declaratives</u> and they can also be negative, e.g., *John didn't see a unicorn*.

Verbs

I was reading a book

Main and auxiliary verbs

Main verbs can stand alone in a sentence and carry meaning. In these sentences, all the verbs **in bold** are main verbs (often called <u>lexical</u> verbs):

He **went** to the shops	Peter **owns** three houses	I **arrive** about 6
I **smoke** too much	The house **is** on fire	She **drove** the car

Auxiliary verbs are of two kinds.

Primary auxiliary verbs make tenses, negatives or questions. In these example, all the verbs **in bold** are primary auxiliary verbs:

I **have** read that	I **will** finish soon	**Do** you need me?
I **got** my house painted	I **was** making breakfast	She **had been** driving for hours
I **did**n't like it	The window **was** repaired	I **will have** finished soon

Modal auxiliary verbs tell us how the speaker or writer feels about the main verb. In these example, all the verbs **in bold** are modal auxiliary verbs:

I **must** go home	**Can** you be quiet, please?	This **must** be the right house
She **should** not do that	**Would** you like some coffee?	I **might** enjoy it
She **used to** live here	I **dared** not go	They **ought** to be here

Transitive and intransitive verbs

As you know, the subject is who or what did the action, the verb is the action and the object is the thing or person the action happened to.

All verbs have subjects (even if we don't say or write them) but some verbs cannot have objects. They are <u>intransitive</u>.

For example, we can say:

> *She broke the vase*

and

> *She stood*

but we can't say

> *She stood the garden*

or

> *She broke*

Because *break* always takes an object and *stand* never takes an object. *Break* is a <u>transitive</u> verb and *stand* is <u>intransitive</u>.

Some verbs can take two objects and they are called <u>ditransitive</u>. For example:

> *He asked the teacher a question*
> *She sold me the car*

In the first sentence, we have *the teacher* (**who** she asked) and *a question* (**what** she asked). The first of these is the <u>indirect object</u> and the second is the <u>direct object</u>.

In the second sentence, we have *me* (**who** she sold the car to) and *the car* (**what** she sold). The first of these is the <u>indirect object</u> and the second is the <u>direct object</u>.

In English, we normally put the indirect object before the direct object. Other languages may do things differently.

Some verbs can be transitive or intransitive (and this is also variable across languages). For example, we can say:

> *She wrote* (with no object)

and

> *She wrote me a letter* (with two objects)

Person and number

Verbs can change their form depending on two elements in most languages, including English.

- A Person: there are three
    1) 1st person: *I* or *we*
    2) 2nd person *he, she, it, they*
    3) 3rd person: *you*
- B Number: singular or plural
    1) Singular: *I, he, she, it, you* [one person]
    2) Plural: *we, they, you* [more than one person]

In English, the forms are quite simple except for the verb *be* and verbs do not change very much to show these differences but other languages are much more complicated.

Tense

Tenses are the ways that languages show the time of an action. This is a complicated area but here is the outline diagram showing all the main tenses in English with their names and examples.

← Past		Present		Future →
I used to smoke *'used to' structure* (a discontinued habit)	I smoke *present simple* (a habit starting in the past and (probably) continuing into the future)			
I had smoked *past perfect simple* (an action before another)	I smoked *past simple* (an action in the past)	I am smoking *present progressive* (a current action)	I am meeting John *present progressive* (an arranged future)	I'll have got it *future perfect* (an action seen from the past in the future)
I had been smoking *past perfect progressive* (a progressive action)	I was smoking *past progressive* (a progressive past action)		I'm going to meet John *going to structure* (an intentional future)	I'll have been smoking *future perfect progressive* (a progressive action seen from the past in the future)
	I have smoked for 10 years *present perfect simple* (an action beginning in the past and continuing into or having an effect in the present)		It's going to rain (a prediction based on evidence)	
	I have been running *present perfect progressive* (a progressive action beginning in the past and continuing into or having an effect in the present)		I'll get it! *future simple* (an offer)	
			I will go in the summer (a fixed or predicted future)	
			I will be meeting John *future progressive* (a progressive event)	

English tense types and their meanings are quite complicated but the forms are generally quite simple when compared, e.g., to other European languages. In French and German, for example, the past tenses of verbs change depending on the subject (plural, singular, first or second person etc.).

You can learn more about tense forms in English at:

www.eltconcourse.com/training/tenses/tenses_index.html.

Aspect

Aspect refers to how we see an action in time. There are usually considered to be two aspects in English although there are, in fact, several more than that.

1. progressive or continuous aspect which tells us that the action is continuing (although it may not be happening right now). We don't know when it started or how long it will go on:

    I am living in London

    He is washing the car

    The professor is giving a series of lectures

2. simple aspect which tells us that an action or event has or had a limited time span or is sudden. In this form, tenses are described as absolute:

    I lived in London

    She came in and spoke to me

    It started to rain

    I will help you tomorrow

3. perfect aspect which tells us something about event or action **in relation to** another time so the tenses can be described as relative:

    I have lived in London for twenty years (and am still here now, relating the past to the present)

    She had already eaten when I came home (relating the fact that her eating came before the speaker's return)

    I will have finished the work by six (relating the event in relation to a time in the future)

There is often no one-to-one relationship between the form of the tense and the aspect of the verb.

Voice

Voice refers to how we see an action, too, but in this case, it tells how we see the roles of the subject and the object not how we see the verb. For example:

He broke the window

is active voice and we emphasise **who** did something

The window was broken

is passive voice and we emphasise what happened **to the window**.

We use a passive form for several reasons:

1. Because both speaker and hearer / writer and reader know the subject of the verb as in, e.g.,

    She was arrested

    where we would assume that *the police* is the subject.

2. Because we don't know the subject as in, e.g.,

    The house was built in 1963

    and we don't know (or much care) who the builder was

3. Because we want to emphasise the subject as in, e.g.,

    The meal was cooked by the children (not the parents)

    in which we are emphasising the doers of the action.

A grammar glossary

The following is brief but enough to start you off. For more, go to the site.

Term	Gloss	*Example*
a-adjective	A special kind of adjective beginning with *a*-. These adjectives are always used following the noun	*The dog is asleep* *NOT* *The asleep dog*
Abstract noun	A noun referring to an intangible concept	*happiness*
Accent	Stress or a diacritic mark	*café* *coffee*
Adjective	A word which modifies a noun phrase	*The large dog* *The dog is friendly*
Adjective phrase	A group of words doing the work of an adjective	*The very large, black dog*
Adverb	A word which modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb or modifies a verb phrase	*She walked quickly* *The book was very expensive* *He usually drives too slowly*
Adverb of degree	An adverb telling you to what extent	*I really enjoyed the book*
Adverb of frequency	An adverb telling you how often (often included into the adverb of time category)	*He usually goes home at 6*
Adverb of manner	An adverb telling you the way something happens	*It quickly became dark*
Adverb of place	An adverb telling you where an action or state exists	*I came inside*
Adverb of time	An adverb telling you when something happens	*She left then*
Adverb phrase	A group of words doing the job of an adverb	*They walked home slowly and sadly*
Adverbial	Any word or phrase which modifies a verb phrase	*He went into town* *Honestly, I don't know*
Agent	In passive clauses, the causer or doer of the action	*The window was broken by them*
Article	A class of determiners which modify noun phrases for number or reference	*She bought a house* *They have an idea* *I am the boss here*

Term	Gloss	*Example*
Aspect	Descriptive of how an event or action is perceived relative to time, e.g., perfect, progressive, continuous, habitual or repeated	*She has arrived* (perfect aspect) *They left* (simple aspect) *She was cycling* (progressive aspect) *She is living in London* (continuous aspect) *They were ringing the bell* (repeated or iterative aspect)
Auxiliary verb	A verb which has no meaning alone but works with main verbs to express speaker perception or aspect. There are two types: primary auxiliary verbs which form tenses and aspects and modal auxiliary verbs	*I have finished* (primary) *He was cycling* (primary) *We should leave* (modal) *I must go home now* (modal)
Base form	The form of the verb from which other inflected forms are derived	The verb *speak* is intransitive
Clause	A group of words containing a finite verb form	*He went because I asked him to*
Collective noun	A noun which refers to a group of things or people	*The army* *A group*
Comparative	The form which is used to show a greater or lesser degree of a quality	*A bigger house* *A more beautiful cat* *She drove more carefully*
Complement	A phrase which completes the meaning of a verb or other element	*The house in the corner* (prepositional phrase complement) *He is the boss* (noun complement of a copular verb)
Conditional	A clause whose truth is contingent on the truth of another	*Give me the money and I'll buy it for you* *Come if you can*
Conjunction	A word to join two ideas (clauses, verbs, nouns etc.)	*She went home because she felt ill* *We ate bread and butter*
Content word	A word which has meaning when standing alone (compare function word)	*house, bring, pretty, usually, French*
Continuous	An aspect of a verb tense to describe something on-going	*She thinks I love her* *They are working in Italy*
Copular verb	A verb which joins two nouns together, a noun and an adjective or a noun and a prepositional phrase	*She became a teacher* *They grew tall* *She was in the garden*
Count noun	A noun which can have a plural and take a plural verb (compare mass noun)	*The cats are in the house*

Term	Gloss	Example
Demonstrative	A class of determiner telling us what noun we are talking about	*This house* *That garden* *Those cars* *These people*
Dependent clause	A subordinate clause	*She had enough money although she wasn't rich*
Determiner	A word which comes before a noun to say what we know about it	*Many people* *The car* *My house* *Those children*
Direct object	The first object of a verb	*He spent the money*
Direct speech	The actual words spoken	*He said, "Hello, Mary."*
Dynamic	Describing: Verb use Adjective use Type of passive clause	*Be quiet, I'm thinking* *He's being stupid* *The window got broken*
Exclamation	A sentence expressing anger or surprise etc.	*How wonderful!*
Function word	Words which have no meaning when alone but make the grammar work	*prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, determiners etc.*
Genitive	The possessive case	*That's my pen*
Gerund	A noun formed from a verb with the suffix *-ing*	*I gave up smoking*
Idiom	A phrase used as a single concept which usually cannot be understood by understanding the words in it	*It's turned up its toes* (died / become useless)
Imperative	The form of the verb used to tell someone what to do or make offers	*Go home* *Don't tell her* *Have some cake*
Indirect object	The second object of a ditransitive verb (dative case)	*He gave me the money*
Indirect speech	A clause is which the words said are reported not *verbatim*	*He greeted Mary*
Infinitive	A non-finite verb form often preceded by *to*	*I came to help* *We should go*
Interjection	A word class signifying emotional state	*Wow!* *Really!* *Oh.*
Interrogative	A question form	*Do you know her?*
Intransitive	Describing a verb which cannot have an object	*She stood alone.*
Lexical verb (aka content or main verb)	A verb that is not an auxiliary but has meaning standing alone	*She wept*

Term	Gloss	*Example*
Lexical word	A word which carries significance rather than performing a grammatical function	*She <u>went</u> to the <u>post office</u>*
Linking verb	See copular verb	
Mass noun	A noun which has no plural and takes a singular verb	*The <u>milk</u> is in the fridge*
Modal auxiliary verb	A verb which tells us how the speaker feels about the main verb	*I <u>should</u> talk to her* *It <u>may</u> rain again*
Morpheme	The smallest meaningful unit of language	*He was protest-ing* (4 morphemes) *The house-s were paint-ed* (6 morphemes)
Multi-word verb	A phrasal Prepositional or Phrasal prepositional verb	*He <u>worked out</u> the solution* *He <u>abstained from</u> voting* *He <u>put up with</u> the noise*
Negative / Negation	A sentence or verb form which refers to something not happening	*It didn't rain* *I deny taking any*
Noun	A word for a person, place, thing, feeling or characteristic	*John* *London* *hammer* *happiness*
Noun phrase	A group of words acting as a noun	*<u>The old man</u> sailed <u>the fishing boat</u>*
Object	The thing the verb acts on (accusative case)	*The old man sailed <u>the boat</u>*
Passive	A clause in which the subject undergoes the action	*They <u>were arrested</u>*
Past participle	See participle	
Perfect	An aspect of the verb describing its relationship to another time	*He <u>has arrived</u>* (describing the relationship to the present) *He <u>had arrived</u>* (describing the relationship to the past)
Person	A grammatical category which indicates who something is about	*<u>I</u> gave it away* (first person singular) *She <u>gives</u> it to charity* (-*s* inflection so second person singular) *I spoke to <u>them</u>* (third-person plural object pronoun)
Personal pronoun	A pronoun for a person or persons	*Give it to <u>me</u>*
Phrase	A group of words with one job in a sentence	*He went <u>to the shops</u>* (prepositional phrase) *<u>The three boys</u> left* (noun phrase) *They <u>had opened</u> the box* (verb phrase)

Term	Gloss	*Example*
Possessive case	The indicator of ownership, description or origin	*My house* *The government's policy* *John's letter* *The people of France*
Prefix	A morpheme (q.v.) which is affixed to the beginning of a word and usually changes meaning not word class	*discourage* *supermarket* *reapply*
Preposition	A word which links the verb to a noun or adverbial	*He walked across the park* *She arrived at six*
Prepositional phrase	A group of words which includes the preposition and its noun complement	*over the bridge* *under the river*
Primary auxiliary verb	An auxiliary verb which forms a tense, voice or aspect with a main verb	*It was destroyed* *I got my car cleaned* *I have been to London*
Progressive	The aspect of the verb which shows that something is ongoing	*I am writing this sentence*
Pronoun	A word which stands for a noun	*Give me it*
Proper noun	A noun for a person, place or job	*The President* *Mr Smith* *The Alps*
Question tag	A phrase attached to the end of a positive or negative sentence to make it a question	*You are coming, aren't you?* *You aren't going to eat that, are you?*
Singular	One. Mass nouns and one only of count nouns are singular	*A horse came across the road* *The milk is in the fridge*
Stative	Describing the state of: Adjectives Verbs Passive constructions	*He is old* *He imagines it's true* *The door is broken*
Structure words	See function words	
Style	The level of formality	*Gimme a light* (informal) *Would you please follow me?* (formal)
Subject	The doer of a verb (nominative case)	*The man broke the glass.*
Suffix	A morpheme (q.v.) added to the end of a word which generally changes its word class	*resentment* *familiarity* *idolise*
Superlative	The form of an adjective or adverb which means the most or least	*The tallest boy in the class* *The most expensively dressed man*
Tense	The form of the verb marked for time or aspect	*He walked*
Transitive	Describing a verb which must (or can) take one or more objects	*She smokes* (intransitive) *She smoked a cigarette* (transitive)

| Term	Gloss	*Example*
Uncountable	See mass noun	
Verb	The action, state or event in a sentence	*She <u>came</u> late* *It <u>rained</u>* *She <u>was</u> happy*
Verb phrase	A group of words acting as a verb	*She <u>slowly drove</u> the car home*
Voice	Showing the relationship between verbs and noun phrases	*He spent the money* (active) *The money was spent* (passive)
Wh- word	The words *what, who(m), when, where, why, how* and *which*	<u>*Where*</u> *is your car?* <u>*Who*</u> *told you?*

Language Skills Analysis for TKT

This is not a skills book.

This section covers, **in outline only**, the areas which you need to understand for TKT

Skills may be visualised this way:
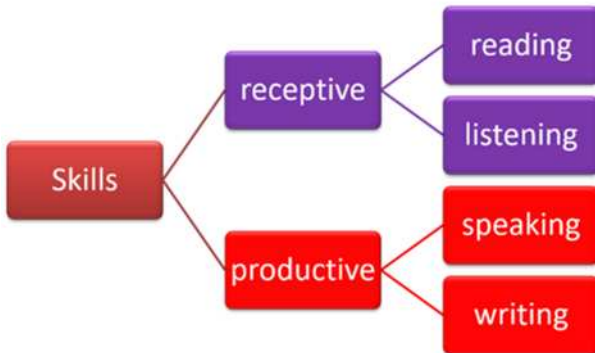
This guide takes the two main categories in turn and summarises the key concepts.

In the site, you will find longer guides to the skills in the teacher-training section.

Receptive skills – reading and listening

Text types

Here's a list of possible **text types** that anyone might read or listen to in a day or so.

(By the way, note here that we use the word **text** for any piece of language whether it is written or spoken.)

Reading	Listening
this page	a television news programme
a recipe	an announcement on a train
someone's newspaper headlines on the bus	someone talking at a meeting
a bill in a café	a radio music programme
a novel	a shop assistant explaining a product
the TV schedule	the person(s) you live with
a label on a tin	other people's conversation
a work e-mail	a television quiz game show

It is very difficult to predict what people will hear and read and why. That is one reason that teaching the area is quite difficult.

Reasons for reading or listening

Here's a list of possible reasons for listening or reading certain text types.

Reading		Listening	
this booklet	to learn something	a television news programme	to find out about an event
a recipe	to cook a meal	an announcement on a train	to get off at the right station
someone's newspaper headlines on the bus	to see what's in the news	someone talking at a meeting	to understand and respond
a bill in a café	to check the price	a radio music programme	for pleasure
a novel	to follow the story for pleasure	a shop assistant explaining a product	to find out what something does
the TV schedule	to choose what to watch at 8 o'clock	the person(s) you live with	to socialise
a label on a tin	to see what's in something	other people's conversation	to find out what is being talked about
a work e-mail	to understand and respond	a television quiz game show	for fun to answer questions if you can

Knowing **why** we are reading or listening to a text helps us to decide **how** to read or listen. To explain:

1. Listening:

    ■ When we are dealing with some listening texts, for example, a set of instructions or a waiter explaining what's in a dish, it's important that we understand nearly everything. If miss something important we may make a serious mistake or get the wrong meal.
      This is called **intensive listening**.

    ■ Typically, in a TV news programme, people will watch and listen quite casually until a key word or picture alerts them to an item of interest. Then they switch listening mode and pay more attention.
      This kind of listening is called **monitor listening**.

    ■ A TV soap opera or an anecdote might require some attention but as long as we get the gist of what's going on, it isn't usually necessary (or possible) to catch every word and every nuance.
      This is known as **extensive listening** because we do not need to understand everything we hear.

2. Reading:

    ■ When we are dealing with some written texts, for example, a recipe or a set of instructions, it's important that we understand nearly everything. If the book says *twist anti-clockwise* or *do not allow it to boil*, it's important that we get it right. Fortunately, when we read, we can usually take the time to re-read as often as we like and use a dictionary when we don't understand.
      This is **intensive reading**.

    ■ Typically, on a news website, people will run their eyes across the links looking for a story that interests them and then access the text for a more detailed look at the information.

Even when we are quite interested in a story, we still often won't read every word, preferring to skip to the important (for us) bits of the story.

Similarly, other texts, such a bus timetable require us just to look for what we need. We can't usually just read from top to bottom, left to right because we don't want the information from most of the text.

This is called **scanning or scan reading**.

■ Depending on how much we are engaged, reading a novel requires a different approach, too. We will usually read with some care and even back-track to re-read sections but we can ignore parts of the text and simply follow the story.

Ignoring whole parts and just getting the gist is called **skimming or skim reading**. This is also a form of **extensive reading** because it is not necessary to understand every word.

We use different skills depending on:

a. **the sorts of text we are accessing**
b. **our reasons for accessing it**

The summary of this:
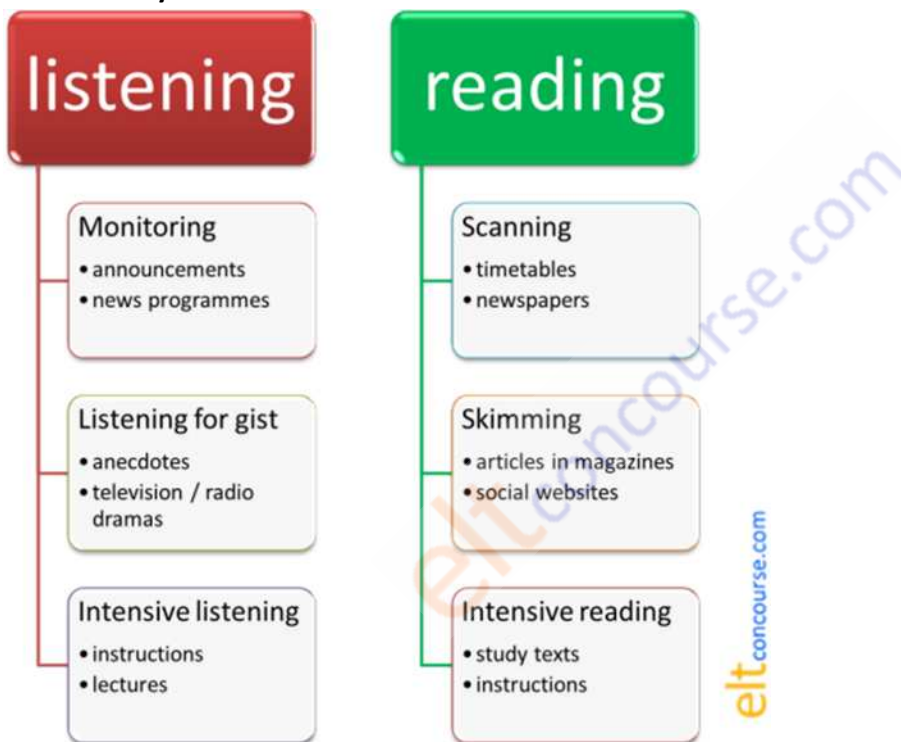
Top-down and Bottom-up processing

These are two key ideas, but good readers and good listeners **use them both at the same time**. They are not difficult to understand.

Top-down processing concerns:

■ using your knowledge of the world in general to understand what you read or hear. For example, if you know that penguins live in the Antarctic, you know that a text about them will not mention North Africa but you will be alert to words like *snow, ice, Weddell Sea* and so on.

■ using your knowledge of typical text layout and staging to locate specific information. For example, if you are reading a news item in a newspaper, you probably know that the most important information will be in the first paragraph.

- using your knowledge of the topic to help you understand. For example, if you are an expert gardener, you will know how to do a lot of things with plants and can recognise words like *dibber, wheelbarrow, shears, espalier* etc. so can focus on the new material in a text (spoken or written).

Bottom-up processing concerns using your formal linguistic knowledge of:

- the pronunciation of English to distinguish, e.g., between *pin* and *bin*.
- lexis and how it is pronounced to understand meaning in a written or spoken text.
- intonation to understand a speaker's emotional state and intention.
- the grammar of the language to distinguish, e.g., between *He arrived* and *He has arrived*
- discourse markers (like pronouns and conjunctions) and sequencers (like *firstly, lastly* etc.) to identify connections and relationships between ideas.

Productive skills – speaking and writing

Types or writing and speaking

Here's a list of possible types.

Writing	Speaking
a note to a friend / relation	to a close family member
a text message	to a stranger to ask for directions
a formal email	to arrange an appointment (doctor, lawyer etc.)
an informal email	to place an order in a café or restaurant
a memo at work	to ask for information in a shop
a set of instructions	to make your point at a meeting at work
an academic essay	to ask a question at the end of a lecture
a notice or advertisement	to explain your feelings to a friend

It is very difficult to predict what people will have to write and say. That is one reason that teaching the area is quite difficult.

Purposes for speaking and writing

All writers and speakers write and speak for a reason. There are two essential types of purpose:

1. **To transact**:
   This refers to getting things done in the language rather than just oiling the social wheels.
2. **To interact**:
   This refers to making and maintaining social relationships rather than getting something you need or getting something done.

The types listed above can be roughly segregated into the types of speaking / writing they involve. Like this:

Writing	Type	Speaking	Type
a note to a friend / relation	transaction (but may also have elements of interaction such as *I hope you are OK*)	to a close family member	either: it depends on your purpose (most will have elements of both)
a text message	transaction usually (you want to get something done or arranged)	to a stranger to ask for directions	transaction
a formal email	transaction	to arrange an appointment (doctor, lawyer etc.)	transaction
an informal email	either: it depends on your purpose (most will have elements of both)	to place an order in a café or restaurant	transaction
a set of instructions	transaction	to make your point at a meeting at work	transaction and elements of interaction to keep people on your side, show respect etc.
a notice or advertisement	transaction	to explain your feelings to a friend	interaction (with elements of transaction if you need help or advice)

Knowing **why** we are speaking or writing a text helps us to decide **how** to speak and **how** to write.

Some important points:

1. **Transactions**

    If we want to get something done, we need to focus on an outcome and make sure we emphasise it without making the water muddy with too much unnecessary information.

    - Writing:
        - If we want to ask a question about a computer printer in an email, we do not need to know how the receiver of the email is feeling and we don't need to say how we feel. All we want are data.
        - If we want to write a text telling someone how to get to our address, we must make it clear in our writing, probably step by step, and separate it from any interactional content in the letter, email or note.
    - Speaking:
        - If we want to buy something in a shop, apart from saying *please* and *thank you*, we probably do not want to start a social relationship with the shop assistant.

2. **Interactions**

    - Writing:
        - When we are interacting with friends or relations in writing, we do not need to be complete or very clear and accurate. We will probably share a good deal of information with them so saying that *Mary* is your sister's name when writing to a

friend is not necessary. You just need to write *Mary* or *my sister* and your friend will know who you mean.

- In fact, purely interactional writing, except in emails and texts (occasionally) is quite unusual. When we want to interact, it's usually by speaking to people.
- Speaking:
  - A lot of speaking is interaction, even when we are also transacting.
    For example, in a shop we use a lot, we may have a conversation with the shopkeeper about the weather, her family, her health etc. before we get to asking for what we want.

We use different kinds of language depending on what we are doing.

Skills – reading and resources

There are a number of fundamental books on skills listed below but a longer list is available on the site.

Listening skills
Anderson, A. & Lynch, T, 1988, Listening, Oxford: Oxford University Press
Brown, G, 1990, Listening to Spoken English, Harlow: Longman
Rost, M, 1990, Listening in Language Learning, Harlow: Longman
Wilson, J. J. & Wilson, J. J, 2008, How to Teach Listening (1st Ed.), Harlow: Pearson Longman
Reading skills
Grellet, F, 1981, Developing Reading Skills, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
Nuttall, C., 1996, Teaching reading skills in a foreign language, Oxford: Heinemann English Language Teaching
Wallace, C, 1992, Reading, Oxford: Oxford University Press
Speaking skills
Brown, G. & Yule, G, 1983, Teaching the Spoken Language, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
Bygate, M, 1987, Speaking, Oxford: Oxford University Press
Writing skills
Harmer, J, 2004, How to Teach Writing, Harlow: Longman
Hedge, T, 2005, Writing, Oxford: Oxford University Press
Tribble C, 1997, Writing, Oxford: Oxford University Press

A fuller list is on the site at

www.eltconcourse.com/training/common/skills_reference.html and you may have other resources to hand.

More help – the links to guides on www.eltconcourse.com

Here are the links to the guides on the site that may be helpful. There are lots of tests and revision exercises linked from these pages.

TKT index	www.eltconcourse.com/training/tkt/tkt_index.html
The TKT Overview	www.eltconcourse.com/training/tkt/tkt_overview.html
Module 1 preparation	www.eltconcourse/training/tkt/tktmodule1/tkt_m1_index.html
Module 2 preparation	www.eltconcourse/training/tkt/tktmodule2/tkt_m2_index.html
Module 3 preparation	www.eltconcourse/training/tkt/tktmodule3/tkt_m3_index.html
Cambridge TKT glossary	www.cambridgeenglish.org/images/22184-tkt-glossary-document.pdf
Glossary test crosswords	www.eltconcourse/training/tkt/glossary/xword_glossary_index.htm
Basic training course in ELT	www.eltconcourse.com/training/courses/basic/introduction_basic.html
Language analysis course	www.eltconcourse.com/training/courses/lacourse/language_analysis_course_index.html
Grammar references	www.eltconcourse.com/training/common/grammar_reference.html
Skills references	www.eltconcourse.com/training/common/skills_reference.html

Examination tips

During the examination:

- Remember that **all the questions are worth the same**: 1 mark.

- Don't spend a lot of time on any single item. If you don't know, move on.

- Do not spend more than one minute on each item.

- Read the instructions carefully.

    - For some tests, you must find the WRONG answer. **Always read the instruction!**

    - In matching tests there is usually one item extra which you do not need to use.

    - In some matching tests you have 7 or 8 things and only 3 or 4 items to match so you need to use some items more than once.

- Tick them off as you go so you know what's left. It's much easier that way.

- If the answer contains **exactly** the same words as in the question, it is probably the wrong answer!

The 3 TKT Modules: content and self-test questions

**A preparation course for all three Modules is available on ELT Concourse.**

Click on this link to go to the course introduction:

www.eltconcourse.com/training/tkt/tkt_index.html

The following sections contain self-test questions for each Module of the TKT. Do the guides on the site first and then refer to these questions to test your knowledge.

Answer keys for all questions are at the end of this booklet. If you refer to the keys before you do the exercises, you will learn very little.

Module 1: Language and background to language learning and teaching:
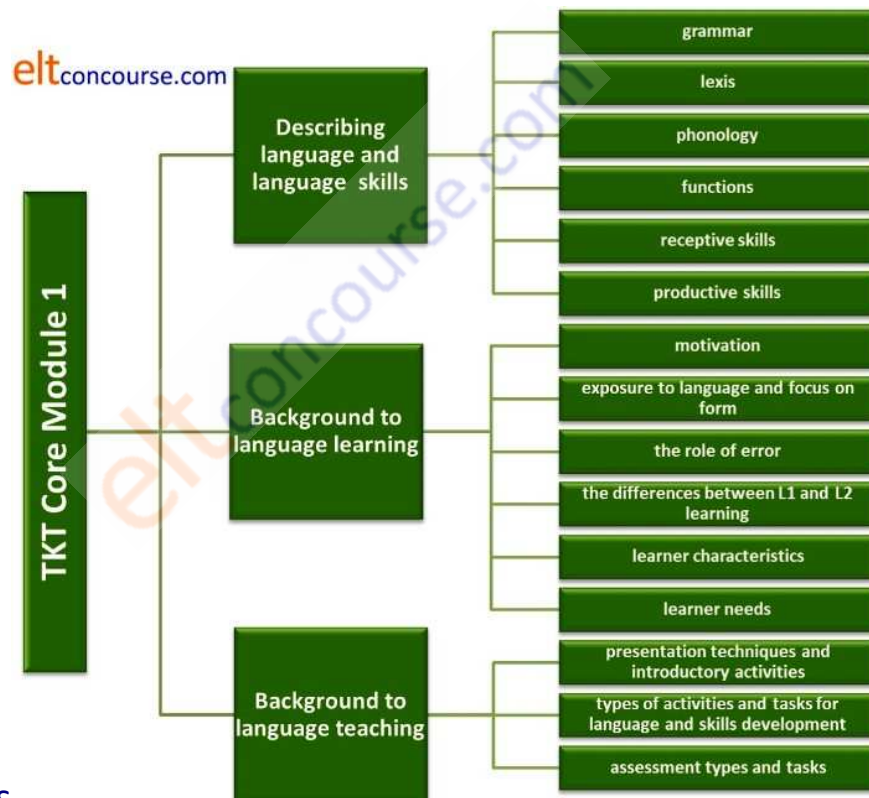
self-test questions

What follows here does not repeat the material on ELT Concourse. Go to the site for the guides and practice tests.
Do the guide to each area of this Module first and then check your understanding against these questions.
If you are not sure of the right answers, go back to the guides to check your understanding.

Area 1: Grammar

1. If we say that the past tense of *come* is *came* are we talking about grammatical form or grammatical function?

2. If we say that in *I dislike swimming*, the word *swimming* is a noun are we talking about grammatical form or grammatical function?

3. Which of the following are content words and which are function or grammatical words?

a. *frequent*	e. *although*	i. *belong*
b. *exceptionally*	f. *table*	j. *went*
c. *with*	g. *house*	k. *by*
d. *from*	h. *have*	l. *prevent*

4. Give an example of a proper noun, a mass noun and a count noun.

5. In *I have a shower after breakfast, usually*, is the verb an auxiliary or a lexical verb?

6. Which of the following shows the predicative use of an adjective and which an attributive use?

   a. *She's asleep so don't make a noise.*

   b. *I need something heavier*

   c. *She was very upset by his comment*

   d. *The irritated customer complained to the manager*

7. Divide the following into adverbs of manner, time, place and degree:

a. *driving slowly*	e. *going now*
b. *waiting inside*	f. *frequently arguing*
c. *greatly enjoying*	g. *waiting hopefully*
d. *carefully opening*	h. *walking around*

8. Which of the following sentences contain a subordinating conjunction and which contain a coordinating conjunction?

   a. *Mary was happy although she had very little money*

   b. *I called but nobody was at home*

   c. *She came because she wanted to speak to me*

   d. *She came on time and properly dressed for once*

9. What are the determiners in these sentences?

   a. *Those pictures are very expensive*

   b. *A short rest would be welcome*

   c. *Whose house is that?*

   d. *Several people arrived late*

   e. *My wallet was stolen*

10. What grammatical function is performed by the word *that* in this sentence?

    The train was delayed by the snow and that's why he was late.

11. What is the difference between tense and aspect?

12. What sorts of phrases can you identify in this sentence?

    The woman in the red coat immediately walked into the clothes shop and carefully selected three waterproof coats and a green, woollen scarf and she paid for all of them with a credit card at the checkout.

Area 2: Lexis

1. When we say the word *child* means *a young human*, we are talking about _____

2. When we say *stubborn* is negative but *determined* is positive, we are talking about _____

3. When we say *the thunder boomed angrily*, we are using the word *angrily* _____

4. How many morphemes are in this phrase?

   Mary's unacceptable rudeness

5. What do the prefix and suffixes do in *unsurprisingly*?

6. Changing the word class of *file* from a noun to a verb is an example of _____

7. There are two sorts of suffix in *weaknesses*. What do they do?

8. What kinds of words make up the following compounds?

a. *sugar coated*	e. *solar system*
b. *bighearted*	f. *window-shopping*
c. *redbrick*	g. *walking stick*
d. *housekeeper*	h. *sewing machine*

9. The expressions *pay the bill* or *foot the bill* are examples of strong verb + noun _____

10. None of the words in *over the moon* can be changed so it is a/an _____ expression.

11. The expression *let the cat out of the bag* (meaning *reveal a secret*) is a/an _____

12. In *She walked back and forth*, there is an example of a/an _____

13. What is the relationship between these pairs of words?
    a. *write / right*
    b. *outside / inside*
    c. *building / house / church / bank / tower block / museum*
    d. *lead* (verb) */ lead* (metal)
    e. *kitchen / bathroom / bedroom / lounge / dining room / hallway*
    f. *nation / national / nationalise / international / nationality*
    g. *hospital / doctor / nurse / ward / patient / treatment / operating theatre / X-ray*

14. The word *complication* in English translates as *complicación* in Spanish.
    This is an example of _____ words

15. The word *agenda* in English means *a list to discuss* but in Greek it means *a pocket diary*.
    This is an example of a/an _____

Area 3: Phonology

You should make sure you can write down the sounds of English using phonemic script. There is a course on the site at: www.eltconcourse.com/training/courses/transcription1/transcription.html.

1. The words *cut* and *cat* mean very different things, but the pronunciation differs only by the single vowels (/kʌt/ vs. /kæt/). The vowels /ʌ/ and /æ/ are, therefore, _____ in English.

2. In English, we can pronounce /p/ with and without aspiration (as /p/ or /pʰ/ but it makes no difference to the meaning, so the two sounds are _____

3. The difference between /f/ and /v/ is that when we say the first, we do not use our vocal cords and for the second, we do. /f/ is _____ and /v/ is _____

4. In the word *yet*, the 'y' is pronounced as /j/ and is a _____ like /b/ or /s/ but at the end of the word *happy*, it is pronounced /i/ so the sound is a _____

5. The sound at the end of the word *clear* is pronounced as two vowels (/ɪ/ +/ə/) and the sound is _____

6. Writing down words in a language the way they are pronounced is called _____ _____.

7. When a word has only one syllable it is called _____ but when it has more than one, it is called _____

8. If someone asks, "*Did you talk to Mary at the party?*" and the answer is, "*No! I spoke to her AFTER the party.*", this is an example of special sentence _____

9. We can change the word class of the word *convict* to make it mean a person who is in jail or the verb meaning to find someone guilty of crime. To do this, we alter the _____ stress.

10. If we say the words slowly and clearly, we pronounce *been* as /biːn/ and *for* as /fɔːr/ but if we say them quickly, we pronounce them as /bɪn/ and /fə/. The vowel sounds in the second cases are _____ _____

Area 4: Functions

1. We can say, "*Is this your hat?*" and it can mean, "*Have you forgotten it?*", "*I want to know whose hat this is.*" or even, "*Please move your hat, it is in my way.*" What we are talking about here is the _____ of the sentence, not its form.

2. Which of the following is/are not (an) exponent(s) of expressing obligation?

a. *Come with me*	d. *May I smoke?*	f. *Must I?*
b. *Can I help?*	e. *Will you please be quiet?*	g. *Have some cake*
c. *Can I come, too?*		h. *I might not*

3. Think of three functions which can be realised by, "*That is the last bus.*"

4. Give two examples of adjacency pairs.

5. Asking permission of a friend and asking permission of a customs official at an airport will be done differently. Why?

6. How can the medium of communication affect the exponent of a function?

Area 5: Receptive skills

1. What are the two receptive skills?

2. Give an example of monitor listening while watching television.

3. How will you listen to instructions from a policeman at the scene of an accident?

4. How do you extract information from a page of a dictionary?

5. Give an example of a text intended to describe a process.

6. Where in a newspaper in Britain do you expect to find the opinion of the editor?

7. What is generic knowledge?

8. If you only want the gist of a text do you skim or scan?

9. Give an example of backchannelling in English.

10. Why will a doctor find a health record easier to understand that her patients?

Area 6: Productive skills

1. What are the two productive skills?

2. If you want to buy a newspaper do you need transactional or interactional language?

3. How does topic knowledge help people to speak better?

4. How would you describe the opening of a conversation with "*I bought this scarf in France.*"?

5. What is wrong with this dialogue?
   Can you tell me where you got your new smartphone?
   Yes, of course.

6. Does getting learners to give each other directions for getting to their homes practise fluency or accuracy?

Area 7: Motivation

1. What sorts of motivation are represented by these statements?
   a. I'm learning French because I'm marrying into a French family.
   b. I need English to read texts and study physics.

     c.   I just enjoy speaking the language.

2. If a student enjoys an activity it will raise their _____ motivation.
3. If a student likes the classroom it will raise their _____ motivation.

Area 8: Exposure to language and focus on form

1. A teacher revises the form and pronunciation of, e.g., "*If you come you will see her.*" Before going on to teach "*If you came you would see her.*" This is a/an _____ approach to teaching.
2. A teacher focuses on how the word *would* can make requests and imperatives sound more polite. She is taking a/an _____ approach.
3. A teacher underlines all the suffixes in a text. He is trying to get the learners to _____
4. A teacher says, "*My learners need to be exposed to lots of language just above their current level.*" She is influenced by the distinction between learning and _____

Area 9: Error

1. A student says, "*I have break the window but not mean it.*" This is an example of a/an _____ error.
2. A student says, "*They steered the car into the garage.*" This is an example of a/an _____ error.
3. A student addresses you as "*You, my teacher.*" This is an example of a/an _____ error.
4. A teacher hears, "*That is a good party, isn't it?*" and asks, "*Are you talking about now or yesterday?*" She is checking for _____ error.
5. A teacher plays a recording of a conversation about making plans for the weekend and asks, "*Are these people talking about the present, the past or the future?*" He is _____ checking.
6. A learner thinks the past tense of *forbid* id *forbidded*. This is caused by over-_____

Area 10: L1 and L2 learning

What sort of theories of learning are people who says these things working on?

1. People learn languages by copying what they hear. _____ theory.
2. Babies slowly form theories about how a language is structured. _____ theory.
3. We must always reward correct language use and never incorrect use. _____ theory.

Area 11: Learner characteristics

1. Cultures in which people rarely argue with their teachers or with older people show large _____ distances.
2. Cultures where people do not mind guessing in public and being wrong show little _____ aversion.
3. Cultures where the individual's needs come before those of others may be described as _____
4. What does VARK stand for?

Area 12: Learner needs

1. What does ESP stand for?
2. When we are speaking of using English for work, for travel or for study, we are referring to the _____ in which our learners need to operate.
3. What is a matrix questionnaire?
4. What does CEFR stand for?
5. What is the lowest level on the CEFR?
6. What skills do you need to talk to English-speaking customers on the telephone?

Area 13: Presentation techniques and introductory activities

1. What does PPP stand for?
2. What does TTT stand for?
3. When a teacher says loudly, "*Right. That's good. Now I want you to …*", she is signalling a _____
4. When the teacher says, "*Look at these photographs of my home.*", he is making the introduction personal. Why is that a good idea?

Area 14: Practice activities and tasks

1. When you are listening to your learners doing a role play at the end of a lesson, what are you checking?
2. What is the difference between a skill-getting and a skill-using task?
3. What is the difference between a product task and a process task?
4. Give an example of a form-focused controlled practice task.
5. Give an example of a function-focused freer practice task.
6. What does scaffolding mean?
7. What is a ZPD?

Area 15: Assessment types and tasks

1. Giving an end-of-week test is an example of _____ assessment.
2. Listening carefully to your learners at the end of a lesson to see if they are using the target language is an example of _____ assessment.
3. Giving a test at the end of a course is an example of _____ testing.
4. If a test really targets what we say it does, it has high _____
5. If a learner would get the same result in a test whether they took it in the morning, in the afternoon, today or tomorrow then the test has high _____
6. Give an example of an alternative answer test.
7. Give an example of a structured response test.
8. Multiple-choice tests are quite reliable because they can be marked _____

Click here to go to the answer key for this section.

Module 2: Lesson planning and use of resources for language teaching: self-test questions
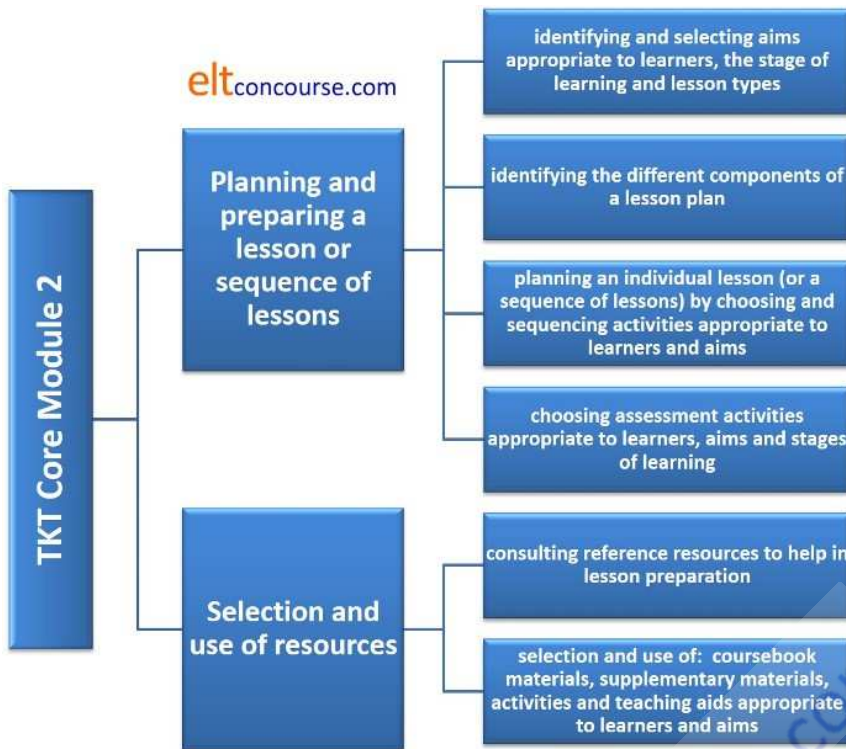
Area 1: Identifying and selecting aims

1. Which of these are aims and which are procedures?
    a. Learners will give each other directions
    b. Learners will be more confident pronouncing the 8 items
    c. Learners will mingle to find someone who shares an interest in a hobby
    d. Learners will skim read the text to get the general idea of what sort of text it is
    e. Learners will be able to use the 6 multiple-word verbs in a natural context talking about routines
2. What does CLEAR stand for?

Area 2: The components of a lesson plan

Match the sentence to the part of the plan:

Learners might have difficulty generating three ideas.	Aims
By the end of the lesson …	Assumptions
Previously, we have worked on identifying word class and tomorrow we will look at	Procedure
This lesson concerns …	Materials
These learners can already use the *will* structure for future certainties	Anticipated problems
I will form the learners into mixed groups to exchange their ideas	Timetable fit
PowerPoint materials, flash cards and Cuisenaire rods	Focus

Area 3: Planning a lesson or series of lessons

1. What does TBL stand for?
2. What kind of lesson is this describing?
   We are building on the work already done on using the *going to* structure to talk about current intentions. _____
3. What kind of lesson is this describing?
   The vocabulary to be recycled is …. _____
4. What kind of lesson is this describing?
   This is the group's first exposure to complex mixed conditionals. _____

Area 4: Choosing assessment activities

Give one advantage and one disadvantage of the following test item types:

1. Multiple-choice tests
2. Free writing of an email to a friend to plan a holiday
3. Checking whether a statement about what you hear is True or False
4. Constructing a sentence from a skeleton
5. Gap-fill texts
6. Reordering a cut-up text into paragraphs
7. Transferring data from a written text to a diagram
8. Role plays

Area 5: Consulting reference resources

1. A grammar which tells you what is correct and what is wrong is _____
2. A grammar which explains what native speakers say and write is _____
3. A grammar designed for learners of English is _____

Area 6: Selection and use of materials

1. What is retrospective evaluation?
2. Why is it a good idea to have a check list for materials evaluation?
3. What is cultural bias in course materials?

Click here to go to the answer key for this section.

Module 3: Managing the teaching and learning process: self-test questions
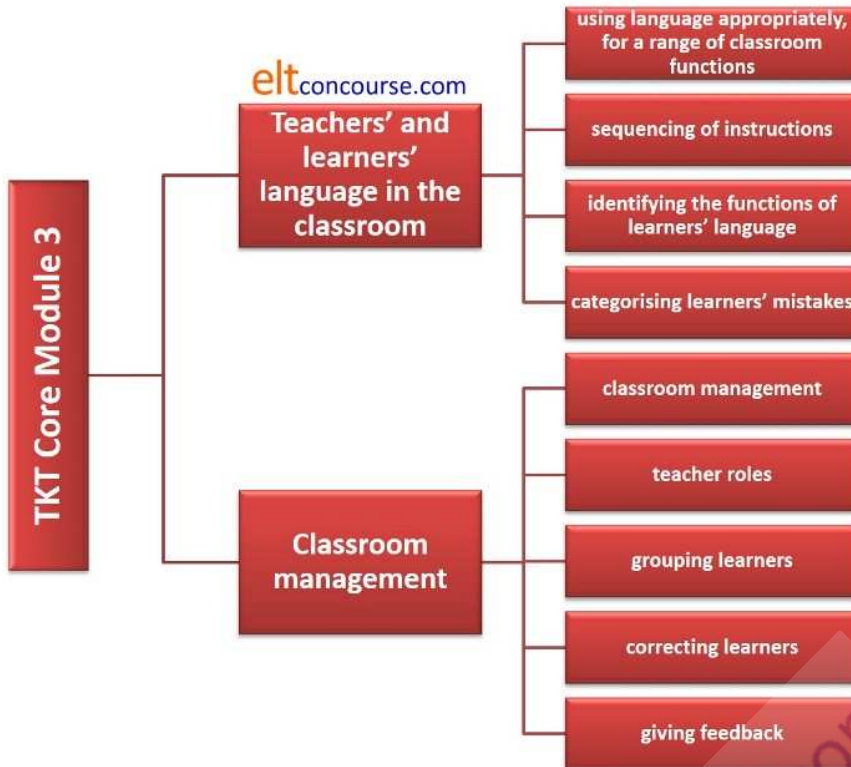
Area 1: Using language appropriately

What is the teacher doing when she says:

a. Please stand up and come to the middle of the room
b. The verb is irregular. Can you remember the past tense form?
c. Repeat, please.
d. How is everyone today?
e. Very good. Better than last time. Well done!
f. Let me tell you about my husband's irritating habits.
g. Are you going to read every word in the text?
h. The correct preposition is *behind*.

Area 2: Instructions

What is the teacher doing when he says:

a. No, stop writing long sentences. You just need to write some notes for each question.
b. Listen carefully, please.
c. So, first, read the text and then try to match the pictures to the nouns.
d. Now try the second exercise.
e. Mary. Tell us what you found.
f. So, you say, "*He asked me where …*" and the subject + verb comes next. For example, "*He asked me where the railway station is.*"
g. Who can tell me the meaning of *embarrass*?
h. You pronounce the '*y*' as /i/ in *happy*.
i. Yes, that's right because she says '*yesterday*', doesn't she?

Area 3: The functions of learners' language

What is the learner doing when he says:

    a. (To the teacher) Is the verb irregular?

    b. (To a classmate) The past tense is *forbade*.

    c. (To a classmate) You go first.

    d. (To the teacher) Can you say that again, please?

    e. (To the whole class) I think this town needs to have a bicycle-sharing scheme.

    f. (To a classmate) No, that's not what I mean.

    g. (To the teacher) Can I leave 5 minutes early, please?

    h. (To the whole class) I'm not fully sure.

    i. (To a classmate) Go on. Don't be shy.

Area 4: Categorising mistakes

1. What is the difference between a slip and an error?

2. Give an example of a receptive error.

3. All the students are making the same mistake so it's a/an _____ error.

4. I'm not sure that's what the learner meant although the language is correct. It may be a/an _____ error.

5. The learner used the wrong noun so it's a/an _____ error.

6. The learner misunderstood the speaker's intention when he said "We eat at 6" so it's a/an _____ error.

7. The learner tried to understand every word in the listening text and didn't listen only for the time of the train. That's a/an _____ error.

Area 5: Classroom management

1. Setting up the seats so that everyone can see the TV screen easily is to do with managing the _____

2. Making sure that people arrive and leave on time is a matter of establishing the _____

3. Because Jose is a little deaf, I ask him to sit near the front. I am responding to a special _____

Area 6: Grouping learners

1. Learners sitting opposite each other is good for _____ tasks but for _____ tasks, it is better if they are side by side.

2. Getting learners to read two different parts of a text and then exchanging information is an information _____ activity.

3. When learners move around freely and talk to everyone else in the group, we call this a _____

Area 7: Correcting learners

1. I underline wrong words, put a X next to wrong grammar and a ✓ next to good expressions in my learners' homework. I am using a _____ _____

2. I wait until the end of an activity because for this task I think it's better to use _____ correction.

3. A learner says, "*I am going to the work*" and the teacher says, "*You **were** going to work*". The teacher is using a _____ technique.

4. When students correct each other, it's called _____ correction.

5. When students can correct themselves, it's called _____ correction.

Area 8: Feedback

1. What sorts of feedback are these? Choose from **assessment, praise, focus** and **advice**.
    a. Well done. That's very good.
    b. There's a problem with the third word in this sentence.
    c. You need to use the dictionary to check your spelling.
    d. That's almost all correct.
2. What sort of feedback do you need to get from and give to these tasks – **thorough** or **selective**?
    a. A gap-fill exercise checking the correct use of the target prepositions.
    b. A focusing exercise asking people to identify where a photograph was taken.
    c. A mingling exercise to get people moving and activate the language they already know.
    d. A timed scan-reading exercise to identify 5 important dates in an article.
3. If you ask, "*Was this lesson useful and enjoyable?*", what sort of feedback are you hoping to get?

Click here to go to the answer key for this section.

Key to self-test questions

Module 1

Area 1: Grammar

1. Grammatical form
2. Grammatical function
3.

a. *content*	e. *function*	i. *content*
b. *content*	f. *content*	j. *content*
c. *function*	g. *content*	k. *function*
d. *function*	h. *both*	l. *content*

4. A name like John or America, a substance such as sugar or water, a noun which can be plural such as table / tables.
5. Lexical
6.
   a. *predicative.*
   b. *attributive*
   c. *predicative*
   d. *attributive*

7.

a. *manner*	e. *time*	
b. *place*	f. *time*	
c. *degree*	g. *manner*	
d. *manner*	h. *place*	

8.
   a. *subordinating*
   b. *coordinating*
   c. *subordinating*
   d. *coordinating*

9.
   a. *demonstrative*
   b. *indefinite article*
   c. *Wh-word*
   d. *quantifier*
   e. *possessive*

10. Pronoun for a clause
11. Tense refers to time. Aspect refers to the speaker/writer's view of time.
12. *The woman in the red coat – noun phrase*
    walked – verb phrase
    into the clothes shop – prepositional phrase
    selected – verb phrase
    three waterproof coats – noun phrase
    a green, woollen scarf – noun phrase
    she – noun phrase
    paid for – verb phrase
    all of them – noun phrase

with a credit card – prepositional phrase
at the checkout – prepositional phrase
in the red coat – prepositional phrase
immediately – adverb phrase
carefully – adverb phrase
clothes shop – noun phrase
green, woollen – adjective phrase
red – adjective phrase.

Area 2: Lexis

1. denotation
2. connotation
3. figuratively
4. 7
5. Make an opposite meaning, an adjective and an adverb
6. conversion
7. make a noun and signify the plural
8. What kinds of words make up the following compounds?
    a. *noun + adjective*
    b. *adjective + noun*
    c. *adjective + noun*
    d. *noun + noun*
    e. *noun + noun*
    f. *noun + verb*
    g. *verb + noun*
    h. *verb + noun*

9. collocation
10. fixed
11. idiom
12. binomial
13. What is the relationship between these pairs of words?
    a. *homophones*
    b. *antonyms*
    c. *superordinate + hyponyms*
    d. *homographs*
    e. *lexical set*
    f. *lexical family*
    g. *lexical field*
14. cognate
15. false friend

Area 3: Phonology

1. phonemes
2. allophones
3. unvoiced, voiced
4. consonant, vowel
5. diphthong
6. phonemic transcription
7. monosyllabic, polysyllabic
8. stress
9. word

10. weak forms

Area 4: Functions
1. function
2. a, b, c, g, h
3. For example: "We must hurry", "We are too late", "It's lucky I brought my car"
4. There are hundreds: apologise and forgive, ask permission and grant permission, ask for clarification and clarify, greet and welcome etc.
5. Power relationships
6. In writing or speaking we may use different levels of formality or choose more precise expressions.

Area 5: Receptive skills
1. reading and listening
2. listening for our region in a news report or weather forecast
3. intensively
4. scanning
5. a recipe
6. in the middle generally with a clear heading
7. knowledge of text-type or genre
8. skim
9. Oh, I see, Uh huh, Really! etc.
10. subject knowledge

Area 6: Productive skills
1. speaking and writing
2. transactional
3. reduces stress and preparation time
4. an informative initiation
5. the second speaker should follow the response with a new initiation such as "*Was it expensive?*"
6. accuracy mostly

Area 7: Motivation
1.
    a. integrative
    b. instrumental
    c. intrinsic
2. task
3. institutional

Area 8: Exposure to language and focus on form
1. structural
2. communicative
3. notice form
4. acquisition

Area 9: Error
1. syntactical
2. referential
3. stylistic

4. covert
5. concept
6. generalisation

Area 10: L1 and L2 learning

1. imitation
2. active construction of grammar
3. behaviourist

Area 11: Learner characteristics

1. power
2. risk
3. individualistic
4. visual, auditory, reading, kinaesthetic

Area 12: Learner needs

1. English for Specific Purposes
2. setting
3. one in which people select from a range of answers
4. Common European Framework
5. A1
6. listening and speaking

Area 13: Presentation techniques and introductory activities

1. Present Practice Produce
2. Test Teach Test
3. transition
4. It is more engaging

Area 14: Practice activities and tasks

1. learning
2. skill getting involves learning, skill using involves practice
3. a product task is one in which what the learners produce is most important, a process task is one in which doing the activity is most important
4. a multiple-choice comprehension test
5. a role play
6. supporting learners so that they are operating just above their current competence
7. The Zone of Proximal Development

Area 15: Assessment types and tasks

1. summative, formal
2. informal, summative
3. formal, summative
4. validity
5. reliability
6. True or False tests
7. Getting learners to write a letter including 6 given points that they must make
8. objectively

Module 2

Area 1: Identifying and selecting aims

1.
   a. procedure
   b. aim
   c. procedure
   d. procedure
   e. aim
2. Clear, Limited, Explicit, Achievable, Relevant

Area 2: The components of a lesson plan

Learners might have difficulty generating three ideas.	Anticipated problems
By the end of the lesson …	Aims
Previously, we have worked on identifying word class and tomorrow we will look at	Timetable fit
This lesson concerns …	Focus
These learners can already use the *will* structure for future certainties	Assumptions
I will form the learners into mixed groups to exchange their ideas	Procedure
PowerPoint materials, flash cards and Cuisenaire rods	Materials

Area 3: Planning a lesson or series of lessons

1. Task-Based Learning
2. extension
3. revision
4. presentation

Area 4: Choosing assessment activities

1. objectively marked and easy to construct but indirect testing and guessable right answers
2. easy to construct and direct testing but subjectively marked and unreliable
3. quick and easy to construct but inflexible and indirect
4. objectively marked but indirect testing
5. objectively marked but indirect testing
6. good for testing coherence but needs very careful construction to avoid ambiguity
7. clear and objectively marked but the purpose is not clear and may lack face validity
8. easy to set up and direct but subjectively assessed

Area 5: Consulting reference resources

1. prescriptive
2. descriptive
3. pedagogic

Area 6: Selection and use of materials

1. looking back to assess if materials did their job
2. it allows like-for-like comparisons
3. setting the language in a limited range of first-language environments

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Module 3

Area 1: Using language appropriately

    a. managing
    b. eliciting and informing
    c. managing
    d. social interaction
    e. praising
    f. personalising
    g. instruction checking
    h. informing

Area 2: Instructions

    a. repairing
    b. instructing
    c. sequencing
    d. sequencing
    e. nominating
    f. explaining and informing
    g. eliciting
    h. informing
    i. giving feedback and explaining

Area 3: The functions of learners' language

    a. asking for information
    b. informing
    c. encouraging
    d. asking for repetition
    e. giving opinion
    f. explaining
    g. asking permission
    h. expressing doubt
    i. motivating

Area 4: Categorising mistakes

1. a slip is caused by tiredness or inattention and an error by ignorance or over-generalisation
2. misunderstanding what you hear
3. group
4. covert
5. referential
6. interpretive
7. skills

Area 5: Classroom management

1. space
2. rules
3. need

Area 6: Grouping learners

1. confrontational, cooperation
2. gap
3. mingle

Area 7: Correcting learners

1. correction code
2. delayed
3. recast
4. peer
5. self-

Area 8: Feedback

1.
   a. praise
   b. focus
   c. advice
   d. assessment
2.
   a. thorough
   b. selective
   c. selective
   d. thorough
3. on the lesson activities and topic