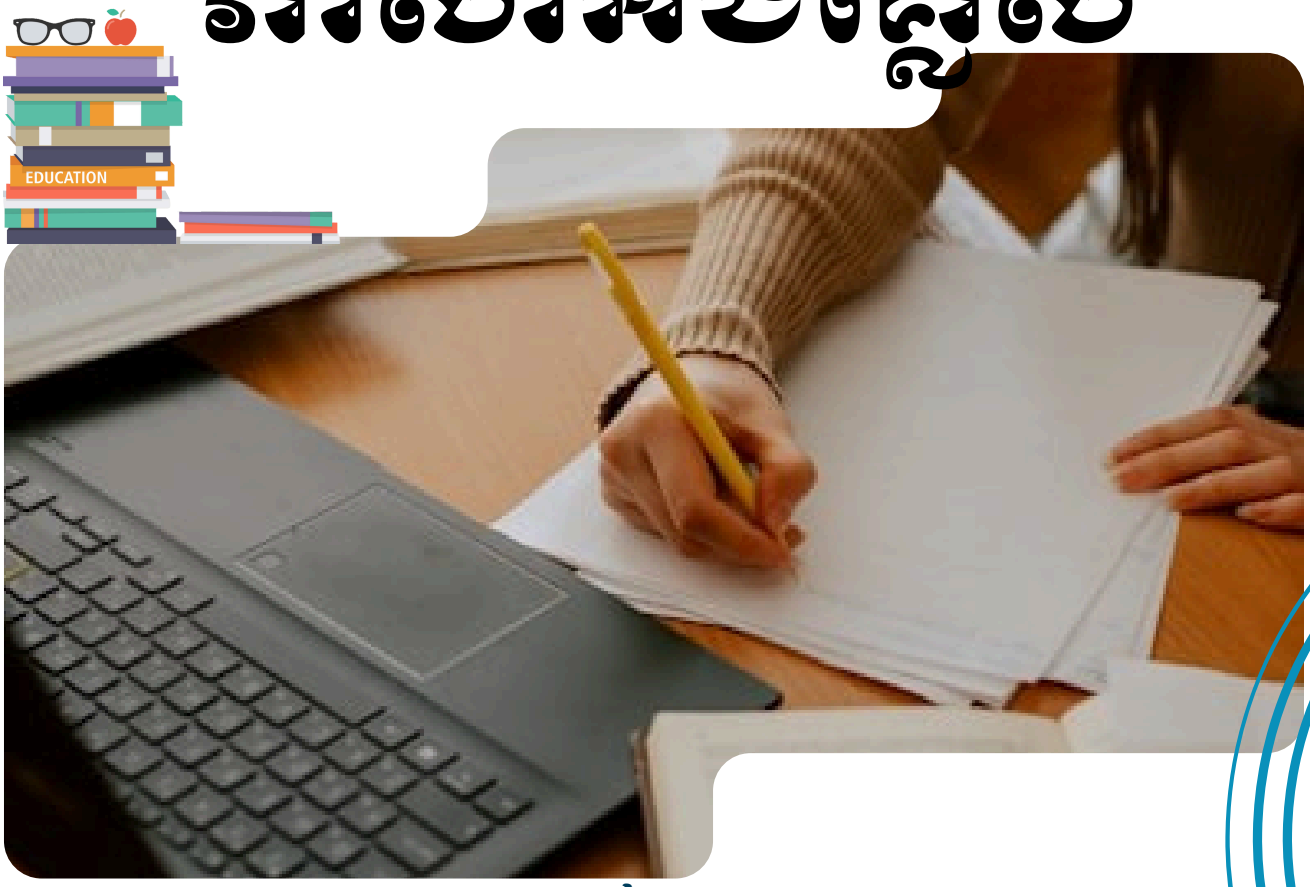
ឯកទេស

ភាសាអង់គ្លេស



សម្រាប់ការបណ្តុះបណ្តាលគ្រូបង្រៀនកម្រិតឧត្តម (បរិញ្ញាបត្រ+២)

២០២៦

បុព្វកថា

ទស្សនៈវិស័យអប់រំនាសតវត្សរ៍ទី២១ បានផ្តោតលើការរីកចម្រើនខ្លាំងផ្នែកវិទ្យាសាស្ត្រ បច្ចេកវិទ្យា និងឌីជីថល (Digital) ដែលជាមូលដ្ឋានគ្រឹះរឹងមាំមួយយ៉ាងសំខាន់ ក្នុងការអភិវឌ្ឍសង្គម និងសេដ្ឋកិច្ច ពិសេសគឺការអភិវឌ្ឍធនធានមនុស្សដើម្បីឆ្ពោះទៅរកគំនិតនវានុវត្តន៍ថ្មីៗ សម្រាប់បម្រើឱ្យសេចក្តីត្រូវការរបស់សង្គមជាតិទាំងមូល។ ដោយសារនិន្នាការពិភពលោក ដែលមានការអភិវឌ្ឍឥតឈប់ឈរ ទើបរាជរដ្ឋាភិបាលកម្ពុជាដែលមានក្រសួងអប់រំ យុវជន និងកីឡា ជាសេនាធិការ បានយកចិត្តទុកដាក់យ៉ាងខ្លាំងលើការបណ្តុះបណ្តាល និងអភិវឌ្ឍធនធានមនុស្សប្រកបដោយចីរភាព។

ឈរលើស្មារតីនេះ ក្រសួងអប់រំ យុវជន និងកីឡា បានកំណត់ បានដាក់ចេញនូវគោលដៅជាអាទិភាពសម្រាប់ការធ្វើកំណែទម្រង់វិស័យអប់រំដោយផ្តែកលើ សសរស្តម្ភទាំងប្រាំរួមមាន៖ ១. ការអនុវត្តគោលនយោបាយគ្រូបង្រៀន ២.ការវាយតម្លៃ ៣.ការងារអធិការកិច្ច ៤. កម្មវិធីសិក្សា និងបរិស្ថាន ៥.ឧត្តមសិក្សា។ ដោយឡែក កំណែទម្រង់គ្រូបង្រៀន និងកម្មវិធីសិក្សាធានាឱ្យកម្ពុជាមានធនធានមនុស្ស ដែលមានសមត្ថភាពសម្រាប់ដំណើរការអភិវឌ្ឍលើគ្រប់វិស័យ។ ក្រសួងអប់រំ យុវជន និងកីឡាបានកែលម្អកម្មវិធីសិក្សាគ្រប់មុខវិជ្ជា នៅគ្រប់កម្រិតគ្រប់ភូមិសិក្សារហូតដល់កម្មវិធីបណ្តុះបណ្តាលគ្រូបង្រៀន ដើម្បីឆ្លើយតបនឹងតម្រូវការទីផ្សារ ពលកម្ម ផលប្រយោជន៍របស់អ្នកសិក្សា និងកាន់តែធ្វើឱ្យប្រសើរឡើង នូវគុណភាពអប់រំ ក្នុងគោលបំណងឆ្លើយតបទៅនឹងការវិវឌ្ឍរបស់ពិភពលោក និងគោលដៅយុទ្ធសាស្ត្របញ្ចកោណរបស់រាជរដ្ឋាភិបាលកម្ពុជា។

សៀវភៅសិក្សាគោលនេះ ត្រូវបានកសាងឡើងដោយគ្រូឧទ្ទេសវិទ្យាស្ថានជាតិអប់រំ ដើម្បីកសាងឧត្តមភាពគុណវុឌ្ឍគ្រូបង្រៀន ទៅតាមទស្សនៈ និងចក្ខុវិស័យថ្មី ជាមួយនឹងខ្លឹមសារបែបវិទ្យាសាស្ត្រ បែបបញ្ញត្តិសិក្សា និងបញ្ចូលគុណសម្បទាសតវត្សរ៍ទី២១ បន្ថែមទៅលើគុណសម្បទាពលរដ្ឋសកល។

វិទ្យាស្ថានជាតិអប់រំសង្ឃឹមថា គ្រប់ស្ថាប័នអប់រំ ស្ថាប័នពាក់ព័ន្ធ និងអ្នកមានចំណាប់អារម្មណ៍ទាំងអស់ចូលរួមគាំទ្រ សហការជាមួយក្រសួងអប់រំ យុវជន និងកីឡា អនុវត្តលើ កម្មវិធីបណ្តុះបណ្តាលនេះ ដើម្បីពង្រឹងសក្តានុពលរបស់គ្រូបង្រៀននៅគ្រប់កម្រិតសិក្សាទាំងអស់ ដើម្បីអភិវឌ្ឍជំនាញវិជ្ជាជីវៈជាគ្រូបង្រៀនឱ្យកាន់តែល្អប្រសើរឡើង។

វិទ្យាស្ថានជាតិអប់រំសូមថ្លែងអំណរគុណយ៉ាងជ្រាលជ្រៅ និងកោតសរសើរចំពោះ គណៈកម្មការអភិវឌ្ឍកម្មវិធីបណ្តុះបណ្តាលគ្រូបង្រៀនកម្រិតឧត្តម (បរិញ្ញាបត្រ+២) ដែលបានខិតខំប្រឹងប្រែងយកអស់កម្លាំងកាយចិត្ត និងប្រាជ្ញាធ្វើឱ្យស្នាដៃដ៏មានសារៈសំខាន់នេះ សម្រេចបានដើម្បីជាប្រយោជន៍ដល់សង្គមជាតិយើង។

ថ្ងៃ ខែ ឆ្នាំម្សាញ់ សប្តស័ក ព.ស.២៥៦៩

រាជធានីភ្នំពេញ ថ្ងៃទី ខែ ឆ្នាំ២០២៥

នាយកវិទ្យាស្ថានជាតិអប់រំ

អារម្ភកថា

ធនធានមនុស្សជាកម្លាំងយ៉ាងសំខាន់ សម្រាប់ការអភិវឌ្ឍសង្គមជាតិ ឱ្យទទួលបានជោគជ័យ។ គោលដៅចម្បងរបស់ផែនការអភិវឌ្ឍសង្គមសេដ្ឋកិច្ច គឺការរៀបចំប្រជាជនយើងឱ្យក្លាយទៅជាពលរដ្ឋពេញលេញដែលប្រកបទៅដោយវិជ្ជាសម្បទា បំណិនសម្បទា ចរិយាសម្បទា និងកាយសម្បទា ដែលការអប់រំជាយុទ្ធសាស្ត្រយ៉ាងសំខាន់ ដើម្បីឈានទៅសម្រេចបានគោលដៅអភិវឌ្ឍន៍ប្រជាជាតិប្រកបដោយជោគជ័យ។

ការបង្កើនសមត្ថភាពផ្នែកឯកទេសភាសាអង់គ្លេស វិធីសាស្ត្របង្រៀន និងហ្វឹកហ្វឺនគរុកោសល្យគឺមានសារសំខាន់ណាស់សំរាប់គ្រូបង្រៀនកម្រិតឧត្តម និងមន្ត្រីអប់រំនៅទូទាំងប្រទេស ដូចដែលត្រូវបានចែងក្នុងប្រកាសស្តីពីការកំណត់តួនាទី ភារកិច្ច រចនាសម្ព័ន្ធ និងផែនការអភិវឌ្ឍរបស់វិទ្យាស្ថានជាតិអប់រំ។ មុខវិជ្ជាឯទេកសភាសាអង់គ្លេស ជាមុខវិជ្ជាមួយមានសារៈសំខាន់ណាស់នៅក្នុងសតវត្សទី២១នេះ ដោយភាសាអង់គ្លេសត្រូវបានប្រើប្រាស់ជាចាំបាច់ក្នុងការធ្វើទំនាក់ទំនងជាប្រចាំថ្ងៃ និងសំរាប់និស្សិតធ្វើការស្រាវជ្រាវឯកសារផ្សេងៗជាចំណេះដឹង។ ស្របពេលនឹងសកលភាវូបនីយកម្ម/នាពេលបច្ចុប្បន្ន ដែលជាតម្រូវការចាំបាច់សម្រាប់ប្រទេសកំពុងអភិវឌ្ឍ ដើម្បីទាមទារនូវការអភិវឌ្ឍចំណេះដឹង បំណិន ឥរិយាបថ និងទំនាក់ទំនងល្អក្នុងប្រទេស និងអន្តរជាតិ ទើបក្រសួងអប់រំ យុវជន និងកីឡា បានដាក់ចេញនូវកម្មវិធីសិក្សាសម្រាប់គោលដៅអប់រំជាតិតាមរយៈការបញ្ជាបមុខវិជ្ជាជាច្រើន។

សៀវភៅនេះត្រូវបានបង្កើតឡើង ដើម្បីប្រើប្រាស់សម្រាប់ការបណ្តុះបណ្តាលគ្រូបង្រៀនកម្រិតឧត្តម(បរិញ្ញាបត្រ+២) ដើម្បីពង្រឹងផ្នែកឯកទេស និងឆ្លើយតបទៅតាមកម្មវិធីសិក្សាដែលក្រសួងបានដាក់ឱ្យអនុវត្តនៅកម្រិតមធ្យមសិក្សាទុតិយភូមិ។ សៀវភៅនេះផ្តោតទៅលើខ្លឹមសារសំខាន់ៗដូចជា ជំនាញធំៗទាំង៤នៃភាសាអង់គ្លេស វេយ្យាករណ៍ វាកសព្ទ ការបញ្ចេញសំលេង និងវិធីសាស្ត្របង្រៀន។ សៀវភៅស្តីពី "ឯកទេសភាសាអង់គ្លេស" ត្រូវបានបង្កើតឡើងដោយក្រុមគ្រូឧទ្ទេសភាសាអង់គ្លេសនៃវិទ្យាស្ថានជាតិអប់រំ។

គណៈកម្មការរៀបចំសៀវភៅបណ្តុះបណ្តាលឯកទេសបង្រៀនជឿជាក់យ៉ាងមុតមាំថា សៀវភៅនេះនឹងផ្តល់មូលដ្ឋានគ្រឹះដ៏មានប្រយោជន៍ សម្រាប់អ្នកសិក្សាគ្រប់រូបយកទៅប្រើប្រាស់ទៅតាមកាលៈទេសៈ ជាក់ស្តែង និងជួយអភិវឌ្ឍខ្លួនឱ្យក្លាយទៅជាគ្រូបង្រៀនប្រកបដោយ ចំណេះដឹង សមត្ថភាពខ្ពស់ទាំងផ្នែកទ្រឹស្តី និងវិធីសាស្ត្របង្រៀន។

គណៈកម្មការរៀបចំសៀវភៅ

ចងក្រង និងបោះពុម្ពដោយ៖ វិទ្យាស្ថានជាតិអប់រំ ឆ្នាំ២០២៦
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PREFACE

The book is well-selected by Mrs Seng Sacha, Mr. Seng Ra, Mr. Soeung Sopha, Mrs. Lor Chantay, Mr. Leang Vannak, Mr. Som Mony, Mrs Chim Vutheavy, Mrs Lay Neary and Mr. Ly Sokchea for its practicality and widely-used guides to English Language Teaching. Its aim is specially designed for National Institute of Education trainees (Bachelor+2). It provides common classroom practices which enhance the teaching quality of both novice and experienced teachers who strive for effectiveness in English language education. This Handbook does not only offer good teaching techniques for all macro-skills but also supports teacher development of their craft through experiences, common sense, self-evaluation, and reflection.

Learning through this book, teacher trainees will be well-equipped for their teaching practicum. They will also learn how to incorporate technology with eclectic uses of methodology found in recent developments and changes in English language teaching.

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Table of Contents

Introduction to Teaching English

Hadfield & Hadfield (2008)

Lesson 1: Some Basic Principles

1.1. Motivation and needs

People learn the language based on motivation and needs (Ushioda, 2008). People may learn English because of some external (extrinsic) and internal (intrinsic) reasons.

Extrinsic motivation:

- Follow school curriculum and coursebook.
- Require for job opportunities or use at the workplace.
- For passing exams with good scores.
- Follow friends.
- Follow family's decision.

Intrinsic motivation

- They are interested in the language, custom, and culture.
- To use and communicate in a society.
- Learn for pleasure.

1.2. Educational and cultural background

Learners are different in terms of cultural and educational background and expectations (Hadfield & Hadfield, 2008).

- Educational background: one is higher or lower than others in terms of knowledge background.
- Cultural background: they are from different religion, race, and culture.
- They have different expectations of language learning: some expect to learn the language for good reading and writing – know grammar function; while others expect to learn about speaking, listening, and communicating rather than on grammar.
- They have different learning styles.

1.3. Learning styles

Different learners rely on different senses to help them learn. There are three learning styles (Gilakjani, 2011):

1. Visual learning style – visual learners think in pictures and learn best in visual images. They depend on the instructor's non-verbal cues such as body language to help with understanding. Also, taking descriptive notes over the material being presented is another kind of visual learning style.
2. Auditory learning style: learners discover information through listening and interpreting information by the means of pitch, emphasis and speed. They also learn best through reading out loud and may not have full understanding of information that is written.
3. Kinesthetic learning style: learners learn best with active "hand-on" approach – favor interaction with physical world or learn by doing.

1.4. What makes a good language learner?

There is right or wrong way, but there are some qualities that many successful learners share (Rubin, 1975).

1. A good language learner is a willing and a good guesser. He can gather and store information in an efficient manner so that it can be easily retrieved.

- He may listen to a phrase, pick out words he understands and infer the rest.
- He may look for clues to meaning in the topic, setting, or attitudes of the speakers.
- He can overlook unknown words or can read even though focusing only on content words. He can make inferences about the meaning of words or sentence structure. A wrong guess will be corrected from the subsequent context.
- There are three steps for guessing: (1) scanning, confirmation, and testing for adequacy; (2) assessment of probability that inference is correct; (3) re-adjustment to later information.
- Ability to guess from general to specific meaning by gathering most information from each question.

2. A good learner is often willing to appear foolish in order to communicate.

- He is willing to do many things to get his message across.
- He may paraphrase in order to explain the different meaning of a phrase.
- He may not limit himself to a particular sentence construction but will use those constructions he does to the fullest. For example, he may use "going to go" if he does not know the future in English.

3. A good learner will try out his knowledge by making up new sentences, thus bringing his newly acquired competence into use.

- A good language learner is often not inhibited. He is willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results.
- He is willing to make mistakes in order to learn and to communicate.
- He is willing to live with a certain amount of vagueness.

4. A good language learner is constantly looking for patterns in the language.

- He attends to the form in a particular way, constantly analyzing, categorizing, synthesizing.
- He is constantly trying to find schemes for classifying information.
- He is trying to distinguish relevant from irrelevant clues.

5. A good language learner practices:

- He pronounces words or makes up sentences.
- He seeks out opportunities to use the language by looking for native speakers, going to movies or to cultural events.
- He initiates conversations with the teachers and his fellow students in the target language.
- He takes advantage of every opportunity to speak in class.

6. The good language learner monitors his own speech and the speech of others.

- He pays attention to how well his speech is being received and whether his performance meets the standard he has learned.
- He learns from his mistakes.

1.5. What makes a good teacher?

According to Stronge (2018) a good teacher is someone who:

- Understands feelings of students
- Communicates clearly
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Lesson 2: Focus on Language

2.1. The structure of a language lesson

Learners need to hear or read language they are learning. Therefore, teacher's job is to provide this input, help learners understand it, and give them practice in using it.

2.1.1. Input

Teachers should know what language students have already learned and what language which is new. For warm up activity, teachers can ask some questions related to the language students have already learned and presenting the new ones.

2.1.2. Understanding

Teachers have to make sure that when they use new languages, they need to teach students the terms by explaining the meaning, demonstrating the meaning with pictures or mime, or help learners to find the meaning for themselves. To understand the meaning, students need to know how words, structure and expressions are formed. For example, slow+ly = slowly. In other words, they need to understand the sentence structure.

2.1.3. Practice

Give students chance to practice their new language so that they become confident and can develop the ability to speak or write in a way that other people can understand Learners are different in terms of cultural and educational background and expectations (Hadfield & Hadfield, 2008).

2.2. The stages of a lesson

2.2.1. Before the lesson

Teachers should know what language students have already been taught and what language that is new to them. Think of old vocabulary and grammar sentences they have been taught in previous lesson and review old lesson by asking them to produce some old sentences and vocabulary.

2.2.2. Input

1. Lead-in

Teacher should begin by asking learners questions to elicit their understanding rather than telling them things. Make them think and guess of what you are going to learn. Teacher can use pictures to ask students guess. Or give examples of some stories and ask them to answer.

2. Introducing target language

In this stage, teachers present the language they are going to teach in their lessons.

2.2.3. Understanding

1. Checking comprehension

Teachers ask students some questions to check their understanding related to the lesson's students have just learned.

2. Language focus/ Focus on form

Teachers have to make sure that the learners know which languages they are learning. Students also need to understand how the structures are formed

2.2.4. Practice

1. Practice the language

In this stage, students are given chance to practice the target language they have just been taught.

Controlled practice

Controlled practice is a stage in a lesson where learners practice new language in a limited form. It can be compared to free practice, which involves learners producing language using the target content freely. For example:

> The teacher has shown the learners the form and use of the past passive form. They now practice using the structure by completing sentences using cues, e.g. My car (stolen) _____ last week.

In the classroom, controlled practice can still be meaningful despite its limitations. For example, we could ask the learners to complete the following based on their experiences: (What?) was stolen (when?). This is even more controlled in terms of the target language but allows the learners to personalize the activity.

2. Feedback

During and after practice stage, the teachers also have a chance to provide feedback.

3. Use the new language (production or free practice)

From the target language and grammar sentence structures learners have been taught, they now have chance to produce their own sentence structures with the target language (Hadfield & Hadfield, 2008).

Free practice

Free practice is a stage in a lesson where learners produce language using the target content freely. It can be compared with controlled practice, which involves learners producing the language previously focused on in a restricted context. For example:

> The teacher has shown the learners the form and use of the present passive form. They have practiced using the structure by completing sentences using cues, and now they practice the form more freely by describing a process they have chosen.

In the classroom, free practice appears in the production stage of a PPP lesson Presentation, Practice, Production and can also be the first stage in models such as TTT (test-teach-test) and ARC (Authentic Use-Restricted Use-Clarification and Focus).

4. Feedback

During and after practice stage, teachers should provide feedback to what students have learned so far and what they have to improve more.

2.3. Different lesson structures

2.3.1. Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP)

- In the presentation phase, teachers present the target language and set it into the real-world context, finish presentation with a focus on form. While in the practice phase, students are given activities to focus on the target language. And in the production phase, students are given opportunities to speak and to use target language in a more natural, realistic way.

➢ **A PPP lesson would proceed in the following manner:**

- First, the teacher ***presents*** an item of language in a clear context to get across its meaning. This could be done in a variety of ways: through a text, a situation builds, a dialogue etc.
- Students are then asked to complete a controlled ***practice stage***, where they may have to repeat target items through choral and individual drilling, fill gaps or match halves of sentences. All of this practice demands that the student uses the language correctly and helps them to become more comfortable with it.
- Finally, they move on to the production stage, sometimes called the 'free practice' stage. Students are given a communication task such as a role play and are expected to ***produce*** the target language and use any other language that has already been learnt and is suitable for completing it (Criado, 2013).

2.3.2. Task-based learning (TBL) model

A Task-based approach

A task is defined as ‘any activity that learners engage in to further the process of learning a language’ (Littlewood, 2004). There are two main categories of task: ‘communication tasks’, in which the ‘learner’s attention is focused on meaning rather than form’, and ‘enabling tasks’, in which the ‘main focus is on linguistic aspects (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions, and discourse)’.

Task-based learning offers an alternative for language teachers. In a task-based lesson, the teacher doesn't pre-determine what language will be studied. The lesson is based around the completion of a central task and the language studied is determined by what happens as the students complete it. The lesson follows certain stages. Task-based learning approach (TBL) highlights its advantages over the more traditional Present, Practice, Produce (PPP) approach (Willis, 1996).

The Task-Based Learning (TBL) framework

1. PRE-TASK

Introduction to topic and task

- T helps Ss to understand the theme and objectives of the task, eg brainstorming ideas with the class, using pictures, mime or personal experience to introduce the topic,
- Ss may do a pre-task, e.g. topic-based odd-word-out games.
- T may highlight useful words and phrases but would not pre-teach new structures.
- Ss can hear a recording of a parallel task being done (so long as this does not give away the solution to the problem). Or, if the task is based on a text, Ss read a part of it.
- Ss can be given preparation time to think how to do the task.

This initial phase gives useful exposure which helps students to recall relevant words and phrases and to recognize new ones. The preparation time helps them to think of the kinds of things they can say and seems to result in better quality language use at the task stage.

2. THE TASK CYCLE

- The task is done by Ss (in pairs or groups) and gives Ss a chance to use whatever language they have already to express themselves and say what they want to say. This may be in response to reading a text or hearing a recording.
- T walks round and monitors, encouraging in a supportive way that everyone's attempts at communication in the target language.
- T helps Ss to formulate what they want to say but will not intervene to correct errors of form unless they asked.
- The emphasis is on spontaneous, exploratory talk and confidence-building, within the privacy of the small group.
- Success in achieving the goals of the task naturally helps raise Ss' motivation.

Planning

- Planning prepares for the next stage, when Ss are asked to report briefly to the whole class how they did the task and what the outcome was.
- Ss draft and rehearse what they want to say or write for their reports.
- Teacher goes around to advise students on language, suggesting phrases and helping Ss to polish and correct their language.
- If the reports are in writing, Ts can encourage peer-editing and use of dictionaries.
- The emphasis is on clarity, organization and accuracy, as appropriate for a public presentation.
- Individual students often take this chance to ask questions about specific language items.

Report

- T asks some pairs to report briefly to the whole class so everyone can compare findings, or begin a survey. Sometimes only one or two groups report in full; others comment and add extra points. The class may take notes.
- T chairs, comments on the content of their reports, rephrases perhaps but gives no overt public correction. (T can note language items that are still causing problems.)

Post-task listening

- Ss listen (several times if needed) to a recording of fluent speakers doing the same task, and compare the ways in which they did the task themselves.

This component gives additional exposure to topic-related material and increases students' experience of the target language in use.

3. FOCUS ON FORM

Analysis

Teacher sets some language-focused tasks, based on the texts students have read or on the transcripts of the recordings they have heard. These are often called ‘consciousness-raising activities.

Examples included:

- Find words and phrases related to the title or topic of the text. Circle them.
- Read the transcript, find words ending in s or 's and say what the s means.
- Underline all the verbs in the simple past form. Say which refer to past time and which do not.
- Underline and classify the questions in the transcript.

- Choose three phrases you think might be useful for others to know.
- Teacher starts Ss off, then Ss continue, often in pairs.
- Teacher goes around to help; Ss can ask individual questions.
- Teacher then reviews the analysis with the whole class, possibly writing relevant language up on the board in list form; Ss may make notes. Class shares the useful phrases.

The aim is to help students to explore language, to develop an awareness of aspects of syntax, collocation and lexis, to help them systematize what they have observed about certain features of language, to clarify concepts and to notice new things.

Practice

- T conducts practice activities as needed, based on the language analysis work already on the board, or using examples from the text or transcript.
- **Practice activities can include**:
  - Choral repetition of the phrases identified and classified.
  - Memory challenge games based on partially.
  - Erased examples or using lists already on blackboard for progressive deletion.
  - Sentence completion (set by one team for another).
  - Matching the past tense verbs (jumbled) with the subjects or objects they had in the text.

2.3.3. Test-Teach-Test

- Test, teach, test (TTT) is an approach to teaching where learners first complete a task or activity without help from the teacher. Then, based on the problems seen, the teacher plans and presents the **target language**. Then the learners do another task to practice the new language. For examples:
- The learners, who have not studied phrasal verbs, are given a text and asked to find examples.
- They are able to do this but not to deduce meaning.
- The teacher plans a lesson to help learners develop this, and then asks them to do a similar activity.

In the classroom, TTT is a useful approach as it enables teachers to identify the specific needs of learners concerning a language area and address this need suitably. It can be particularly useful at intermediate levels and above, where learners may have seen language before, but have specific problems with it, and also in mixed level classes to help identify objectives for each individual.

Lesson 3: Focus on Grammar

About grammar

Grammar is important in teaching and learning language. Grammar enables learners to effectively use four language skills and vocabulary. In other words, knowing grammar functions, learners are able to effectively use the language in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In listening and speaking, grammar plays a crucial part in grasping and expressing spoken language. In reading, grammar enables learners to comprehend sentence interrelationship in a paragraph, a passage and a text. In the context of writing, grammar allows the learners to put their ideas into intelligible sentences so that they can successfully communicate in a written form. While in vocabulary, grammar provides a pathway to learners how some lexical items should be combined into a good sentence so that meaningful and communicative statements or expressions can be formed (Widodo, 2006).

3.1. Word order, word combination, and word forms

Grammar is a description of the language system. In order to write the sentence, learners need to understand the system for ordering, combining, and changing words.

3.1.1. Word Order

Adjectives before nouns

Adjectives are normally placed before nouns and this is known as the modifier or attributive position. Thus, we would normally say:

Getting all the way round Brazil in five working days proved an **impossible mission**.

3.1.2. Word combinations

Word combination is made up of two or more words that are commonly used together in English. This word-combining feature of language is called collocation.

Examples of collocation: make the bed, do homework, take a risk, to give someone advice, to feel free, to save time, to make progress, to do the washing up.

3.1.3. Word forms

For learners of English as a second language (ESL), they need to know how to order, combine and change words to make grammatically correct sentences.

Example

Verb: Encourage/ Encouragement; not/ notify/ notification/ noticeable; tireless/ tire/ tiresome.

Adjective: black/ blacken/ blackish/ blacked; courage/ courageous/ courageously/ courageousness; ease/ easy/ easiness/ uneasy; heaven/ heave/ heavenly/ hellish

3.2. Elements of a sentence

The word order in a sentence in English is subject, verb, objective (**S+V+OBJ)**.

Example:

The dog chased the cat.

Parts of speech

Another good starting point is to know the names of the parts of speech. For example:

Nouns: car, moon, computer …

Adjectives: small, excited, old …..

Articles: a, an, the …..

Determiners: some, many, this, that ….

Pronouns: I, you, him, them …..

Verbs: go, come, eat, speak ….

Adverbs: quickly, slowly ….

Conjunctions: and, but, although ……

Prepositions: of, in, with, near, on ……

3.3. How to help learners with grammar

Teachers will need to know grammatical terminology. However, teachers need to avoid complicated grammatical terms especially with lower level students. In general, it is easy for students to grasp a new structure if the language is presented visually, for example, in a table rather than analyzed and described using grammatical terminology. A table makes it clear what the structure is and how it can be used to make other sentences:

<table>
<tr><td>I</td><td rowspan="3">was</td><td rowspan="3">reading a book</td><td rowspan="4">when</td><td rowspan="3">the light went out.</td></tr>
<tr><td>He</td></tr>
<tr><td>She</td></tr>
<tr><td>You</td><td rowspan="3">were</td><td rowspan="3">watching a horror movie</td><td rowspan="3">there was a knock on the door.</td></tr>
<tr><td>We</td></tr>
<tr><td>They</td></tr>
</table>

3.3.1. Teaching form

Do not teach vocabulary at the same time you are teaching grammar. Make your sentences simply and easy to understand – not with complicated vocabulary. Teach students a grammatical item at a time not mixed up with other forms. Also, you do not always have to explain grammar rules to students. Give them tasks such as charts to fill in or questions to answers to guide them towards discovering the rules (Seedhouse, 1997).

3.3.2. Teaching meaning

You should introduce a new grammar structure in a meaningful context – using in real life. Instead of presenting examples of new languages, ask them some questions to get them produce the target language by themselves (Pingle, 2013).

Language in context

In textbooks, grammar is often presented out of context. Learners are given isolated sentences, which they are expected to internalized through exercises involving repetition, manipulation, and grammatical transformation. Unless teachers provide them opportunities to explore grammatical structures in context, they are able to use language for communication (Nunan, 1998).

3.3.3. Practice and using language

Teachers often follow school's textbook and school curriculum which grammar items has been selected and ordered for you. However, students often take time to process language they have been taught before they can start using it fluently and accurately. Therefore, they need to reuse the grammar they have learned.

3.4. How to select grammar items

Teachers often follow school's textbook and school curriculum which grammar items have been selected and ordered for them. However, students often take time to process language they have been taught before they can start using it fluently and accurately. Therefore, grammar items should be carefully graded, meaning that simple structures should be taught before the more complex ones. You should also often recycle the grammar points students have already been taught. You can choose items to teach or practice again for revision, for error correction, and remedial work because a grammar item is too big to be covered all at once.

3.5. The structure of a grammar lesson

Sample lesson

- Lesson structure: PPP
- Language focus: Concept questions/ timeline diagram
- Teaching focus: Eliciting language from students to guide them towards the target language
- Materials: Flashcards/ Jigsaw sentence slips
- Presenting the target language: Dramatized situation
- Practicing activities: Drill/ Matching game/ Mime and guess game
- Producing the target language: Drama activity/ Memory game
- Consolidation: Writing an account of a scene

What is grammar?

For many years, 'learning the grammar' has assumed a central role in students' expectations about what learning a language involves. Nowadays, however, there are many different views about what learners need to learn and how best to go about teaching it.

Here are some key questions concerning teaching grammar:

- What is grammar?
- How do people learn grammar?
- How can I analyze form, meaning and use for teaching purposes?
- What are possible component parts of a grammar lesson?
- How can I provide relevant input for learners?
- How can I help learners notice, understand and memorize language? How can I help learners practice using language?

But before we decide how we can teach grammar, perhaps our first issue should be to work out exactly what we mean by 'grammar'.

What is grammar?

……
……
……
……

- **Key concepts**

What are grammatical forms?

These refer to how words are made up and presented in speech or writing.

Examples:

- The form of the plural of regular nouns in English is 'base word + s'
- The form of the gerund is 'infinitive + -ing'.

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

There are nine parts of speech in English for example:

- Nouns
- ……..
- ……..
- ……..
- ……..
- ……..
- ……..
- ……..

A part of speech or word class describes how words behave in sentences, i.e. how they operate and combine grammatically with other words. For example, in English:

- A noun can act as the subject of a verb but an adjective by itself cannot.
  Example: *The tall girl ran very fast (✓) but not Tall ran very fast (X) an adverb can combine with an adjective but an adjective cannot combine with another adjective.*
  Example: *well organized (✓), good organized (x)*
- *A noun can combine with another noun.*
  Example: *a car parks.*

The form of some parts of speech varies according to the function the parts of speech have in a sentence. So, for example, these two sentences show different forms of the adjective old:

- The boy thought he would never grow old.
- He's older than most of his friends.

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

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

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

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

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

We can also talk about how words are formed through words building. One important way in which English forms words is through the use of two kinds of affixes (a group of letters added at the beginning or end of a base word which change its meaning): prefixes and suffixes. Affixes can give grammatical information, showing whether a verb is singular, for example, or marking a tense, parts of verbs, the plural of nouns, possessives,

- **Examples:** talk**ed**, go**es**, go**ing**, book**s**, girl**'s**.

Many other prefixes and suffixes are used in English to make new words, by changing their part of speech and adding a meaning to the base word

- **Examples**: **dis**appear, care**ful** friendly.

Some common prefixes in English are un-/dis-/re-/im-/in-lover-/un-/il-/pre-. Some common suffixes are -ment/-ous/-able/-less/-full/-tion/-ly,

What are grammatical uses?

Grammatical uses refer to how grammatical structures are used to convey (or communicate) meaning. A particular grammatical structure.

Example: The present continuous (or progressive), does not always have the same meaning. Its meaning or use comes from the context in which it is used.

- She is doing her homework might mean:

a. She is doing her homework now/at the moment: The present continuous used for actions at the moment of speaking,

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

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

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

Structure	***Some uses***
Present simple	a. to describe a present state - I live in London. b. ……. *- I read newspapers and magazines.* *c. ……* *- The plane leaves at 10.30.* *d. ……* *- They get to the bus stop early and start talking to the other people.* Suddenly... e. …….. *- Now here's Jones. He shoots but the goalkeeper manages to save it* - another lucky escape!
Present perfect	a. to describe past actions which have some connection to the present - I've seen that film. b. …….. - I've visited most of the countries in Europe. c. …….. - We've been staying in university accommodation all summer.
Adverbs	a. to describe how something is done - She ate her food quickly. b. to focus on something - He only likes pizza. c. to show an attitude to something *- They can't come, unfortunately.*

Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

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

- Grammar rules describe the way that language works, but language changes over time, so grammar rules are not fixed. They change, too. But grammar rules and grammar books don't always change as quickly as the language, so they are not always up-to-date. For example, some grammar books say that we should use whom rather than who after prepositions. But in fact, except in some situations, who is generally used, with a different word order, e.g. 'I've just met the girl who I talked to on Friday' is much more common and accepted than 'I've just met the girl to whom I talked on Friday'. Teachers need to keep up-to-date with what parts of the language are changing and how.
- Grammar rules traditionally describe written language rather than spoken language. For example, repetition, exclamations and contractions (two words that are pronounced or written as one, e.g. don't, isn't, won't) are common features (important parts) of spoken language, but they are not always described in grammar books. Some grammar books are now available which describe spoken language, too.
- Very often, speakers of a language can speak and write it well without consciously knowing any grammatical rules or terms.
- Teachers need to consider whether it is helpful to teach grammar to learners simply by making them aware of patterns and practicing them, or by also teaching them grammar rules and some grammatical terms. Learning some grammatical rules and terms makes language learning easier for some learners. Other learners, e.g. young children, may not find it useful at all.
- Just learning grammatical rules, terms and structures doesn't teach learners how to communicate, which is the main purpose of language. So, much language teaching nowadays also focuses on functions, language skills, fluency and communication.
- It is important that exercises and activities **focus on form** and use to give students practice of both, e.g. how the second conditional is formed, and that the second conditional is used to talk about situations that are unlikely to happen. Learners need to develop accuracy in both form and use.

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

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES (See page 237 for answers)

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

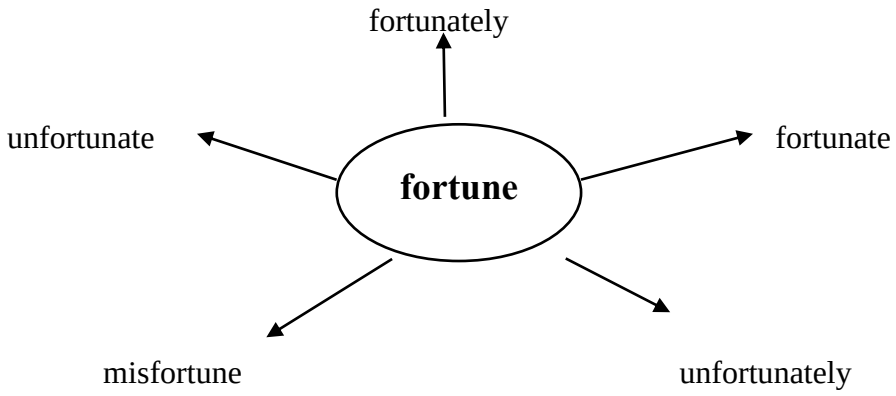
as really take advantage both on the left of often very hard
that lovely turn on London dining table either his because of
even though theirs usual only faster nobody

Nouns	**Verbs**	***Adjectives***	***Adverbs***	**Determiners**
……	……	……	……	……
……	……	……	……	……
……	……	……	……	……
……	……	……	……	……

Prepositions	***Pronouns***	***Conjunctions***	***Exclamations***
……	……	……	……
……	……	……	……
……	……	……	……
……	……	……	……

2. **Use prefixes and suffixes to make maps, as in the example, from these words:**

decide, luck, able



3. Complete the table with an example, a term or a description of form.

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

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

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

B: Oh no. Are you sure?

A: Absolutely!

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

Reflection

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

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

Discovery activities

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

   English Grammar in Use (Third edition) by Raymond Murphy, Cambridge University Press 2004

   Cambridge Grammar of English by Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthy, Cambridge University Press 2006

   http://www.britishcouncil.org/learnenglish-central-grammar-current.htm
   http://www.englishclub.com/grammar/index.htm
3. Look at "Teaching grammar effectively' at: http://www.cambridge.org/elt/tkt
4. Read the grammar section of the TKT Glossary. Can you think of examples of all the terms mentioned?

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

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

For questions 1-7, look at the sentences and the three words from each listed a, b and c.

Two of the words have the same grammatical function in the sentence. One does NOT. Choose the letter (a, b or c) which does NOT have the same grammatical function.

1. She told us it was very cold there.

a. she b. it c. there

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

a. was b. were c. don't

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

a. understood b. spoken c. was

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

a. for b. but c. so

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

a. off b. to c. near

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

a. really b. so c. noisy

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

a. young b. fast c. easily

TKT practice task 1B (See page 245 for answers) For questions 1-6, choose the best option (a, b or c) to complete each statement about the uses of the grammatical structures underlined in the sentences.

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

a. give advice b. talk about obligation. c. speculate

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

a. introduce a comparison b. introduce a reason c. introduce a time period

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

a. signal a question b. give extra information c. introduce a definition

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

a. refer to the present b. refer to the future c. refer to the past

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

a. talk about a condition

b. discuss a doubt

c. introduce a reported question

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

a. describe a permanent state

b. describe a continuing action

c. describe a temporary state

Lesson 4: Focus on Functions

4.1. Functions of language use

Teachers have to understand the functions of sentences and be aware that one grammatical form has many functions. Teachers need to know the differences of language uses depending on situations and persons we are talking to. For example, open the door, please open the door, could you please open the door, would you mind opening the door for me please?

4.2. How to help learners with functions

4.2.1. Introducing functions

It is a good idea to introduce social functions in conversations. For instance, sample lesson is about suggestions. Teachers get students to discuss in group then elicit from them what languages they use for suggestions.

4.2.2. Functions and grammar

Different expectations involve different grammatical forms. Therefore, teachers have to be careful to show learners clearly how the different forms are used.

4.2.3. Functions and appropriacy

Help your learners to clarify which exponents are more polite by presenting the expressions with a 'cline' to show the degree of politeness and by having a class discussion to make appropriate expressions to situations.

4.2.4. Practicing functions

Get learners practice both sides of social exchanges such as pair work, role play, and simulation, which are important practice activities. For example, pair work involves two learners practicing both sides of a short exchange. Role play involves a pair or group imagining they are characters in a particular situation. Whereas, simulation is a role play where the whole classroom becomes an imaginary place, for instance, a town center where lost tourists ask inhabitants for directions.

4.2.5. Written consolidation

Functional language can be written as well as spoken though it can sometimes be more formal in writing. To get students consolidate oral practice is to ask them to write a formal note or a letter.

4.2.6. Selecting functions

Make sure that the functions you teach are suitable for your learners' level and needs. A group of beginners planning a tourist visit to an English-Speaking country will need functions such as asking the way, asking for things in shops, ordering a meal, and booking a hotel room expressed in very simple language. While, an advance group of learners hoping to study in an English-Speaking country will need functions necessary for academic study, such as giving opinions, presenting an argument, etc.

4.2.7. The structure of a functions lesson

- Lesson structure: Test-teach-test
- Language focus: Making and responding to suggestions
- Teaching focus: How to teach the different exponents of a function
- Materials: Virtually no materials
- Presenting the target language: Teacher elicits language
- Practicing activities: Teacher-students question and answer/ 'open pair' practice
- Producing the target language: Grouping discussion
  Consolidation: Short notes and replies

- **What is a function?**

  ……
  ……
  ……
  ……
  ……
  ……
  …….

- **Key concepts**

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

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

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

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

Module 1

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

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

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

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

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

- **Key concepts and the language teaching classroom**

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

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

Discover Activities

Look at your coursebook. Does it teach functions? Why / why not?

1. What kinds of activities are used in your coursebook to introduce and practice functions? How does the coursebook help learners deal with the grammar of the functions?
2. In your Teacher Portfolio list six functions your learners might need to help them use English outside the classroom. List the most useful exponents for them, too.
3. To find out more about functions and exponents, look at Chapter 5 of Threshold *1990 by* J.A. van Ek and J.L.M. Trim, Council of Europe, Cambridge University Press 1998.
4. Here are some common functions: declining an invitation, enquiring, expressing obligation, expressing preference, expressing ability, expressing intention, expressing necessity, expressing permission, expressing probability, expressing prohibition. Use a dictionary and/or the TKT Glossary to find their meanings. Can you think of two exponents for each one?

TKT practice task 4 (See page 245 for answers)

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

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

Functions

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

Conversation

Janet: This meal really isn't nice. Nothing's fresh and everything tastes a bit strange.

Chris: Yes, you're right. (1) We could complain to the manager.

Janet: (2) That's a bit rude, isn't it? Maybe we could ask the waiter for something else.

Chris: (3) Are you saying you'd like the same dish again?

Janet: No, that's not really a good idea. (4) It would probably be as bad as this one.

Chris: But it's better than doing nothing. Janet: (5) True.

Chris: OK, call the waiter and tell him.

Janet: Oh no, not me. (6) I hate doing those kinds of things.

1	2	3	4	5	6

Lesson 5: Teaching Vocabulary

5.1. About vocabulary

Teaching vocabulary goes beyond memorizing words with flashcards. It is a process that begins with encountering a word and ends when a student can produce the word. A vocabulary item sometimes called a lexical item. A **lexical item** (or **lexical unit**/ **LU**, **lexical entry**) is a single word, a part of a word, or a chain of words (catena) that forms the basic elements of a language's lexicon (≈ vocabulary) (Smith, 1969).

For examples, cat, traffic light, take care of, by the way, and it's raining cats and dogs. Lexical items can be generally understood to convey a single meaning such as a lexeme but are not limited to single words. Lexical items are like semes in that they are "natural units" translating between languages, or in learning a new language. In this last sense, it is sometimes said that language consists of grammaticalized lexis, and not lexicalized grammar. The entire store of lexical items in a language is called its lexis. In teaching vocabulary, leaners need to know productive and receptive vocabulary.

Productive vocabulary knowledge is defined as the ability to use multiple aspects of word knowledge in writing and speaking. Whereas, receptive vocabulary knowledge is defined as the ability to recall and recognize multiple aspects of word knowledge in reading and listening. In teaching vocabulary, learners need to know**:**

- How a word is spelt
- How it is pronounced
- The meaning of the word
- What part of speech it is (N, V, ADV, ADJ …)?
- Which word it is often used with (collocation)
- How the word is used: in what situations and contexts.

5.2. How to help learners with vocabulary

5.2.1. Introduce and explaining vocabulary

Vocabulary can be presented in dialogues and reading passages where the words appear in context and in combination with other words. Therefore, leaners need to know vocabulary items as in the following:

What it means

It is vital to get across the meaning of the item clearly and to ensure that your students have understood correctly with checking questions.

The form

Students need to know if it is a verb, a noun, an adjective .. etc, to be able to use it effectively.

How it is pronounced

This can be particularly problematic for learners of English because there is often no clear relation between how a word is written and how it is pronounced. It is very important to use the phonemic script in such cases so the students have a clear written record of the pronunciation. Don't forget also to drill words that you think will cause pronunciation problems for your students and highlight the word stresses.

How it is spelt

This is always difficult for learners of English. Remember to clarify the pronunciation

before showing the written form if it follows any unpredictable grammatical patterns. For example, man-men / information (uncountable).

The situations when the word is or is not used

If the word formal, neutral, or informal, learners need to know. For example, spectacles, glasses, specs, and if it is used mainly in speech or in writing.

5.2.2. Helping learners record new words

It will help learners if they can record their new words in a a vocabulary notebook or on small cards. Vocabulary notebooks can have pages divided down the center with new word on one side and the meaning on the other. Organizing new words in lexical sets or word fields also help learners if their words are recorded in groups of words related by topic.

5.2.3. Helping learners remember new words

Simply recording word is not enough. Learners need to spend time memorizing new vocabulary. Teachers can give them help with memorization, through repetition, and personalization.

5.2.4. Helping learners use new words

Once learners have had time to absorb the new vocabulary, they can begin to use it communicatively. Words cannot be used in isolation. In other words, they have to be used in combination with other language.

5.2.5. Recycling vocabulary

Remembering words is a long process. Even if learners can remember and use new words by the end of a lesson, they may have forgotten them a week later. Therefore, teachers need to revise and recycle vocabulary to make sure they retain it.

5.3. How to select vocabulary

5.3.1. Frequency

Some words are used more frequently than others, for example, words such as eat and school are used more often than words such as distract or security. It makes sense to teach the more frequent words earlier in a syllabus at lower levels.

5.3.2. Word fields

Learning words that are grouped around a topic is easier and more meaningful for learners than learning lists of unconnected words and gives learners a good basis for a conversation or discussion on that topic.

5.4. The structure of a vocabulary lesson

- Lesson structure: PPP
- Language focus: Concrete vocabulary
- Teaching focus: How to teach a lexical set of concrete nouns
- Materials: Realia/ Poster
- Presenting the target language: Introduce and explain using physical objects
- Recording the target language: Labelling a picture
- Practice activities: Whole class memory games
- Producing the target language: Information gap: spot the difference
- Consolidation: Write a description

Stage 1: Noticing and understanding new words

Introducing nouns, things, objects, animals, etc…

Visual elements work best with concrete nouns, but try to go beyond **flashcards and illustrations**. Try to use **real objects** whenever possible, or even sounds, smells, and tastes. Appeal to all of your students' senses!

Introducing adjectives

Opposites, like "big" and "small", "long" and "short", are usually illustrated with pictures, but here's another case where realia will help you **teach new adjectives**; the use of real life objects is wonderful for words like "soft" and "rough", adjectives that may take precious minutes of class time to explain. For more advanced adjectives, like "stunning", "gorgeous", "spectacular", "huge", or "immense", bring in photos of famous sights from around the world like the Louvre, Egyptian pyramids, the Eiffel Tower, etc…then use these new adjectives to describe these places in ways that clearly illustrate their meaning.

Introducing abstracts

There are things you simply cannot teach with a flashcard. What works best in these cases are synonyms, definitions, substitutions, or simply placing students ***within a given context***. Consider this simple example: To teach the difference between "early" and "late", remind students what time class begins, then state that those who arrive before this time are "early" while those that arrive after this time are "late".

Stage 2: Recognizing new words

Bingo

Bingo is one of the most versatile games employed by ESL teachers. For younger learners, make bingo cards with illustrations, and call out each word. For those who can read, do the opposite, make the cards with words, then draw the flashcards from a bag. For teens or adult learners, you can make cards with the definition and call out the words, or vice versa.

Matching

Another type of exercise with countless possibilities. Students may be required to match opposites, synonyms, or a word with its definition, as well as a picture to a word.

Fill in the blanks (with options)

Hand out a piece of written text (anything from a description, **song**, letter, to even a short story) with blank spaces that must be filled in from a list of words. You can adapt this to longer texts, and also have longer word lists.

Stage 3: Producing vocabulary

Descriptions

From a newspaper photo of a recent event to a personal account of a recent trip, there are countless things students can describe while putting new vocabulary to good use. This goes for both oral and written descriptions. You may give them some guidance, like indicating that they have to use at least five adjectives in their description, or five words related to **sports**, **weather**, etc…to no guidance at all.

Fill in the blanks (no options)

Supply students with a piece of written text with blank spaces that have to be filled in with any word that fits. You may give them indications for each space, like "noun", "adjective" or "adverb", if they're advanced students. You can then read several out loud to compare the different words used to fill in each blank.

Mind maps or brainstorming

Tell students they need to think of words they can use to describe the weather. Write "weather" at the center of a blackboard or **whiteboard** and circle it. Write every word supplied by students as "rays" that shoot out this circle. They should reply with previously taught words, like "chilly", "scorching", or "mild". You may even have sub-circles shooting off to the side for winter, summer, etc…words. This works great for vocabulary review lessons.

Guess what I'm thinking

Students take turns describing something, like a place: "I'm thinking of a place that is so huge it takes visitors hours to see all of it. It has stunning works of art. It is a breathtaking building, very old, but with a modern glass pyramid in the front." Students choose to be as obvious or as cryptic as they like. Even little ones can do this with simple descriptions: "It's an **animal**. It has a very long neck and big brown spots." Or simply state a series of words: "Africa, black and white, stripes".

It's better to teach vocabulary in context, in other words, teach highly descriptive adjectives when the lesson is about **travel**. Or **clothes and accessories** when you're talking about shopping. Never teach a list of words just because, or students won't have a chance to practice this new vocabulary.

On a final note, remember to cater to different learning styles or multiple intelligences.

Use songs and music, real life objects, or puzzles, but the more you mix the better. Remember the difference between recognizing and producing words: to practice recognition the words have to be supplied by YOU; then students use them to fill in blanks or match them. For students to effectively and accurately produce vocabulary, they have to spontaneously recall the words.

When teaching any language whether it is a word, a phrase or a verb form, at some point it will be essential to convey and check that your students have understood the meaning.

In most classrooms this is most commonly done through translation by the teacher or students, but is this really the best way? In this article I'd like to share some alternative methods which I have used in my teaching.

1. Problems with translation

All though it is quick and simple, there are many possible problems with relying on translation.

- The word you want to translate to doesn't always cover the same range of meaning and connotation of the target word.
- Some structures or verb forms that exist in English either don't exist in other languages or the parallel form carries either additional or less meaning.

- Using translation can make students very teacher / dictionary dependent. By relying on translation, students don't develop the 'real world' strategies, which could help them to negotiate meaning and communicate when they need to make themselves understood or to understand someone who doesn't share their language.

2. Moving away from translation

Here are some methods I have used in attempting to move away from dependence on translation.

Mime. This includes noises or gestures. Some words particularly actions, are easy and quick to mime.

- This can actually make lessons much more enjoyable too, especially if you get the students used to miming words.

Pictures. This includes photos and drawings. These are very useful for when the words you are trying to teach are objects. Doing a quick drawing on the board can very simply convey the meaning of words that come up unexpectedly in class.

- Again, if you get students to do the drawing too, then this can make the class more memorable and can be made a regular revision feature of your lessons. Time lines are also a great way of conveying the meaning of different verb tenses.

Clines. These are graphs showing degree and they can be really useful for sets of words like, love, hate, don't mind, fond of, detest, enjoy or things like adverbs of frequency. They rely on students' existing knowledge and extend that knowledge.

- If you know that your students understand love and hate then you can place these at extremes on the graph and get your students to decide where the other words in the set should be in relation to those.

Realia or the real thing. This relies on the words you are teaching being objects and you being able to bring that object into class, but it can be really effective for students who are tactile learners and who need to touch.

- This can be particularly effective for teaching words like fluffy, rough, smooth, furry, hairy, which have very subtle differences which would be hard to explain.

Dictionary. A monolingual dictionary can be really useful in helping to build up your learners' independence.

- Using a monolingual dictionary well is a skill and one that you may well need to work on in order to help your students get the best out of it.

Explanation. Being able to explain what a word means in the target language can be a really useful skill for students.

- By giving students concise and accurate explanations of words we can help them to develop the ability to explain words that they want to know.

Synonyms / Antonyms. Giving opposite words or similar words can be a very quick way of conveying meaning, but you will need to be careful.

- Using thin as a synonym for skinny can be quite effective, but there is still a difference in connotation and you'll need to consider whether and how you deal with these slight differences in meaning.

Word formation or to be accurate breaking down complex words to their root parts. This method can also help students to understand how some of the suffixes and morphemes of the language work.

- The word 'misunderstanding' can be divided into three parts; the root (understand), its prefix (mis) and the 'ing' at the end. By breaking words down in this way students learn more about the language than the word itself and can start to apply this knowledge to other words they want to use.

Context. This could be within a written text, audio, video or even a play and is by far one of the most useful and powerful ways to convey meaning.

- If students are able to deduce the meaning of a word or phrase through the context in which they see or hear it, then they are well on the road to becoming independent learners.

3. Possible problems

Of course, using the techniques above takes time and planning and there are always likely to be words that 'come up' unexpectedly in class when it will be just more economical to use translation. There is also the fact that you may have to battle against your students' expectations.

- If they are used to having the teacher give them translations of every new word or phrase they learn, then they might not readily take to having to do some of the thinking work for themselves. If this is the case, you might want to start introducing these methods gradually by using them as part of revision games.
- If, as is the case with many learners, they are really uncomfortable with not having a translation to match their new language points against, you could try telling them that you will give them translations for new words at the end of the class which will also act as a good way to revise any new language which has come up in the class.

Conclusion

Although many of these ways of conveying meaning may be more time consuming and require more planning than translating words, I believe by using them we are in the long term making better learners of our students. We are not only teaching them words and phrases, but the ability to convey and understand new meaning within the framework of the language they want to learn. This will make them more independent learners and better able to cope when the time comes for them to actually use the language in the 'real world'.

Written by Nik Peachey, British Council

https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/conveying-meaning

Lesson 6: Focus on Skills

The structure of a skills lesson

6.1. What are skills?

……..……
……..……
……..……
……..……
…….....

6.2. How is teaching skills different from teaching language?

……..……
……..……
……..……
……..……
…….....

6.3. How do I teach a skilled lesson?

6.3.1. Before the skills activity

Lead in

Teachers engage learners' attention to the lesson and get them thinking about the topic they are going to learn. For example:

- To introduce a reading text about festivals, you should ask learners about their favorite festival in their country.
- To introduce a story the students are going to listen to, you could show learners a picture and ask them to predict the story.
- To introduce a lesson on writing postcards, you could bring in postcards sent to you for learners to read.
- To introduce a discussion of childhood memories, you could show the class a photo of yourself as a child and tell them one of your own memories.

Language focus

- Teachers might also include a short language focus to introduce some key vocabulary and expressions.

6.3.2. During

Tasks

Teachers give students some tasks or series, for example: (reading texts, listening to a story, or giving pictures)

- Reading a text about festivals and matching pictures to the descriptions of the different festivals.
- Listening to a story and arranging pictures in the order of the events in the story.
- Learners get a holiday postcard with a picture on the front. They have to imagine they are in that place and write a postcard on the back.

6.3.2. After the skills activity

Language focus

- Teachers check students' understanding, giving answer, or giving feedback/ error correction in writing and speaking lessons.

Transfer

Finally, teachers use the skills activity they have just completed as a springboard into practicing another skill. For example:

- Learners write about their favorite festival from their own country.
- Learners act out their story in groups.
- Learners exchange postcards and read them. They think of four questions to ask about the postcards writer's holiday. Then they role play meeting after their holiday and discussing them.
- Learners write about their strongest childhood memories. In groups, they make wall posters with a collage of 'Our memories'. These are pinned up for other learners to read.

Lesson 7: Teaching Listening

7.1. What does listening involve?

Spoken language

A spoken conversation between several people is chaotic and complex, and there is no time to stop and go over something again, as you would if you were struggling to understand a written text. In English, speakers may miss out a subject or a verb, or may break off their sentence in the middle, for example:

I was at the bus stop waiting for – when this car pulled up – it was Dave – offered me a lift well.

Clausal basic speech

The unit of conversational discourse is not the full sentence but the clause, and longer utterances in conversations generally consists of several clauses coordinated.

Reduced forms

In articulating clauses, speakers are guided by the need to express meanings efficiently. This means that words which play a less crucial role in the message may be slurred or dropped, and other words given more prominence. For example:

A. When will you be back?

B. Tomorrow maybe (instead of, maybe I'll be back tomorrow)

Ungrammatical forms

Due to the effort the speakers put into planning and organizing the contents of their utterance in ongoing time, grammaticality is often relevant than ideational coherence. Consequently, ungrammatical form and constructions are frequent.

Pausing and speech errors

An important component of human speech consists of the pauses, hesitations, false starts, and correction which make up such a large portion of what we actually say. In natural speech, between 30% and 50% of speaking time may consist of pauses and hesitations, indicating some of the selection and planning processes speakers make use of. Pauses may be either silent pauses or filled pauses. Filled pauses contain items such as uh, oh, hmm, ah, well, say, sort of, just, kind of, I mean, I think, I guess, which indicate that the speaker is searching for a word, or has found the word or an approximation of it (Richards, 2005).

7.2. How to help learners develop their listening skills?

7.2.1. Focusing Listening

Listening is conceived as a hard job, but we can make it easier by applying what we know about activating prior knowledge, helping students organize their learning by thinking about their purpose for listening (Brown, 1952).

Listening with a purpose

- Encourage learners to think about why they are listening and exactly what information they are listening for.
- Start by training learners to listen for the gist (general meaning) and not to worry about details. For example, if we are listening to a story or an anecdote, we are mainly interested in the sequence of events: what happens first, what next, and so on. If the speaker makes digressions or includes unimportant details, we learn to ignore this and focus on overall meaning.

Listening for gist

- You can help learners to listen for gist by setting a question or task which you give to learners before they listen so that they know what information they are listening for.

  For example, in listening and matching pictures to events in the story, teacher would need to give learners the pictures to look at before hearing the text.

Listening for specific details

- Our learners need to learn how to listen for specific details by listen for specific information and ignore the rest of what it is said.
- Listen with a clear purpose in mind means that learners develop the ability to filter out everything they don't need to know.
- Teacher can give tasks that direct learners to listen for a specific piece of information.

  For example, we listen to which platform the train is leaving from or whether it is going to rain in our area tomorrow.

7.2.2. Dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary

One problem students might face is when they don't understand the meaning of what is said and so are unable to tell whether the information is important or not. This is because the vocabulary or the topic is unfamiliar. Teacher can help learners by:

Activating background knowledge

It can be useful to introduce the topic and related vocabulary before doing a listening activity. For example, if they are going to listen to something related to a country's political system, it would be useful to check whether they know who the prime minister or president is, how many parties there are, which party is currently in power, and so on.

Predicting

It helps learners if they think about the topic and try to predict what the speaker might say. In this sense, learners will have questions in mind when they come to listen and this will help them focus their listening.

Pre-teaching vocabulary

Teachers teach some key words before they listen. You don't have to teach all the new words, just those which are essential for understanding the main meaning.

Guessing meaning

In everyday life, people sometimes try to guess the meaning of a word they do not understand. For example, if a speaker says:

> "My parents and I are quite different. I always do things immediately, but he always procrastinates". Learners might be able to guess what 'procrastinate' means by deducing it means the opposite of 'do things immediately".

Making sense of connected speech

Learners can also have trouble understanding because language is familiar in its written form, sounds unfamiliar in speech. Therefore, it is good idea to choose a small section of the listening text to work on in detail to practice subskills in this way.

Identifying linked words

Identifying words in a stream of speech is an important sub-skill. Learners can practice this by activities like gap fill dictations or listen and count how many words.

Identifying fillers

It is important for learners to know what little noises like um and er sound like, and be able to recognize them as fillers, not as words with meaning. Teacher can do this with recognition activities such as asking learners to raise their hands when they hear the fillers in a sentence.

Active listening

When we are listening to someone during a conversation, we sometimes ask the speakers to repeat, explain, or slow down. We also use phrases like Do you mean …? And is Is that …?, and so on. These are useful phrases for learners to know and can help them to find their way when listening as well as to ask for clarification in their own conversations.

7.3. The stages of listening lesson

Before

- Lead-in:

- Engage learner's interest, introduce the topic and context, activate learners' background knowledge, help learners to predict what the speakers might say, and introduce some key words and expressions.

- Language focus

- Teachers introduce some key vocabulary to learners.

During

- Tasks

- Teachers repeat listening for several times with a series of listening tasks (gist and detail)
- Teachers focus on sub-skill such as guessing meaning, identifying words in connected speech, etc.)
- Teachers check comprehension after each task and be ready to explain things that learners did not understand.

After

- Language focus

- Teachers choose to focus on some of language in the text, such as new vocabulary, expressions, or a particular structure or function.

- Transfer

- Teachers use listening and the language work saw the basis for work in a different skill, for example, speaking or writing.

7.4. Selecting listening texts?

Texts can be selected on the basis of interest, relevance, and level. In general, the listening text should be slightly above what can be easily understood by your learners. There is little value in learners listening to texts that they can understand immediately. A more difficult listening text can be balanced with a relatively easy listening task, or vice versa. Therefore, learners should have opportunity to listen to a wide variety of texts such as the followings.

Different text types

- Listening should cover a range of different types of text, for example, conversation, announcements, talks, and stories.

Different situations

- Listening text should cover a wide variety of different situations, for example, at a station, asking directions, telephone conversations, panel discussions, and so on.

Levels of formality

- There should be a range from formal to informal register, for example, a formal speech or a conversation between friends.

One-and two-way listening

- One way listening, for example, radio, television, or airport announcements; while two way listening, for example, in conversations and discussions.

Different accents

- Consider which varieties and accents your learners are more likely to encounter, and try to use listening texts which reflect this diversity.

Different sources

- If possible, learners should hear both tapes and teacher talk. Taped material will give learners exposure to a wide range of accents and speaker. Whereas, conversation between you and your learners, or you telling them a story or anecdote from your own life, is in many ways more life-like than a taped conversation, since your learners can take part in and shape the conversation and you can react and respond to their feedback, as in real life.

7.5. Sample of lessons: Focus on listening

- Type of text: Answer phone messages
- Lead-in: Using pictures to teach key vocabulary and to predict content
- Language focus: Key vocabulary in lead-in
- Task: Listen and complete (a diary)/ listen and answer
- Sub-skill: Recognizing fillers
- Language focus: Would like to …… for invitations
- Transfer: Speaking game: invitations

Lesson 8: Describing Learners

Learner characteristics

What are learner characteristics?

Learner characteristics are differences between learners which influence their attitude to learning a language and how they learn it. These differences influence how they respond to different teaching styles and approaches in the classroom, and how successful they are at learning a language. The differences include a learner's motivation, personality, language level, learning style learning strategies, age and past language learning experience. and approaches in the classroom.

Keys concepts

Can you think of how the ways in which you like to learn, how you have learnt in the past and your age might influence how you prefer to learn, a language?

Learner styles

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

visual	The learner learns best through seeing
auditory	The learner learns best through hearing
kinesthetic	The learner learns best through using the body
group	The learner learns best through working with others
individual	The learner learns best through working alone
reflective	The learner learns best when given time to consider choices
impulsive	The learner learns best when able to respond immediately

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

Learning strategies

Learning strategies are the ways chose and used by learners to learn language. They include ways to help ourselves identify what we need to earn, process new language and work with other people.

Using the right at the right time can help us learn the language better and help to make us more independent or Autonomous learners. Some examples of learning strategies are:

- Repeating new words in your head until you remember them
- Experimenting/ taking risks by using just learnt language in conversations
- Guessing the meaning of unknown words
- Asking the teacher or others to say what they think about your use of language
- Deciding to use the fording language as much as possible by talking to tourists
- Asking a speaker to repeat what they have said
- Deciding what area of vocabulary, you need to learn and then learning it
- Thinking about hoe to remember all the new words you meet in each lesson and then deciding to write each new one in a separate card
- **Paraphrasing** (using other language to say what you want to say).

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

Maturity

Maturity involves becoming group up physically, mentally and emotionally. Children, teenagers and adults have different learning characteristics and therefore learn in different ways. Here are some of the main differences in maturity that influence language learning:

Children	**Teenagers**	**Adults**
Need to move	Starting to keep still for longer periods but still need to move	Able to keep still for longer periods
Can concentrate for shorter periods	…… ……	…… ……
Learn through experience	Beginning to learn in abstract ways, i.e. through thinking, as well as experiencing	…… ……
Are not very able to control and plan their own behavior	…… ……	Usually able to control and plan their own behavior
…… ……	May worry about what others think of them	…… ……
Are not aware of themselves and/or their actions	…… ……	…… ……
…… ……	Pay attention to meaning and increasingly to form	…… ……
Have limited experience of life	…… ……	…… ……

Of course, every learner is different, so someone may not fit exactly into these descriptions. They are generalizations that each age group needs to be taught in different ways.

Past language learning experience

Teenage and adult learners may have learnt English before. They may be used to learning in a particular way and have definite ideas about how to learn best. For example, an adult may have learnt English at school through learning lots of grammar and may have been successful in leaning this way. If he then finds himself in a class where the teaching is done just through asking learners to use language for communication he may not like learning in this new way. Another adult may have learnt by using translation at school and then come to a class in which translation is never used. She may or may not like this change. Teachers of adults (and sometimes teachers of teenagers) need to be aware of how their learners have learnt previously and how they want to learn now. The learners may welcome a change in method but they may want to learn in the same way as they learnt before. Teachers may need to discuss and explain their teaching to make the leaner more comfortable and confident in their learning.

Keys concepts and the language teaching classroom

- Learners are not all the same. They do not all learn in the same way.
- Some learner characteristics, such as past language learning experience and learning strategies, are more relevant to teaching teenagers and adults than to teaching children.
- We can find out what our learners' characteristics are by asking them, observing them, giving them questionnaires, asking at the end of a lesson whether they liked the activities done in class and why, and in what different ways they might like to work.
- Learner characteristics may not be fixed. We must not limit a learner by thinking they can only learn in a particular way.
- We can train learners to become aware of and use different learning strategies.
- It is not possible for the teacher of a big class to meet the learner characteristics of each learner all the time. Across a number of lessons teachers can try to vary hoe they teach so that they can match the learner characteristics of a range of learners.

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

Name	**Pablo**	**Pelin**	**Chen**
Nationality	Mexican	Turkish	Chinese
Age	8	11	19
Personality	Quiet, thinker	Sociable, risk-taking	Confident, practical
Learning style	Reflective	visual	Individual
Motivation for learning English	Lovers English cartoons Wants to travel to USA.	Not intersted in English. Likes history and biology.	Wants and needs English for his future teaching job.
Past experience of learning English	None	Four years at primary school learning songs, listening to stories and playing games	Fourteen years at school. Learnt lots of grammar.

2. **Look at these classroom activities and at the list of learning styles.**

Match the activities with the learning styles they are most suitable for.

a. Reading a text slowly and carefully before answering questions
b. Playing a team running game
c. Writing in groups
d. Discussing how to improve pronunciation after a speaking task
e. Listening to stories
f. Writing new vocabulary into an exercise book
g. Writing a composition on your own
h. A speaking fluency activity

Do you think all these activities are suitable for both adults' and young children's classes?

Refection

1. What is your learning style?
2. What strategies do you use/have you used to help you learn English?
3. What is your past experience of learning English?

Discovery activities

1. Observe two of your learners next week and work out which learning style(s) they have. Write a description of their learning style9s) and put it in your TKT portfolio.
2. Look at the questionnaires on learning styles on these websites:

http://www.necsu.edu/felder-public/ILSpage.html

http://www.vark-learn.com/english/page.asp?p=questionaire

Use them to discover your learning style. Also, are they- or any part of them-suitable for giving to your learners?

3. **Use the TKT Glossary to fine the meaning of these terms: attention span, learner training, self-access center.**

TKT practice task (see page 176 for answers)

Match what the learner does with the learning strategies listed a-d

You need to use some option more than once.

Learning strategies

a. Taking risks
b. Getting organized
c. Judging your own performance
d. Working with others

What the learner does

1. The learner collects new vocabulary on cards and then sorts the cards into topics.
2. The learner paraphrases to say something beyond his level of language.
3. …….
4. ……..…
5. …….
6. …….
7. …….
8. …….
9. …….
10. …….

Lesson 9: Mistakes and Feedback

Techniques for dealing with students' mistakes

A. Techniques for addressing student errors after the activity

1. Write samples of students' language on the board. Ask students if the language is correct or incorrect. If it is incorrect ask the students to correct the language. If it is correct point out what is good about it. If the student used a word that was taught recently this is a good opportunity for the class to review it.

2. Write samples of students' language you hear on strips of paper. Redistribute the strips to different groups. Ask each group to decide if the language is correct or incorrect--monitor to be sure the students know. Have each group present the language on the strips to the class and why it is correct or incorrect.

B. Other techniques used for managing students' mistakes- some of these may be used either on the spot or later in the stage*

3. Reformulation- the teacher repeats what the student said and corrects the mistake.

S: I go to the beach yesterday.

T: You went to the beach. Was it fun?

4. Echoing- the teacher repeats what the student said with the error. The teacher may highlight the error by using stress or intonation. Note that using stress and intonation is not always effective since they may have different functions in students' first languages.

S: I go to the beach yesterday.

T: You **go** to the beach yesterday? (T stresses 'go' and uses rising intonation)

5. Repeat the sentence up to the error

S: While I was shop I saw my friend.

T: While I was…

S: While I was shopping.

6. Finger correction- the teacher uses his/her fingers to show something about the students' error, e.g., word order, a missing word, an extra word, a wrong word, words that sound more natural as contractions.

S: I think it good.

T: I think it ___ good. (T points to one finger for each word, then holds the 4th finger to indicate a missing word)

7. Indicate the area of the error- the teacher may say things like tense, pronunciation, wrong word, to tell students the area of the mistake.

S: We are live there for 3 years.

T: Tense. You are talking about a period of time that began in the past.

S: We have lived here for 3 years.

8. Give other examples of the correct form- the teacher gives other examples of the correct form to help the student realize his/her mistake.

S: She eat noodles every morning.

T: She wakes up, she brushes her teeth, she drinks tea…

S: She eats noodles every morning.

9. React to literal meaning- the teacher reacts to what the student actually said, not what he/she intended to say.

S: I ate kitchen for dinner last night.

T: Really? The refrigerator, the oven, the whole kitchen?

S: Oh, I mean chicken.

10. Using timelines- the teacher can draw a timeline to help students better understand mistakes related to tense and aspect.

11. Using gestures- the teacher can gesture with the hand to indicate the tense. E.g., pointing over the shoulder to indicate the past.

12. Using concept checking questions- the teacher asks questions about the use of vocabulary or grammar so that the student understands his/her mistake.

S: Last year I meeting my friend in London.

T: Are you talking about the past, or the present?

S: Past. I was meeting…

T: Are you talking about one point in time or a continuous action?

S: One point. Ahh, Last year I met my friend in London.

T: Yes. Good.

Effectively Dealing with Students' Oral Mistakes in the ESOL Classroom

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*Some of these techniques and examples come from a handout by Bill Harris.

Lesson 10: Classroom Language

A. Classroom Language: The beginning of the lesson

1. Good morning

- Good morning, everybody.
- Good afternoon, everybody.
- Hello, everyone.
- Hello there, Vuthy.

2. How are you?

- How are you today?
- How are you getting on, everyone?
- How's life?
- ……?
- …….. ?

3. Introductions

- My name is Mr/Mrs/Ms Kim. I'm your new English teacher.
- …….
- …….

4. Time to begin

- Let's begin our lesson now.
- Is everybody ready to start?
- I hope you are all ready for your English lesson.
- ……...
- ……..….

5. Waiting to start

- I'm waiting for you to be quiet.
- We won't start until everyone is quiet.
- …….
- ……..

6. Put your things away

- Close your books.
- Put your books away.
- …….

7. Register

- Who is absent today? …….?
- Who isn't here today? ……..…….?
- What's the matter with Jim today?

8. Late

- Where have you been? …….?
- We started ten minutes ago. What have you been doing? …….?
- ……..

B. Classroom Language: Simple instructions

1. Here are some common instructions which the class can easily understand:

- Come in. …….
- Go out. ……..
- Stand up. …….….
- Sit down. …….…….
- Come to the front of the class.
- Stand by your desks.

2. A number of instructions can be used at the beginning of a session:

- Pay attention, everybody. …….
- You need pencils/rulers. …….
- We'll learn how to … …….
- Are you ready? …….
- Open your books at page… ……..
- Turn to page … …….?
- Look at activity five. …….

3. A number of instructions can be used at the end of a session:

- It's time to finish. …….?
- Have you finished? ……..
- Let's stop now. …….
- Stop now. …….
- Let's check the answers. …….

4. Instructions can also be sequenced:

- First
- Next
- After that
- ……
- ……

5. Comprehension language:

- Are you ready? ……?
- Are you with me? ……..
- Are you OK? ……..
- OK so far? ……..
- Do you get it? ……..
- Do you understand? ……?
- Do you follow me? ……?

B. Classroom Language: The end of the lesson

1. Time to stop

- It's almost time to stop. ……..
- I'm afraid it's time to finish now. ……..
- We'll have to stop here.

2. Not time to stop

- The bell hasn't gone yet. ……..
- There are still two minutes to go. ……..
- We still have a couple of minutes left. ……..
- The lesson doesn't finish till five past. ……..

3. Wait a minute

- Hang on a moment. ……..
- Just hold on a moment. ……..
- Stay where you are for a moment. ……..

4. Next time

- We'll do the rest of this chapter next time.
- We'll finish this exercise next lesson.
- ……..
- ……..

5. Homework

- This is your homework for tonight.
- Do exercise 10 on page 23 for your homework.
- Prepare the next chapter for Monday.
- ……..
- ……..
- ……..

6. Goodbye

- Goodbye, everyone.
- See you again next Wednesday.
- See you tomorrow afternoon.
- …….
- …….
- …….

7. Leaving the room

- Get into a queue.
- Form a queue and wait for the bell.
- Everybody outside!
- All of you get outside now!
- Hurry up and get out!
- …….
- …….
- …….
- …….
- …….

C. Classroom Language: Language of classroom management

Here are some phrases that can be used for classroom management:

Giving instructions

- Open your books at page 52.
- Come out and write it on the board.
- Listen to the tape, please.
- Get into groups of four.
- Finish off this song at home.
- Let's sing a song.
- Everybody, please.
- All together now.
- The whole class, please.
- …….
- …….?
- ……..
- …….?
- ……..
- …….?
- …….?
- …….?

Sequencing

- First of all, today, …
- Right. Now we will go on to the next exercise.
- Have you finished?
- For the last thing today, let's …
- Whose turn is it to read?
- Which question are you on?
- Next one, please.
- Who hasn't answered yet?

- …….
- …….
- ……..
- ……..
- ……..
- …….?
- …….?
- …….?

Supervision

- Look this way.
- Stop talking.
- Listen to what … is saying.

- …….
- …….

Asking questions

- Where's Bill?
- Is Bill in the kitchen?
- Tell me where Bill is.

- …….?
- …….?
- ……..?

Responding to questions

- Yes, that's right,
- Fine.

- …….
- …….?

Metalanguage

- What's the Spanish for "doll"?
- Explain it in your own words.
- It's spelt with a capital "J".

- …….?
- …….
- …….

Reference

- After they left the USA, the Beatles …
- The church was started in the last century.
- This is a picture of a typically English castle.

- ……
- ……
- ……
- ……

Affective attitudes

- That's interesting!
- That really is very kind of you.
- …….
- …….

Social ritual

- Good morning.
- Cheerio now.
- God bless!
- Have a nice weekend.
- …….
- …….
- …….

D. Classroom Language: The language of error correction

Here are some phrases that can be used when giving feedback to students:

• Very good.	• ……	• ……..…
• That's very good.	• ……	• ……..…
• Well done.	• ……	• ……..…
• Very fine.	• ……	• ……..…
• That's nice.	• ……	• ……..…
• I like that.	• ……	• ……..…
• Marvelous!	• ……	• ……..…
• You did a great job.	• ……	• ……..…
• Magnificent!	• ……	• ……..…
• Terrific!	• ……	• ……..…
• Wow!	• ……	• ……..…
• Jolly good!	• ……	• ……..…
• Great stuff!	• ……	• ……..…
• Fantastic!	• ……	• ……..…
• Right!	• ……	• ……..…
• Yes!	• ……	• ……..…
• Fine.	• ……	• ……..…

E. Classroom Language: The language of spontaneous situations

If we use English in spontaneous situations:

- We relate the target language to the learner's immediate environment.
- We take advantage of spontaneous situations to use the target language.
- We exploit contexts which are not directly linked to the syllabus (language in use).

Here are some common situations in which spontaneous English can be used:

- Happy birthday!
- Many returns (of the day).
- "" has his/her 12th birthday today.
- "" is eleven today. Let's sing "Happy Birthday".
- Best of luck.
- Good luck.
- I hope you pass.
- Congratulations!
- Well done!
- Who's not here today?
- Who isn't here?
- What's wrong with … today?
- I'm sorry (about that).
- Sorry, that was my fault.
- I'm terribly sorry.
- Excuse me.
- Could I get past please?
- You're blocking the way.
- I can't get past you.
- Get out of the way, please

https://www.eslbuzz.com/classroom-language-for-teachers-and-students-of-english/#Classroom_Language_for_English_Students

- ……..…
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Lesson 11: Grouping Students

What does 'grouping learners' mean?

There are different ways in which we can organize our learners in the classroom. For example, learners can work on their own, as a whole class, in pairs, in teams, in groups. Organizing learners into different working patterns is what we mean by 'grouping learners.

Key concepts

What should we consider when grouping learners?

When planning our lessons, we decide which way of grouping learners or interaction. Patterns to use. The interaction patterns we choose depend on the learners and their learning styles, our own teaching style(s) and preferences, the teaching approach, the learning context, the type of activity, the aim or learning purpose of the activity and the stage in the lesson. There are many different interaction patterns to choose from, e.g. whole class (the teacher leads the class and the learners focus on the teacher), individuals, open pairs (two learners do a pair work activity in front of the class), closed pairs (learners all do an activity at the same time working with a partner), groups, teams, mingles. Very often, the activity itself suggests a particular interaction pattern.

Here are some examples:

Activity	***Interaction pattern***	***Reason for using interaction pattern***
Brainstorming	1. Groups or pairs: students working with other students. 2. Students to the teacher (feedback).	Reviews and shares students' knowledge of vocabulary and/or structure and the topic or context; develops learning strategies; energizes the students and gets them all involved.
……	1. Whole class: teacher to the students. 2. Student to the teacher.	Reviews students' understanding of vocabulary, gives a change of pace; gives the teacher feedback; energizes.
Reading and filling in a chart	1. Individuals (students complete the charts on their own). 2. Pair work: student to student. 3. Open pairs (checking answers). Student to student with the teacher facilitating	Calms students down, allows students to practice scanning in their own time; enables students to check their work. together to give confidence before the class check.
……	1. Mingling activity: students move around the classroom asking questions of other students. 2. Groups or pairs (students compare and discuss their answers). 3. Teacher asks different students in the class what they found out (feedback).	Gives students practice in all four skills and in managing their learning; gives opportunities for large amounts of practice; gives a change of pace; develops learner autonomy; every student in the class is active and involved.

Appropriate learner groupings have a positive effect on class or group dynamics (the relationships between the learners in the class or group) and on the teacher's ability to successfully manage the class and facilitate learning. Whole-class activities, such as mingles, enable all the students to practice the language at the same time. These activities are good for increasing confidence, especially amongst shy or weaker learners. Individual activities give students a chance to work at their own pace and to focus and organize their thoughts. Pair and group activities provide students with opportunities for developing longer turns and fluency through interaction. They also help with confidence building and give students opportunities for practice in a nonthreatening environment.

On the other hand, poorly chosen groupings can result in problems in the classroom. Here are a few examples of classroom problems with possible reasons for them:

Classroom problems	**Some possible reasons**
Learners misbehave, e.g. they use their mother tongue, become noisy, don't do the activity.	Groups are too big; talkative learners are grouped with other talkative learners; friends are grouped with friends.
Learners are bored.	…….. ……...
Learners are very teacher-dependent.	……... ……
One or more learners dominate (has/have a strong influence on what happens / other learners get less chance to participate actively).	…….. ……... ……
One or more learners don't want to join in or participate.	…….. ……...
Some learners have nothing to do because they have finished the activity more quickly than others.	…….. ……...
Some learners are frustrated because they do not have time to finish the activity.	……... ……... ……..
Teachers are unable to monitor learners and learning successfully.	…….. ……... ……

You can see from the table how much learner groupings can affect what happens in the classroom. Overall, it's important to have a balance and variety of learner groupings in any one lesson.

Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

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

- It is useful to include a variety of interaction patterns in a lesson to keep the students interested in and motivated and to give them different kinds of practice.
- Young learners do not have such fixed learning styles as adults and it is an important aspect of their development for teachers to introduce them to a range of learner groupings.
- All classes are mixed ability: students are at different points in their language learning, have different learning strengths and different intelligences.
- When grouping students in young leaner classes, it is important to consider their cognitive and physical development. Young leaners of the same age may not be at the same point in these aspects of development.
- Most of the time learners work well together in different groupings, but sometimes individual learner characteristics mean that some learners find it difficult to work together, e.g. one learner is shy and another is quite dominant.
- With a class of between 20 and 30 learners, we can manage a range of interaction patterns quite easily. With classes of more than 30 learners, interaction patterns such as pairs, groups, mingles, teams are possible, but need more careful planning.
- Gradual introduction of pair and group work is important when learners are used to working as a whole class. It is useful to start by doing short, quite structured pair work activities and gradually introduce longer and more varied groupings.
- Activities do not always have to be done in the same learner groupings. Discussion activities can be done in teams rather than in groups or as a whole class, and role-plays in groups rather than pairs.
- Learners can be absent from class. It is frustrating when we plan groups for an activity and one or more of the learners are absent. So it's important to consider how we will manage, for example, if the predicted class of 20 (5 groups of 4) is a class of 18 on the day.
- Sometimes a student arrives late for class after we have organized the groupings for the activity. You can deal with this by putting the student in a group and have the group explain quickly to him or her what they are doing.

FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITY (See page 243 for answers)

Here is a lesson plan from a methodology book for primary learners.

Study the lesson plan and decide on appropriate learner groupings for each stage. What aspects will you have to consider when grouping the learners?

Time	**Teacher's activity**	**Pupils' activity**
5-10 minutes	1. Warmer: brief revision of colors.	Pupils stand in lines behind flags of different colors. The teacher says a color. Pupils behind the flag of that color put up their hands.
10 minutes	2. Bring in a goldfish or a picture of a fish to introduce the topic to pupils. Discuss the fish - what it looks like, its color, its parts. Check who has a fish at home.	Pupils gather round the tank and say what they know about fish. They tell each other something about their own fish.
	3. Tell pupils you are going to tell them a story. Pupils predict what the story will be. Get feedback from the pupils.	Pupils talk together to try to guess what will be in the story.
10 minutes	4. Explain the activity, i.e. pupils have to color their fish as the story requests. Give out colors and photocopies of a fish drawing.	Group monitors give out crayons and blank sheets.
5 minutes	5. Tell the first part of the story with actions and pictures. Continue the story with instructions for coloring.	Pupils color in the fish drawings, following instructions.
5 minutes	6. Get the pupils to compare drawings.	Pupils compare drawings.
	7. Elicit from different learners the colors of the little fish. Use sentence prompts, e.g. His face is ...	Pupils talk about the colors of the fish to the whole class, e.g. His face is ...
5 minutes	8 Ask pupils what they thought about the story, in Li if necessary. Ask whether the big fish was right not to give the little fish color for his lips.	Pupils give their opinions to the class.

(Adapted from Children Learning English by Jayne Moon, Macmillan 2000)

See Unit 13 for more information on learning styles and other learner characteristics.

REFLECTION

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

1. My classes are only 45 minutes long, and it takes time to arrange students into different groupings for different activities. I think it's a waste of time.
2. When my students work in pairs and groups, the classroom becomes a noisy place. Other teachers comment on it in the staffroom. It makes me feel as if I'm not doing a good job.
3. I teach groups of business people and they prefer working on their own. I'm not sure if I should include other learner groupings or not.

Discovery Activities

Try out some learner groupings that you haven't tried before and write up the results in your Teacher Portfolio.

1. You will find some useful information on grouping young learners in Chapters 7 and 8 of Children Learning English by Jayne Moon, Macmillan 2000.
2. For more information on practical aspects of grouping learners and on interaction patterns, look at Module 16 of A Course in Language Teaching by Penny Ur, Cambridge University Press 1996.

TKT practice task 31 (See page 245 for answers)

For questions 1-7, match the teaching strategies with the problems with group or pair work listed A, B and C.

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

Problems with group or pair work

A. Some students dominate.

B. Some students always finish first and get bored.

C. Some students use too much L1.

Teaching strategies

1. Plan short extension activities and have them ready to hand out to students.
2. Plan learner groupings carefully before the lesson so that all learners can take part.
3. Make sure students know the key expressions to use in the activities.3
4. Demonstrate activities to provide students with models of language they need.
5. Make sure that activities are differentiated so that some students are challenged more.
6. Be ready to change learner groupings if some students are stopping others from taking part.
7. Make one student in each group responsible for monitoring language use.

Lesson 12: The Nature of Language Learning Activities

Learning: Meaning, Nature, Types and Theories of Learning!

Meaning and Nature

Learning is a key process in human behavior. All living is learning. If we compare the simple, crude ways in which a child feels and behaves, with the complex modes of adult behavior, his skills, habits, thought, sentiments and the like- we will know what difference learning has made to the individual.

The individual is constantly interacting with and influenced by the environment. This experience makes him to change or modify his behavior in order to deal effectively with it. Therefore, learning is a change in behavior, influenced by previous behavior. As stated above the skills, knowledge, habits, attitudes, interests and other personality characteristics are all the result of learning.

Learning is defined as "any relatively permanent change in behavior that occurs as a result of practice and experience". This definition has three important elements.

a. Learning is a change in behavior—better or worse.

b. It is a change that takes place through practice or experience, but changes due to growth or maturation are not learning.

c. This change in behavior must be relatively permanent, and it must last a fairly long time.

All learning involves activities. These activities involve either physical or mental activities. They may be simple mental activities or complex, involving various muscles, bones, etc. So also, the mental activities may be very simple involving one or two activities of mind or complex which involve higher mental activities.

What activities are learned by the individual refer to types of learning. For example, habits, skills, facts, etc. There are different types of learning. Some of the important and common learning activities are explained here.

Types of Learning

1. Motor learning

Most of our activities in our day-to-days life refer to motor activities. The individual has to learn them in order to maintain his regular life, for example walking, running, skating, driving, climbing, etc. All these activities involve the muscular coordination.

2. Verbal learning:

This type of learning involves the language we speak, the communication devices we use. Signs, pictures, symbols, words, figures, sounds, etc, are the tools used in such activities. We use words for communication.

3. Concept learning

It is the form of learning which requires higher order mental processes like thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc. we learn different concepts from childhood. For example, when we see a dog and attach the term 'dog', we learn that the word dog refers to a particular animal. Concept learning involves two processes, via abstraction and generalization. This learning is very useful in recognizing, identifying things.

4. Discrimination learning

Learning to differentiate between stimuli and showing an appropriate response to these stimuli is called discrimination learning. Example, sound horns of different vehicles like bus, car, ambulance, etc.

5. Learning of principles

Individuals learn certain principles related to science, mathematics, grammar, etc. in order to manage their work effectively. These principles always show the relationship between two or more concepts. Example: formula, laws, associations, correlations, etc.

6. Problem solving

This is a higher order learning process. This learning requires the use of cognitive abilities-such as thinking, reasoning, observation, imagination, generalization, etc. This is very useful to overcome difficult problems encountered by the people.

7. Attitude learning

Attitude is a predisposition which determines and directs our behavior. We develop different attitudes from our childhood about the people, objects and everything we know. Our behavior may be positive or negative depending upon our attitudes. Example: attitudes of nurse towards her profession, patients, etc.

Theories of Learning

Psychologists have tried to explain how people learn and why they learn. They have conducted many experiments on animals and children and come to certain definite conclusions which explain the modes of learning.

These are called as theories of learning. In many books, these explanations are treated as kinds of learning. In a sense it is true. But the term learning is very comprehensive. It covers a

wide range of activities which cannot be explained within a limited framework. There are many theories explaining modes of learning. Important among them are:

Trial and Error Learning Theory

This theory was developed by an American psychologist EL Thorndike (1874-1949). He argues that learning takes place through trial-and-error method. According to him learning is a gradual process where the individual will make many attempts to learn. The essence of this theory is-as the trials increase, the errors decrease.

This is possible because of association formed between sense impressions and impulses to action. Such an association comes to be known as a 'bond' or a 'connection, because it is these bonds or connections which become strengthened or weakened in making and breaking of habits. According to this theory when an individual is placed in a new situation, he makes a number of random movements. Among them, those which are unsuccessful are eliminated and the successful ones are fixed.

These random movements are not eliminated at once. In the first attempt their number is very large, in the second attempt the number of errors diminishes and the range of activity becomes narrower. Gradually the individual learns to avoid unnecessary movements and reaches the goal.

Improvement takes place through repetition.

Thorndike studies the character of trial-and-error learning in a number of experiments on cats-using a box which he called 'puzzle box'. In one of the experiments a hungry cat was placed in the box and the door was closed which could be opened by pressing a Latch. A fish was placed outside the box in a plate.

The cat could see this fish. The cat was given 100 trials-ten in the morning and ten in each afternoon for five days. The cat was fed at the end of each experimental period and then was given nothing more to eat until after the next session. If, succeeded in opening the door in any trial by chance, he went to eat food (fish). A complete record was made of the cat's behavior during each trial.

In the beginning the cat made a number of random movements like biting, clawing, dashing, etc. gradually in subsequent trials the cat reduced the incorrect responses (errors), as it was in a position to manipulate the latch as soon as it was put in the box.

This experiment revealed that the random movements were decreased gradually, that is-as the trials increased the errors decreased. As the trials increased the solution to open the door (pressing the latch) was discovered and at the end, the cat could open the door with zero error. The time taken in each trial was eventually reduced.

Thorndike conducted many experiments with maze and puzzle box learning in which cats and rats were used. He has demonstrated that through numerous trials the animal learns much and gradually improves his effort.

We all learn many skills like swimming, cycling, riding, etc., through this method. Children learn to sit, stand, walk, and run by this method only. However, this method involves considerable waste of time and effort.

Learning by Conditioning

In literal sense, conditioning means 'getting used' to, or 'adjusted 'to a new situation, or a stimulus. It is a process of substituting the original stimulus by a new one and connecting the response with it. There are two types of conditioning theories:

1. Classical conditioning

This method of conditioning got its name from the fact that, it is a kind of learning situation that existed in the early classical experiments of Ivan P Pavlov (1849-1936), Russian physiologist who was awarded Nobel Prize, in 1904 for his experiments.

Pavlov designed an apparatus to measure the quantity of saliva produced in response to food (meat power). At the beginning of his experiment Pavlov noted that no saliva flowed when he rang the bell. He then trained the dog by sounding the bell, and shortly afterwards presenting food.

After the sound of the bell had been paired with food a few times, he tested the effects of the training by measuring the amount of saliva that flowed when he rang the bell and did not present food. He found that some saliva was produced in response to the sound of the bell alone. He then resumed the training-paired presentation of bell and food a few times and then tested again with the bell alone.

As the training continued, the amount of saliva on tests with the bell alone increased. Thus, after training the dog's mouth watered-salivated- whenever the bell was sounded. This is what was learned; it is the conditioned response.

This theory states that CS (bell) becomes a substitute after pairing with UCS (food) and acquires the capacity to elicit a response. It is because the association (conditioning) is formed between CS and UCS. This may be symbolically presented as follows:

UCS<——————————à UCR

(Food) (Saliva)

↓ (Conditioning)

CS<——————————-à CR

(Bell) (Saliva)

Sub-principles of Classical Conditioning

There are certain sub-principles which explain the different phenomena of this experiment.

a. Extinction and spontaneous recovery

Extinction means cessation of a response. The strength of the CS gradually decreases when it is presented alone and not followed by UCS for a number of trails. This process is called 'extinction'. In this experiment when only bell is presented without food for a number of trials, the dog stopped salivation gradually.

But when the CS (bell) was paired again with UCS (food) for some trials, the CR (salivation) recovered. This is known as 'spontaneous recovery'. In spontaneous recovery the dog required less number of trials than the first time, because the association between CS and UCS still existed in the brain of the animal.

b. Stimulus generalization:

A tendency to respond to a stimulus which is similar to original one is called stimulus generalization, the greater the similarity, the more the generalization. In this experiment, the dog started salivating even for the sound of a buzzer which was similar to bell.

c. Stimulus discrimination:

When there is much difference between two stimuli, the animal can discriminate between the two. For example, if the dog is conditioned to salivate at the signal of red light, it will not salivate when green light is presented.

d. Higher order conditioning:

If a 'light' is presented followed by bell and then by food for a number of trials, the dog will start salivating to light itself. This phenomenon is called higher order condition.

All these principles are very useful in behavior therapy. Conditioning is not confined only to the laboratory.

In our day-to- day's life we come across many instances of such learning. For example, a small child who does not know, touches a burning candle, it gives him a painful experience and withdraws his hand. Later this experience will make him withdraw from burning objects and avoid them all together.

Conditioning is used as psychotherapeutic technique very effectively in the treatment of abnormal behaviors such as phobias, alcoholism, enuresis, etc. These are called behavior modification techniques. Watson and others have conducted many experiments to prove the usefulness of this method.

2. Operant Conditioning:

This method of conditioning was developed by an American psychologist BF Skinner. This theory is also known as 'Instrumental conditioning', because the animals use certain operations or actions as instruments to find solution.

Skinner conducted his famous experiment by placing a hungry rat in a box called after his name 'Skinner box'. This box was containing a lever and a food tray in a corner of the box. It was so arranged, that the animal was free to move inside the box, but the pressing of the lever would get the animal a pallet of food in the tray as reinforcement.

Arrangement was also made to record the number of pressings of the lever by a mechanical device. It was found in the beginning that the rat pressed the lever occasionally and used to get food as reinforcement for each pressing.

Gradually, as the animal learnt the pressing of lever would give some food, it repeated the responses very rapidly. This rapid increase in pressing the lever is the indication of the animal conditioned to get food.

In day-to-day's life also, much learning takes place in animals as well as in human beings by this method. The reinforcement will be the motivating factor. It will make the organism to repeat its action.

It is on the basis of these experiments; Skinner made his famous statement "Rewarded behavior is repeated". Instrumental conditioning involves more activity by the learner than classical conditioning. Skinner conducted his experiments on different animals like pigeons, rats, etc.

Reinforcement which is the most important aspect of this experiment is divided into two types: positive reinforcement is used in reward training. Negative reinforcement-like punishment is used to stop undesired responses or behaviors. Operant conditioning is useful in shaping undesirable behavior and also in modification of behavior.

This is also useful in training of mentally retarded children to learn dressing, eating and toilet training skills, treatment of phobias, drug and alcohol addictions, and psychotherapy and to teach needed behavior in children. Further, these experiments have proved that intermittent reinforcement yields better results than continuous reinforcement.

Learning by Insight:

Many times, learning proceeds by the more efficient process of trying those methods which are seem to have a relation to solution. This is possible by understanding or perception of the situation.

Learning by perceiving the relationship in the scene and understanding the situation is insightful learning. This theory was developed by a psychologist known as Wolf gang Kohler, who belonged to Gestalt school of psychology.

According to Gestalt theory—perception of a situation as a 'whole' gives better understanding than sum total of its parts. That is, the situation viewed as a whole will definitely look different from that, viewed through its parts.

Kohler conducted his most famous experiments on chimpanzee- called Sultan. In the experiment, Sultan was put in a cage and a banana was placed at some distance outside the cage. Then the chimpanzee was given two sticks, so constructed that one stick could be fitted into another and make the stick longer.

The hungry Sultan first attempted with its hands to get the banana. Then he took one of the sticks and tried to pull the banana nearer, then tried with other stick, but failed to reach it. By this effort, the chimpanzee became tired and left the attempts to reach banana and started playing with sticks.

While playing so, one of the sticks got fitted into the other and the stick became lengthier. Immediately Sultan became elated and pulled the banana with this long stick and ate it. This 'sudden flash of idea' to reach food with longer stick was called as 'Insight', by Kohler.

He conducted many experiments to prove that learning takes place also by insight and not only by trial and error. He concluded that the occurrence of insight to find solution to a problem is possible by perception of the whole situation.

Kohler conducted many experiments on this line of learning to prove that, just trial and error method is not enough to find solution for many complex problems.

Trial and error or association through connectionism and conditioning may account for simple acquisition of knowledge, skills, interests, habits and other personality characteristics. But it is absolutely insufficient for solving complex problems.

It is here the method of insightful learning is very useful. Because it involves many higher mental processes such as thinking, reasoning, intelligence, etc.

Insight occurs, when the individual sees in a flash, the solution to his problem or difficulty. It is not blind or stupid learning. It is an intelligent way of learning. In many occasions people try to size up the situation, things and arrive at a conclusion. With experience man is able to solve problems better and sooner.

He exercises his discrimination ability in solving problems, and learning becomes a matter of insight rather than of trial and error. Archimedes' example of' Aha' experience (eureka) explained in creative thinking is the appropriate example for occurrence of insight.

Learning by Imitation:

It is the simplest method of learning. Many of our day-to-day's activities are learnt by imitating others. For example, the way we eat, drink, walk, talk, dress, etc, are all learnt by imitating others. We observe and watch what and how other people do certain activities and imitate them.

We observe the demonstrations given by an expert, imitate his movements and learn them. By copying the behavior of others, people avoid waste of time and effort of trial and error method of learning. For example, a boy observes the way of holding a cricket bat, the movements of an expert player, imitates the same and learns.

Psychologists like Millar and Dollard have tried to show that the tendency to imitate is itself a learned response and if reinforced, the individual will be more likely to continue to imitate.

Many people believe that imitation is a lower form type of learning. Still others argue that imitation can never lead to novel responses and there will be no chance to use individual's creativity or originality. But at the same time many educationists believe that only the imitative individual can learn better. Whatever may be the opinion it is quite obvious that we learn many things by imitation.

http://www.psychologydiscussion.net/learning/learning-meaning-nature-types-and-theories-of-learning/652

Lesson 13: Presenting New Language

Contents

1. Creating a context

- ✓ The new language should be presented in a context that makes its meaning clear.
- ✓ In a textbook this is done for you, for example by means of a reading or listening text, or a set of pictures.

a. Texts

- ✓ Some of the activities include a simple dialogue, or a description or a story.
- ✓ When you are using a text, try not to read it out – it will be more effective if you try to speak more naturally, partly from memory.
- ✓ Practice speaking the text on your own, using just the notes to help you, until you feel confident to use it with your class.

b. Pictures

- ✓ Pictures may be drawn on the board, on large pieces of paper (‘posters’), or on pieces of card (‘flashcards’).
- ✓ Make sure the flashcards are big enough to be seen at the back of the class, but not too big to be handled easily.

c. Realia

- ✓ Real object or ‘realia’ can be used as an alternative to drawings.

d. Mime

- ✓ Another way to create a context is to use mime.
- ✓ You don’t have to be an actor or actress.

e. Visualization

- ✓ This means asking learners to close their eyes and imagine a scene.
- ✓ It is important to tell the learners that they don’t have to respond to the questions in words, only in mental pictures. Talk slowly and gently, giving the learners plenty of time to think. Because everyone imagines a different scene, this way of creating a context gives the learners plenty of opportunity for real communication as they describe their scene.

2. **Focus on form**
   - ✓ After the meaning of the new language has been established, you will want to show the learners how it is formed.
3. **Checking comprehension**
   - ✓ In order to check that learners have understood how the new language is used and how it is formed, you need to give them an opportunity to use it for themselves. This allows you to check understanding and prepare the way for further practice. It also gives learners confidence in handling the new language.
   - ✓ Checking comprehension can be done in several ways. It is important to start with techniques that involve the whole class, for example:

     - 'Teacher- learner', where teacher asks questions and the learners answer, or the learners ask questions and the teacher answers.

     - 'Half-class-half-class', where half the class ask questions in chorus and the other half reply.

     - 'Open pairs', where two learners ask and answer while the rest listen.

   - ✓ This is the stage at which you can check if students are using the target language correctly and confidently before proceeding to practice in 'closed pair' (where the whole class is working in pairs at the same time', or small groups.

   - ✓ You can find out if there are any problems and can clear up misunderstandings.
4. **Pronunciation points**

a. Stress

There are various techniques for practicing stress patterns, both in individual words and in sentences, for example:

- Get the learners to clap out the rhythm before saying the word or sentence.
- Get the learners to tap out the rhythm on their desks as they repeat the sentence.
- Dictate the word or sentence and get the learners to mark the stress.

b. Intonation

The main patterns dealt with are:

- **Falling intonation in question-word questions.**

Example:

- Where's the station?

- **Rising intonation in yes/no questions**

Example:

- **Do you like fish?**

- **Falling intonation in answers and negative statements.**

Example:

- No, there isn't any sugar.

- **Falling intonation in commands.**

Example:

- You mustn't smoke.

There are various techniques for practicing intonation patterns.

Example:

- Show with hand movements how the voice rises or falls.
- Get the learners to make appropriate hand movements up or down as they repeat the sentences.
- Get the learners to mirror the rise or fall physically for example when they repeat a yes/no question get them to begin the question in a seated position and to stand up as their voice rises at the end of the sentence.
- Dictate the sentence and get the learners to mark the intonation arrows up or down.

Lesson 14: What's in a Word?

Knowing a Word

1. What are the different things that we know about words?

a. Meaning in the context given

b. Pronunciation

c. ……

d. ……

e. ……

f. ……

g. ……

h. ……

i. ……

j. ……

2. What's wrong in each sentence? What is lacking in the students' knowledge of the words used?

Match each sentence with one of the terms above.

1. I have two **childs**.
2. *This exercise is **inpossible**.*
3. A healthy diet makes people **skinnier** and better looking.
4. **Hey Judge**, why do you wear that wig?
5. A. 'Remember to bring some **/pi:nz**/ for the soup.'
6. Living in my area is very **convenience**.
7. Did you see that **minstrel** singing Bob Dylan tunes in the subway?
8. Some people have **suggested to spend** more on public transport.

3. Showing and Checking Meaning of Vocabulary

A. Match a technique to the example. There may be more than one technique for each example.

Negative Checking *Using Realia* *Using a visual* *Mime*

Eliciting more examples of, or related to, the item *Personalization* *Giving a situation*

Extending (getting Sts to complete a sentence) Scales Translation Definition

a. Disappointed – T "...so when I was a child and I opened this present, and it wasn't the toy I wanted, how did I feel?
b. Knife- T "Is this a knife?" (T pointing to a picture of a fork drawn on the board)
c. Fridge – T "What do we put in a fridge?"
d. Bracelet – T "Put up your hand if you're wearing a bracelet"
e. Hardly ever – "Where does hardly ever go on this scale?" (T pointing to a scale with always, sometimes and never marked)
f. Soap Opera- T "What are the most popular soap operas in Vietnam?"
g. Insomniac- T "Fred is an insomniac so he ……." S " He doesn't sleep well"

B. With your partner, discuss the technique/s you could use to show or check the meaning of these words.

Cigarette Lighter To get rid of something Furniture

Plump Mortgage Warm To fry

4. Vocabulary Techniques and Activities

a. Ideas for presenting new words

-	Realia	bring in an example of the object
-	Visuals	pictures, flashcards, drawings on w/b
-	Context/situation	The road is wet. You were driving very fast and you brake suddenly. The car will skid.
-	Mime, gesture	do the action
-	Definition	It's the shop where you buy the meat (Butcher's)
-	Dictionaries	SS research & present to the class
-	Listening text	SS analyse text for specified vocabulary
-	Reading text	SS analyse text for specified vocabulary
-	Synonyms	Give a word with a similar meaning
-	Antonyms	Give a word with an opposite meaning
-	Examples	Car, bus, lorry are all types of vehicles
-	Scale or Cline	Freezing – cold – chilly – mild – warm - hot

b. Ideas for checking understanding of new words

- Negative checking
- Match words to definitions
- Match words to pictures
- Select meaning from a multiple-choice list
- Group words into categories
- SS point to object or visual
- TPR (SS do the action or mime)

c. Ideas for practicing new words

- Match synonyms
- Roleplay
- Gap-fill sentences
- Bingo
- Pelmanism
- Find the odd one out
- Complete lexical sets
- Divide into stress groups
- Vocabulary dictation activities
- Putting words in a scale

d. Some Activities for recycling vocabulary

A good way to do a lot of these is to have students write the words on small slips of paper and use these for definition games, snap etc.

1. Backs to the board
2. Pictionary
3. Board race (Teacher gives topic. Students run and race)
4. Stop the bus /Categories
5. Board definitions (Teacher gives definition, Students run and write)
6. Define the word (small groups)
7. Pelmanism/Concentration

8. Word snap – (Students turn over 2 words, 1st Student to think of a way they are connected keeps them)

9. Word association circle

10. Noughts and crosses/Tic tac toe

11. Swat the word

12. Anagrams

13. Story building

14. What was your word? (Students chat about a topic and have to drop their word into the conversation)

15. Yes /No questions (Is it green? Can you eat it? Is it cheesy peas?)

16. Just a minute (2 teams. A has one minute to guess the words B defines and vice versa)

17. Mouth the word

18. True or false (Students make sentences about themselves using words given. Partner guesses true or false)

19. **'**Beep' sentences. (Read a sentence incorporating the word. Instead of saying the word, say 'beep'. Students guess the missing word. When students get the idea, give them words, so they can create their own sentences)

20. Circle story. (Give each student a word. You start and begin to tell a story and use the word you have on your card. When you have used your word, the next student continues the story until they can incorporate their own word)

Lesson 15: Teaching Word Parts and Word Chunks

Is vocabulary just words?

……

Why teaches chunks?

……

What are vocabulary "chunks"?

……

How can I teach them?

……

What kind of chunks are there?

……

Are there practice activities?

……

What are chunks?

"…a unit of memory organization, formed by bringing together a set of already formed chunks in memory and welding them together into a larger unit. (Newall, 124-125)

Two assumptions about chunking

1. People chunk at a constant rate: Every time they get more experience, they build additional chunks.

2. Performance on the task is faster, the more chunks that have been built that are relevant to the task. (Ellis, p. 126)

How to know if a phrase is a chunk…

- Institutionalization: degree to which a word is conventionalized in the language: does it reoccur as a unit?
- Fixedness: degree to which it is frozen as a sequence of words. Does it inflect in predictable ways? *They rocked the boat* not *they rocked the boats, on the other hand* not *on another hand* or *a different hand.*
- Non-compositionality: degree to which it cannot be interpreted on a word-by-word basis, but has a specialized unitary meaning: *kicks the bucket, of course*. (Moon, pp. 44-45)

Types of Chunks

- Compounds (words)-tape recorder, bookshelf
- Phrasal verbs: come, get, go, put, take off, in, on, down (polywords)
- Idioms: multi-word items which are not the sum of their parts—spill the beans, kick the bucket, have an ox to grind (Fixed collocations, Institutionalized utterances)
- Fixed phrases: of course, at least, in fact, by far, how do you do, excuse me (Polywords)
- Prefabs: lexical phrases—the thing/fact/point is, that reminds me, I'm a great believer in (Institutionalized utterances, Sentence Frames) (Moon, pp. 44-45)

Why Teach Chunks

1. Lexical phrases may be treated as wholes...[and] as such, they are stored in the lexicon as unanalyzed chunks like words. Being ready-made, they are easily retrieved.
2. Lexical phrases prove highly motivating by developing fluency at very early stages and thus promote a sense of achievement.
3. Lexical phrases are not dead ends. Some (not all) are analyzable by the rules of grammar. Therefore, they are dual in nature.
4. Lexical phrases may be used to maintain a conversation, change the topic, make a request, greet
5. They functional features of lexical phrases offer learners the possibility of expressing the same function in increasingly more difficult ways by expanding an initial formula.
6. Lexical phrases let speakers overcome memory and processing constraints since they are stored as wholes and are readily accessible. If I were you…
7. Easy to acquire:
   a. occur very frequently, so recycled.
   b. context-bound; have situational meaning. (Porto, pp. 22-23)

Using Listening Comprehension

- Many texts present chunks in listening practices
- Write the chunks on the board. Ss listen and either do a task to recognize them or just discuss what they mean.

Chunking

Rationale

A Chunking activity involves breaking down a difficult text into more manageable pieces and having students rewrite these "chunks" in their own words. You can use this strategy with challenging texts of any length. Chunking helps students identify key words and ideas, develops their ability to paraphrase, and makes it easier for them to organize and synthesize information.

Procedure

1. **Preparation**

   Chunking can be used with challenging texts of any length. A paragraph can be chunked into phrases and sentences, while a reading of several pages can be chunked into paragraphs or sections. It is often helpful to have students record information about each "chunk" in a graphic organizer, which you may want to prepare in advance.

2. **Review Reading Strategies**

   Before having students work on paraphrasing the text, it is helpful to go over specific decoding strategies. You may want to post the following "reading reminders" on the board:

   a. Circle words that are unfamiliar.
   b. Use context clues to help define these words.
   c. Look up the meaning of unknown words.
   d. Write synonyms for these new words in the text.
   e. Underline important places and people and identify them.
   f. Read aloud.
   g. Read multiple times.

3. **Chunk the Text**

   "Chunking the text" simply means breaking the text down into smaller parts. Sometimes teachers chunk the text in advance for students, especially if this is the first-time students have used this strategy. Other times, teachers ask students to chunk the text. Students can work on chunking texts with partners or on their own. Depending on students' reading level, the lengths of chunks can vary. A struggling reader may work with phrases rather than sentences. A stronger reader can often work with longer chunks.

4. **Students Paraphrase Meaning**

   Students should rewrite "chunks" in their own words. By the end of this activity, students should have a paraphrased version of the original text.

5. **Assess and Share**

   The paraphrased text can be used to evaluate students' understanding and reading ability. You can also have students compare their versions of the text. This step often leads to interesting discussions about interpretation – how people can often find different meaning in the same words.

Variations

1. Identify and Define Key Words: To help students move from reading the text to paraphrasing, ask them to first identify and define the key words found in that chunk. You can add a space on a graphic organizer for this step.

2. Create a Visual: To improve comprehension and retention of ideas, have students visually represent the selected chunk as a picture or symbol. They can create the symbol or image, or they can find one in a magazine or online.

3. Paragraph Shrinking: To help students clarify main ideas, ask them to summarize the meaning of a paragraph in ten words or less.

4. Identify Significance and Connections: After students summarize a portion of the text, ask them to respond to these ideas. Questions you might use to prompt their thinking include: What do these ideas remind you of? What questions do they raise? Why is this idea important? To whom?

5. Jigsaw Chunking: You can divide a longer text into sections and have small groups work on summarizing a paragraph or two each. Groups can share the meaning of their section with the rest of the class by using the Jigsaw strategy or by having small-group presentations. This variation works well with a text that has clearly divided parts, such as the Bill of Rights, because students need to be able to paraphrase their section without having read prior sections.

https://www.facinghistory.org/resource-library/teaching-strategies/chunking

Lesson 16: How to Teach Grammar from Rules

Deductive Approach

One of the biggest debates or challenges among the communicative language teaching community is the topic of grammar instruction. There are lots of questions and concerns around this. Should we teach grammar? Should we only provide examples of language structure through comprehensible input? What is the "right" way to teach or expose students to grammar structures in a second language? **Implici**t or **explicit** grammar instruction?

Explicit and Implicit Grammatical Knowledge

In the grammar learning process, there are two major processes that might happen, namely explicit and implicit grammatical knowledge. Explicit grammar knowledge "refers to a conscious knowledge of grammatical form and their meaning" (Purpura7,2004).

This knowledge helps the intake and the development of implicit language, and is used to monitor language output. Explicit knowledge is commonly accessed slowly through controlled processing although at some extent it can be automatized. DeKeyser 8 (1995) indicates that this 'explicit' grammatical instruction involves the explanation of rule or request to focus on grammatical feature. The instructions can happen both deductively, where the learners are taught rules and asked asked to apply them in practice; or inductively, where the learners are presented examples first then to generate rules and make generalizations. Widodo 9 (2006) puts an example of Ahmad, who knows the rules of past tense, can explain how present tense sentences look like (he has explicit grammatical knowledge about simple present tense). However, in speaking and writing, he (Ahmad) often makes mistakes, in spite he is able to explain deductively from present tense rules to the examples. On the other hand, implicit grammatical knowledge refers to "the knowledge of a language that is typically manifest in some form of naturally occurring language behavior such as conversation (Ellis 10, 2001b). In line with this, Brown 11(2007) "Implicit knowledge is involved conscious awareness and intention." This process is commonly unconscious and accesses quickly. Dekeyser (1995) posits that implicit grammatical instruction does not involve any explanation of rule presentation or a request to focus on form in the input. It occurs 'without intention to learn and without awareness of what has been learned." In short, implicit grammar is learned naturally without effort as toddlers through conversation and exposure to the language, explicit grammar is learned in the classroom when someone makes a conscious effort to learn a language.

The Difference between Explicit and Implicit Grammatical

Explicit grammatical knowledge	**Implicit grammatical knowledge**
- Conscious knowledge - …….. - …….. - …….. - …….. - …….. - …….. - …….. - ……..	- Unconscious/ subconscious knowledge - …….. - …….. - …….. - …….. - …….. - …….. - …….. - ……..

Let's make sure we have a solid understanding of the two approaches to language instruction.

- **Deductive** instruction is a "top-down" approach, meaning that the teacher starts with a grammar rule with specific examples, and the rule is learned through practice.
- **Inductive** instruction is a "bottom-up" approach, meaning that the teacher provides examples of the structure in context and students make observations, detect patterns, formulate hypothesis, and draw conclusions.

In teaching, there are many theoretical approaches that have been developed to promote the students' success in learning new information. In TESOL (Teaching English to Students of Other Languages), there are two main theoretical approaches for the presentation of new English grammar structures or functions to ESL/EFL students: inductive approach and deductive approach.

Teaching Grammar Using the Deductive Approach

A good example of deductive teaching is seen in the fields of science and engineering, whereby the instructor introduces the subject matter by lecturing on general principles, then gives students practice in their applications for homework (Prince et al, 2006). Similarly, in the language classroom, the teacher introduces a new grammar point, explains the rules, and then gives examples which the students then put into practice. For example, when teaching a new grammar concept, the teacher introduces the form on the whiteboard, teaches the rules related to its use, and then puts the students to work in order to practice the concept via different exercises (Bilash, 2009).

This approach to language instruction is the most teacher-centered (Bilash, 2009) however Thornbury (2002) advocates that this approach can be a good way for a teacher to get straight to

the grammar point, which can be a time-saver in the classroom. This approach also allows the teacher to deal with language points as they arise rather than having to anticipate them and prepare for them in advance. However, a drawback to using this approach is that it can be dull, over technical, and de-motivational (Raza, 2015). Adamson (2009) agrees in as much as it can be too mechanical and that it pays too little attention to meaning and can also fuel the belief that language learning is simply a case of learning the rules. Nevertheless, this approach can be a viable option for dealing with highly motivated students, teaching a particularly difficult concept, or for preparing students for written exams (Thornbury, 2002).

The deductive approach represents a more traditional style of teaching in that the grammatical structures or rules are dictated to the students first, a more effective and time saving way under certain circumstances, namely monolingual classes- (Rivers and Temperley 110). Thus, the students learn the rule and apply it only after they have been introduced to the rule. For example, if the structure to be presented is present perfect, the teacher would begin the lesson by saying, "Today we are going to learn how to use the present perfect structure". Then, the rules of the present perfect structure would be outlined and the students would complete exercises, in a number of ways, to practice using the structure. (Goner, Phillips, and Walters 135) In this approach, the teacher is the center of the class and is responsible for all of the presentation and explanation of the new material.

Deductive Approach

The deductive approach derives from deductive reasoning where the concept goes from general to specific. Rules, patterns, principles are presented first, then moves to the examples. Deductive approach is also known as rule-driven teaching. The most favorable method for this deductive teaching is Grammar Translation Method where the grammar instruction is commonly initiated by an explanation (basically in learners mother tongue) about the grammar points. This is followed by practice activities involving translation to/from the target language. This practice involves only reading and writing, and little attention to speaking and pronunciation.

For this method, a teacher is highly required to master both learners' mother tongue and the target language. Surely, this is inapplicable for multilingual classes. Some possible activities in deductive approach are:

a. rule-explanation
b. translation
c. doing worksheet
d. self-study grammar

Advantages and disadvantages of the deductive approach to teaching grammar

Advantages	- The deductive approach goes straight forwardly to the point and can, there, be time-saving. - A number of rule aspects (for example, form) can be more simply and clearly explained than elicited from examples. - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - ……
Disadvantages	- Beginning the lesson with a grammar presentation may be off-putting some learners especially younger ones. - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… -……..

Lesson 17: How to Teach Grammar from Examples

Teaching Grammar Using the Inductive Approach

The inductive learning approach is a constructivist view of learning which originated from Lev Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory. The theory emphasizes the concept of a socially mediated learning and development process utilizing the "zone of proximal development," whereby learning takes place via the learner making connections between existing knowledge and that which they gain through guidance from peer interaction or the teacher (Vygotsky, 1979). Additionally, according to Blyth (1997), this approach can aid novice teachers by putting the focus on the learning process rather than teaching.

According to Howard Community College (2012), the constructivists' approach to teaching grammar involves teaching it in context and not as a separate entity. It is taught using methods such as mini-lessons, grammar journals and peer group activities. This simply means that grammar is taught using the students' own work as models. These methods help students understand that evaluating grammar in their writing is a part of the revision process.

The inductive approach is especially useful for the development of critical thinking and fluency via a range of instructional methods including inquiry learning, problem-based learning, project-based learning, and discovery learning (Prince, 2006). Simply put, the teacher provides examples of the target grammar but it is the task of the learner to figure out the rules from these examples and it is the students' job to notice the differences and similarities. The teacher does not give the rules from the outset but does provide support during the discourse process in order to help the students notice the structures, constants, and differences in the examples (Bilash, 2009).

For adult learners in particular, this process respects maturity and intelligence as well as acknowledging the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition (Widodo, 2006). An analysis of the effectiveness of problem-based learning was published by Dochy (1992) suggesting that students may acquire more knowledge in the short term when taught conventionally but are likely to retain knowledge longer when taught with problem-based learning via inductive methods.

The inductive approach represents a different style of teaching where the new grammatical structures or rules are presented to the students in a real language context (Goner, Phillips, and Walters 135). The students learn the use of the structure through practice of the language in context, and later realize the rules from the practical examples. For example, if the structure to be presented is the comparative form, the teacher would begin the lesson by drawing a figure on the board and saying, "This is Jim. He is tall." Then, the teacher would draw another taller figure next to the first saying, "This is Bill. He is taller than Jim." The teacher would then provide many examples using students and items from the classroom, famous people, or anything within the

normal daily life of the students, to create an understanding of the use of the structure. The students repeat after the teacher, after each of the different examples, and eventually practice the structures meaningfully in groups or pairs. (Goner, Phillips, and Walters 135-136) With this approach, the teacher role is to provide meaningful contexts to encourage demonstration of the rule, while the students evolve the rules from the examples of its use and continued practice (Rivers and Temperley 110).

1. Walk from one side of the classroom to the other, and while you are walking, say two or three times to the class:
   - I am walking. I am walking. I am walking.
2. Select a student and tell him/her to walk across the room. Indicate that he must say the sentence as you did.
   - I am walking. I am walking. I am walking.
3. Tell him or her to walk across the room again. Indicate that he must be silent and you say to the class.
   - He / She is walking. He / She is walking. He / She is walking.

Study these 2 sets of sentences:

a. Chris has lived in Cape Town for ten years.
   Andrew has been learning to drive for six months.
b. Wendy has lived in Edinburg since 1995.
   David has been out of work since January.
   They are then invited to choose for or since to complete the following sentences:
   1. Anna has been married ……seven years.
   2. Jeff has been studying French …….1990.

This is fairly straightforward. The next three test items, however, challenge the learner to refine their initial hypotheses. Since the clues are not so easy to interpret:

3. Chris and Jim have been together ……a long time.
4. I have been living here …… last summer.
5. They have been going out together …… they met five weeks ago.

The Advantages and Disadvantages of Inductive Grammar Approach

Advantages	- Learners are trained to be familiar with the rule discovery, this could enhance learning autonomy and self-reliance. - Learners greater degree of cognitive depth is "exploited" - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - ……
Disadvantages	- The approach is time and energy-consuming as it leads learners to have the appropriate concept of the rule. - The concepts given implicitly may lead the learners to have the wrong concepts of the rule taught. - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - …… - ……

In both approaches the students practice and apply the use of the grammatical structure, yet, there are advantages and disadvantages to each in the EFL/ESL classroom (Rivers and Temperley 110). The deductive approach can be effective with students of a lower level, who are beginning to learn the basic structures of the language, or with students who are accustomed to a more traditional style of learning and expect grammatical presentations (Goner, Philips, and Walters 134). The deductive approach however, is less suitable for upper-level language students, for presenting grammatical structures that are complex in both form and meaning, and for classrooms that contain younger learners (Goner, Philips, and Walters 134). The advantages of the inductive approach are

that students can focus on the use of the language without being held back by grammatical terminology and rules that can inhibit fluency. The inductive approach also promotes increased student participation and practice of the target language in the classroom, in meaningful contexts. The use of the inductive approach has been noted for its success in EFL/ESL classrooms world-wide, but its disadvantage is that it is sometimes difficult for students who expect a more traditional style of teaching to induce the language rules from context and that it is more time consuming. Understanding the disadvantages and advantages of both approaches, may help the teacher to vary and organize the EFL/ESL lesson, in order to keep classes interesting and motivating for the students (Goner, Philips, and Walters 129).

Different Methods of Teaching Grammar

English grammar is notoriously difficult to learn for both native and second-language speakers. There are so many intricacies, obscure rules, and exceptions that it comes as no surprise that different generations of teachers have used various approaches to teaching grammar to train literate English writers. In the past, memorization-based techniques that relied on repetition slowly gave way to more creative methods. Today, we live in a society that prizes literacy and is willing to adapt to more effective methods to achieve the best results in teaching grammar.

Diagramming Sentences

One of the older forms of teaching grammar, diagramming sentences, first appeared in the 19th century. This method involves visually mapping the structures of and relationships between different aspects of a sentence. Especially helpful for visual learners, this method disappeared from modern teaching at least 30 years ago. Different forms of diagramming are used to visualize sentences, from the Reed-Kellogg System to dependency grammar, but all organize the functions of a sentence in a way that illustrates the grammatical relationships between words. More recently, diagramming sentences has had a small pop-culture resurgence in prints of famous opening sentences and websites that allow you to diagram to your heart's content.

Learning Through Writing

This method is often used in schools in the U.S. and Canada. Students are encouraged to explore language through creative writing and reading, picking up correct grammar usage along the way. If there are specific problems with certain grammatical rules, these are covered in a more structured lesson. An emphasis is now being placed upon language acquisition over language learning, as it has been observed that learning grammar by memorization does not work well and that students are better able to recognize and understand grammatical rules when lessons are more interactive (i.e., they have to apply these rules in their own writing). Repeated practice is also important and easily achieved through creative or personal writing exercises. This article, posted by *The Atlantic*, suggests that to better equip future adult writers, teachers in the 21st century

should consider dropping outdated grammar teaching techniques in early education and opt for learning through writing techniques.

Inductive Teaching

The inductive method of teaching grammar involves presenting several examples that illustrate a specific concept and expecting students to notice how the concept works from these examples. No explanation of the concept is given beforehand, and the expectation is that students learn to recognize the rules of grammar in a more natural way during their own reading and writing. Discovering grammar and visualizing how these rules work in a sentence allow for easier retention of the concept than if the students were given an explanation that was disconnected from examples of the concept. The main goal of the inductive teaching method is the retention of grammar concepts, with teachers using techniques that are known to work cognitively and make an impression on students' contextual memory.

Deductive Teaching

The deductive method of teaching grammar is an approach that focuses on instruction before practice. A teacher gives students an in-depth explanation of a grammatical concept before they encounter the same grammatical concept in their own writing. After the lesson, students are expected to practice what they have just been shown in a mechanical way, through worksheets and exercises. This type of teaching, though common, has many people—including teachers—rethinking such methods, as more post-secondary level students are revealing sub-par literacy skills in adulthood. As one former teacher states, deductive teaching methods drive many students away from writing because of the tediousness of rote learning and teacher-centered approaches.

Interactive Teaching

Another method of teaching grammar is to incorporate interactivity into lessons. Using games to teach grammar not only engages students but also helps them to remember what they've learned. This method allows teachers to tailor their lessons to the different learning styles of students. For instance, each student can be given a large flashcard with a word on it, and the students must physically arrange themselves into a proper sentence. Other games can include word puzzles or fun online quizzes.

Over the years, many methods have been developed for teaching grammar and have been built upon, abandoned, or combined, all with the same goal in mind—teaching students how to communicate effectively and understand how to use the English language. Because of the grammatical complexity of English, each method has its pros and cons. Some lessons are less likely to be remembered, while others may require more in-depth explanation and practice. Regardless of how grammar is taught, a well-rounded understanding of English grammar is the most important factor in improving the literacy of students.

Lesson 18: How to Teach Grammar through Texts

Teaching Grammar through texts

If learners are to achieve a functional command of a second language, they will need to be able to understand and produce not just isolated sentences, but whole texts in that language.

Language is context-sensitive; which is to say that an utterance becomes fully intelligible only when it is placed in its context.

Coursebook texts tend to be specially tailored for ease of understanding and so as to display specific features of grammar. This often gives them a slightly unreal air, as in this example:

(Contrasting Present Progressive – "Going to" Future)

<table>
<tr>
<td>  </td>
<td>This is Mr. West. He has a bag in his left hand. Where is he standing? He is standing at the door of his house.

What is Mr. West going to do? He is going to put his hand into his pocket. He is going to take a key out of his pocket. He is going to put the key into the lock.

(from Hornby, A.S. Oxford Progressive English Course, Oxford University Press, 1954)</td>
</tr>
</table>

Authentic texts or classroom texts?

Advocates of authentic texts argue that not only are such specially written EFL texts uninteresting - and therefore unmotivating - but they misrepresent the way the language is used in real-life contexts. On the other hand, the problems associated with authentic texts cannot be wished away, either, as any teacher who has attempted to use a dense newspaper article with low level students will have discovered. The linguistic load of unfamiliar vocabulary and syntactic complexity can make such texts impenetrable, and ultimately very demotivating.

A compromise position is to take authentic texts, and to simplify them in ways which retain their genuine flavor. This is the approach generally adopted by coursebook writers nowadays. Another alternative is to write classroom texts, but to make them more engaging than the example quoted above. In fact, with only the slightest change, the text about Mr. West could be made somewhat more attention-grabbing:

This is Mr. West. He has a bag in his left hand. Where is he standing? He is standing at the door of his house. What is Mr. West going to do? He is going to put his hand into his pocket. He is going to take a gun out of his pocket. He is going to point the gun at...

The **implications** of this context-sensitive view of language on grammar teaching are that:

- Grammar is best taught and practiced in context.
- This means using whole texts as contexts for grammar teaching.

Advantages of using texts:

- They provide co-textual information, allowing learners to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar grammatical items from the co-text.
- If the texts are authentic, they can show how the item is used in real communication.
- ……...……
- ……...….
- ……...……
- ……...……
- ……....

Disadvantages

- The difficulty of the text, especially an authentic one, may mean that some of the above advantages are lost.
- The alternative - to use simplified texts - may give a misleading impression as to how the language item is naturally used, again defeating the purpose of using texts.
- ……...……
- ……...….
- ……...……
- ……...……
- ……...

No single method of grammar presentation is going to be appropriate for all grammar items, nor for all learners, nor for all learning contexts. A lot will also depend on the kind of practice opportunities that the teacher provides. In the next chapter we will look at a range of practice types.

http://www2.vobs.at/ludescher/Grammar/teaching_grammar_through_texts.htm

Common Lesson Frameworks

The following is a basic guide that you can follow for lessons based on introducing new language (grammar, vocabulary, and functional language) or teaching receptive skills (listening and reading). Please remember that this is just a guide, and that other options are possible. Also, it is possible to add in or take away some stages below. For example, you could add in some pre-teaching of vocabulary before the *Reading for Main Ideas* activity in the *Teaching new language from a text* lesson, or you might decide not to pre-teach vocabulary in the *Teaching receptive skills* lesson. Finally, in order to make the frameworks clearer, separate feedback stages have not been included; but giving feedback is necessary in these lessons.

Teaching new language through a situational presentation (PPP)	**Teaching language from a text**	**Teaching receptive skills**
Lead in	Lead in	Lead in
Presentation of new language	Reading for Main Ideas	Pre-teach vocabulary
Controlled practice	Presentation of language	Set the scene
Free practice	Controlled practice	Reading for Main Ideas
	Free practice	Reading for Details
		If time, option 1 or option 2 1: Follow up with productive skills practice (S or W) 2: Follow up with language Work (vocab or grammar)

See sample lesson plans in Methodology Handbook

Lesson 19: How to Write Concept Questions

What are concept questions?

……
……
……
…….

How do we make concept questions?

To formulate effective questions, we need to keep in mind several key points:

1. **Concept questions need to cover every aspect of the meaning of the language item.**

   Example:

   - **Target item:** *You don't have to do your homework.*
     - Is it necessary to do your homework? no

   This question checks one aspect of the meaning, but is not enough to cover every aspect, and doesn't address the possible (and common) confusion with "mustn't". We need to add at least one more question to overcome this:

   - **Target item:** *You don't have to do your homework.*
     - Is it necessary to do your homework? No
     - Can you do your homework if you want to? Yes

   Here's another example:

   - ***Target Item:*** *an oven*
     - Can you cook food in it? Yes

   This question covers perhaps the most important aspect of the meaning of "an oven", but doesn't distinguish between "an oven" and "a microwave", "a saucepan", or anything else that you could conceivably cook food in. We would need to add some more questions to eliminate these other possibilities.

2. **Concept checking questions shouldn't use the target language.**

   To check understanding of past progressive used to interrupt another action in the past:

   - ***Target Item****: I was eating dinner when you called.*
     - Was I eating dinner before you called?

   The question attempts to address one of the aspects of the meaning (the action started before you called) but it uses the same language of which we are trying to check the understanding.

   So, we need to formulate our questions in another way:

- **Target Item:** *I was eating dinner when you called.*
    - Did I start eating my dinner before you called? Yes
    - Did I stop eating my dinner when you called? maybe

Verb forms like this lend themselves very well to having their understanding checked with timelines. If you are referring to a timeline on the board with the short "past simple" action already marked, you could reformulate your questions like this:

- When did I start eating dinner?
- When did I stop eating dinner?

3. **Concept questions should check the understanding of the language item, not of the situation.**

For example, when checking understanding of *mustn't*:

- ***Target Item:*** *You mustn't walk on the grass".*
    - Why mustn't I walk on the grass?

This question, quite apart from using the target language itself (see point 2), is checking understanding of the situation – the reasons why it is forbidden to walk on the grass – and not the meaning of *mustn't*. Instead, we need to ask:

- Is it ok if I walk on the grass? No
- Can I decide? No

4. **The questions shouldn't use language which is overly complicated or long-winded, or more complicated than the target language.**

Example:

- ***Target Item:*** *I had my nails done yesterday.*
    - Did I enlist the services of a beautician and put myself in his charge to undergo a manicure, or did I perform this beauty treatment myself?

This is, of course, an exaggerated example. The type of question, however, is a good one – it asks for a simple choice between two possibilities, and this brings us to point 5:

5. **Concept questions should, where possible, require a simple yes or no, or a choice between two possibilities.**

If you add shades of meaning, nuance and the possibility of debate to the answers, the likelihood of a successful check of understanding are reduced.

So, with the "nails" example, we can ask the same question like this:

- ***Target Item:*** *I had my nails done yesterday.*
    - Who did my nails? the beautician

Or, if you like:

- Who did my nails? The beautician or me? the beautician

You could even go further, and present the choice between two possibilities by contrasting the target language with the alternative:

- **Target ite**m: I had my nails done yesterday.
  - Who did my nails? the beautician
    "I did my nails last weekend".
    Who did my nails? me

Here are a few more examples:

- **Target item:** She's just come back from India.
  - Did she go to India? Yes
  - Did she go a long or short time ago? a short time ago
- **Target item:** If only I'd arrived yesterday.
  - Did I arrive yesterday? No
  - Do I feel good or bad? bad
- **Target item:** He's over the moon.
  - Is he happy or sad? Happy
  - Is he a little happy or very happy? very happy

Task:

Look at the Target Item below and write concept checking questions.

1. Have you ever been there?
2. I used to play high and seek a lot when I was young.
3. I will have finished the book by Friday.
4. He stopped to have a drink.
5. I am going to see him on Sunday.
6. I am meeting Cathy at 10:00 on Sunday.
   https://www.eslbase.com/tefl-a-z/concept-questions

Lesson 20: Teaching Pronunciation

Phonetics

Introduction to consonant and vowel sounds

Aims of session

- To better understand the how sounds are made
- To understand the articulation of consonants sounds
- To understand the articulation of vowel sounds
- To learn relevant terms
- To consider our attitudes towards accents and teaching pronunciation

First let's focus on some terms

- The vocal tract- the oral cavity (mouth), nasal cavity (passage that goes through to the nose) and pharynx. Tract means passageway; vocal is the adjective form of voice.
- Pharynx- the area of the throat between the larynx and the uvula.
- Larynx-the box-like structure located in the throat through which air passes during speech production.
- Vocal cords: are located in the larynx. When they are brought close together, but not tightly closed, they vibrate and produce voiced sounds; when they are pulled apart the more glottal space is created producing unvoiced sounds.
- Let's look at some diagrams to understand these terms and see the other parts of the speech mechanism. LSME, p21-22

Consonant sounds

What is a consonant?

Consonants: Manner of articulation

Manner of articulation means the way we produce a sound. Below are 6 manners of articulation:

- Plosives, fricatives, affricates, nasals, laterals, and approximants.
- All 24 consonant sounds can be put into one of these 6 groups.
- We will look at each group below.

Plosives

- A complete closure is made somewhere in the vocal tract.
- Air pressure increases behind the closure.
- Air is released explosively.
- To remember *plosive* think *explosive or explosion*, like a bomb!

Examples: /p/ and /t/

Fricatives

- Two vocal organs (i.e., 2 parts of the mouth or vocal tract) come close together.
- The air between the two organs makes a noise.
- To remember *fricative* think of the word *friction.*

Examples: /s/ and /f/

Affricates

- A complete closure is made somewhere in the mouth.
- Air pressure increases behind the closure, and is released more slowly than plosives.
- To remember *affricate*, think of a sound that is a combination of a *fricative* and a *plosive*.

Examples: /ʧ/ and /ʤ/

Nasals

- A closure is made somewhere in the mouth.
- The soft palate is lowered.
- Air does not go through the mouth; it goes through the nose.
- *Nasal* basically means *nose*.

Examples: /n/ and /ŋ/

Lateral

- A partial closure is made by the blade of the tongue against the alveolar ridge.
- Air goes out over the sides of the tongue.
- Note: *lateral* means *sideways*

Example: /l/

Approximants

- Vocal organs come near to each other.
- But they do not come so close that they make much friction (i.e., noise).
- Approximant means something that is near to something else.

Examples: /j/ and /r/

Let's review!

Place of articulation

- In addition to the *manner* of articulation, we need to know the *place* of articulation. In other words, we need to know if the lips, teeth, tongue, top of the mouth or vocal are used. We also need to know what part of the tongue is used, and where it touches the top of the mouth.
- Below are 8 places of articulation

Bilabial

- Close both lips together.
- *Bi* means 2, and *labial* means *lips.*

Examples: /b/ and /m/

Labial-dental

- The upper teeth touch the lower lip.
- *Labial means* lips, and *dental* means teeth.

Examples: /f/ and /v/

Dental

- The tongue tip is between the upper and lower teeth.
- *Dental* means teeth.

Examples: /θ/ and /ð/

Alveolar

- The blade of the tongue is used close to the alveolar ridge.
- The alveolar ridge is the bump behind the upper teeth.

Examples: /s/ and /n/

Palato-alveolar

- The blade or tip of the tongue is used just behind the alveolar ridge, and in front the palate.

Examples: /ʧ/ and /ʃ/

Palatal

- The front of the tongue is raised close to the hard palate.
- The palate is the hard part of the top of the mouth. It is behind the alveolar ridge, and in front of the velum.

Example: /j/

Velar

- The back of the tongue is used against the soft palate.
- The soft palate is also called the velum. That's why these sounds are called *velar.*

  Examples: /k/ and /w/

Glottal

- The space between the vocal cords is used to make noise.
- The glottis is where the vocal cords are located.

  Example: /h/

  Vowel sounds

  What is a vowel?
- Vowels are sounds articulated with no blocking of the airstream, with open articulation. Also, all vowels are voiced.

Vowels: the tongue

To make different vowels sounds, we can change the position of the tongue:

- The height: high (close), mid, low (open)
- The frontness or backness: front, central, back

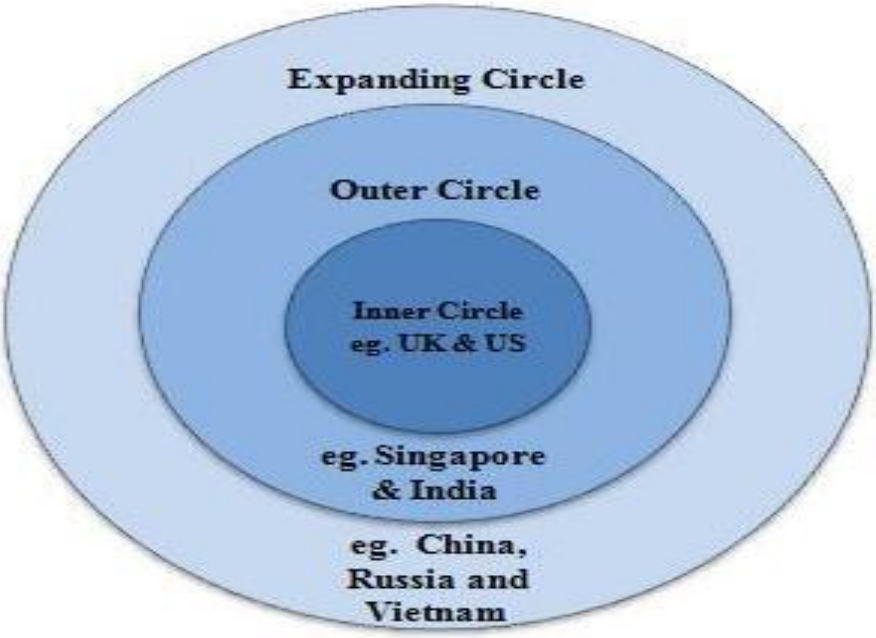
Vowels: the lips

We can also change the shape of our lips:

- Spread, as in /i:/
- Neutral, as in /ə/
- Rounded, as in /u:/

  Let's look at two vowel charts
- What is similar about them?
- What is different?
- Which one would you prefer to use as a teacher?

English as an International Language



Phonemic Chart

Vowel symbol

Monophthongs **Diphthongs**

iː beach	ɪ ship	ʊ book	uː moon	ɪə beer	eɪ cake	
e bed	ə above	ɜː bird	ɔː door	ʊə tour	ɔɪ boy	əʊ boat
æ bag	ʌ sun	ɑː car	ɒ hot	eə bear	aɪ tiger	aʊ cow

Consonant symbols

p pig	b bike	t time	d dog	ʧ chair	ʤ jacket	k cat	g girl
f fish	v violin	θ thief	ð mother	s soup	z zoo	ʃ shoe	ʒ television
m milk	n notebook	ŋ sing	h hat	l lemon	r rat	w water	j yellow

Voiced consonants=

Unvoiced consonants=

Table of English Consonant Phonemes

		Place of articulation							
		Front					Back		
		bilabial	labio-dental	dental	alveolar	palato-alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
Manner of articulation	plosive	p b			t d			k g	
	affricate					ʧ ʤ			
	fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
	nasal	m			n			ŋ	
	lateral				l				
	approximant					r	j	w	

Unvoiced

Voiced

Reading phonemic scrip

Read the words below in phonemic script. Then write the word using the alphabet. Use the phonemic chart to help you. **Example: /teɪbəl/ *table***

A. Things in the classroom

1. /desk/ _____
2. /pensəl/ _____
3. /wlndəʊ/ _____
4. /ɪreɪsər/ _____

B. English names

5. /maɪk/ _____
6. /krɪstəfər/ _____
7. /sæli:/ _____
8. /bɛθ/ _____

C. Asian countries

9. /kæmbəʊdi:ə/ _____
10. /ʤəpæn/ _____
11. /ʧaɪnə/ _____
12. /taɪlænd/ _____

D. Cities around the world

13. /wɑ:ʃɪŋtən/ _____
14. /beɪʒɪŋ/ _____
15. /rəʊm/ _____
16. /sɪdni:/ _____

http://www.e-lang.co.uk/mackichan/call/pron/type.html

BBC phonemic chart with sounds

http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/activities/phonemic-chart

Lesson 21: Teaching Reading

1. What is Reading?

It is very important that you have a clear understanding of what reading is. Understanding what is reading is not easy as reading happens in a reader's brain which makes it very difficult for us to see or observe.

1.1. Reading Skills and Processes

Reading studies have informed us that reading is:

- **A receptive skill**

Reading is a receiving skill. It involves receiving printed ideas and information of writers in the printed texts. Our eyes will skim and scan these printed ideas and send them to our brain for understanding (Hadfield & Hadfield, 2008).

- **A decoding process**

Reading is a meaning-searching skill. The writers have expressed or encoded their ideas into printed words. Reading requires the skill to break or decode the printed code (language) of the writers.

- **A cognitive/thinking skill**

Reading is a thinking skill which is commonly known as a mental or cognitive skill. The reader's brain is like the central processing unit of a computer (CPU), which processes all the incoming information from the printed texts.

- **An interactive and engaging skill**

Reading is an interactive and engaging skill between the reader and the printed text (the writer).

1.2. Understanding what happens in the reader's mind

How does a reader understand while he/she is reading? How does a reader make sense of the printed words? What is the reader thinking while he/she is reading? These are difficult questions to answer as reading happens in a reader's brain. That is why reading has also been referred to as a mental or cognitive process. As with all mental or cognitive processes, they are unobservable, thus making it very difficult to study and understand them.

Reading research studies have recognized four popular reading theories to answer all the difficult questions above:

1. The Scheme Theory

2. The Bottom-Up Theory

3. The Top-Down Theory

4. The Interactive Reading Theory

The two very important factors in all these four reading theories are the roles played by the reader and the printed text.

1.2.1. Schema Theory

This is the most recognized and researched reading theory. It explains that when a reader reads, he/she brings a lot of his/her prior knowledge and experiences to interact with the printed text (writer). Such prior knowledge and experiences of the readers are known as 'schema' (singular) or 'schemata (plural). Readers could make use of everything they have learnt and know about language (linguistic schemata), about the reading topic (contextual schemata), and also about how ideas are organized in the text (schematic schemata). It might surprise you to know that in reading, meaning does not come totally from the text. The reader also contributes to its meaning. In fact, the reader builds meaning together with the writer. The reading text itself does not carry all the meaning. Thus, the role of the reader's schemata is very important.

Reading is the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written language, and the context of the reading situation. (Anthony, Pearson & Raphael, 1993:238)

1.2.2. Bottom-Up Theory, Top-Down Theory & Interactive Theory

Depending on how much of his/her schemata a reader uses while reading, three popular reading theories are also used to explain how the reader processes information:

- **Bottom-Up Theory**

The Bottom-Up Theory explains the low use of the reader's schemata. This is very characteristic of weak readers who are found to use little of their prior knowledge and experiences. These readers would pay a lot of attention to individual printed letters, words, chunks, and sentences including grammatical structures (external sources) (Eysenck, 1998, p.152).

- **Top-Down Theory**

The Top-Down Theory explains the high use of the reader's schemata. This is very characteristic of good readers who use their background knowledge or schemata to actively engage with the text to build meaning. Unlike the bottom-up readers, the top-down readers do not pay attention to individual printed letters, words, chunks, and sentences but instead read in groups of words (chunks) for meaning. They make guesses or inferences while reading.

- **Interactive Reading Theory**

The Interactive Reading Theory explains how good readers use both the bottom-up and top-down approaches. Good readers are found to use the bottom-up approach when they read very difficult texts. They would initially pay more attention to individual words and sentences, allowing the writer to dominate the meaning-building process. But on subsequent readings, the readers would

use the top-down approach to interact with the writer, using all his/her appropriate schemata. Block (1992) identifies the bottom-up approach as the language process approach and the top-down as the knowledge process and says that readers use them both in building meaning.

1.3. Types of reading

Depending on the reading purposes, there are three main types of reading:

1.3.1. Intensive reading

This reading type is commonly used in reading lessons. It is also commonly known as reading comprehension and silent reading. Readers are required to read a given text silently to answer specific reading comprehension questions. Readers could be reading for specific information at higher reading levels.

1.3.2. Extensive reading

Unlike intensive reading, extensive reading is reading for pleasure and fun. Readers are given the freedom to read any materials of their individual interest and choice. Extensive reading normally happens outside the class because its purpose is to build the readers' confidence and enjoyment in reading (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

1.3.3. Reading aloud

While both intensive and extensive reading are done silently, reading aloud requires the readers to 'sound' or verbalize the printed words. Its main aim is developing the ability to read with appropriate *pronunciation* (accent, stress, intonation) and expression.

2. What Should We Teach in a Reading Course?

Now that you have a clearer understanding of the reading process, let us look at how you should teach reading. Teaching reading is more than just asking your students to read a text in the school textbook and answer the questions that follow. It is very important that you know and understand exactly what to teach, namely, the reading sub-skills and reading levels.

2.1. Reading sub-skills

A reading sub-skill refers to a very specific or particular reading skill e.g. inferring meaning of new words from contextual clues. Intensive reading requires many reading sub-skills but we are going to look at the five key reading sub-skills you need to know and teach.

2.1.1 Identifying & inferring main facts and details

This is the most basic of the reading skills where students read to identify the main facts and details in the text. The main facts and details could be related to people (who), places (where), and objects (what).

2.1.2. Relating cause and effect relationships

This reading sub-skill is the ability to identify and infer cause and effect relationships in reading texts. This sub-skill is very essential in helping students to answer the 'WHY" comprehension questions. Your job as a reading teacher is to help your students identify and infer why things happen and what the results are. Key cause and effect signal words such as *so, why, because, therefore* should be taught to the students.

2.1.3. Identifying & inferring sequence of events or ideas

This reading sub-skill is the ability to identify and infer correctly the order or sequence of events in a story or the order of steps and instructions in a procedural text. This sub-skill equires students to pay special attention to sequence or time signal words such as first, second, next, finally, in the morning, in the afternoon.

2.1.4. Inferring meaning from contextual clues

This sub-skill is the ability to guess or infer meanings of new words in a text. It requires the students to identify and use all the appropriate hints or clues given by writers (contextual clues) to guess or infer the meaning of new words.

2.1.5 Predicting outcomes

This sub-skill is the ability to read between and beyond the texts to predict outcomes not explicitly mentioned by the writers. Students have to use both their schemata and the contextual clues to predict correctly.

2.2. Reading Levels

Reading levels refer to levels of reading difficulty. Are you teaching your students to read simple or difficult texts? What makes a reading text easy or difficult? Based on the Schema Theory we had learnt about earlier, simple reading involves very little thinking and use of the reader's schemata while difficult reading involves a lot of thinking and higher use of the reader's schemata. In other words, the amount of thinking and use of schemata determines the reading levels.

Knowing what reading levels to teach will help you to build and ask good reading comprehension questions.

The Barrett's Taxonomy identifies 5 reading levels we need to teach our students.

1. Literal Comprehension (Lowest)

Students identify information directly stated.

2. Reorganization

Students organize or order the information a different way than it was presented.

3. Inferential Comprehension

Students respond to information implied but not directly stated.

4. Evaluation

Students make judgments in light of the material.

5. Appreciation (Highest)

Students give an emotional or image-based response.

Alderson & Uquart (1984)

2.2.1. Literal Comprehension

Literal comprehension is the lowest reading level because reading at this level requires very little thinking as it involves only reading for surface or literal meanings. These literal meanings are clearly seen and stated by the writer in the text. What students are required to do after reading is to recall, repeat, or retell. Even very weak readers can easily identify and understand their meanings.

> Hi! My name is Bonny! I am from Canada. In the morning, I usually get up at 7.30. Then I have breakfast. I usually have cheese and bread for breakfast. Then I walked to school with my sister. School starts at 8.30. We study English, Maths, Geography,
>
> Arts and so much more. We have lunch together at school at 11. At 2.15, school is finished. I do my homework and then I walk the dog. We have dinner at 4.00. After that, I hang out with my friends. We play games on the computer and watch TV. After that, I read a little before I go to sleep. I go to bed at 9.30. Good night!

(Source: English Grade 7, Student's Book, Unit 7, p. 46)

Based on the reading text above, an example of a literal comprehension question would be:

Who is from Canada?

The answer is obviously 'Bonny'. The answer is so simple because 'Bonny" is explicitly seen and stated in the text. Students do not have to read deeper to get the answer right. Such low-level reading is called literal comprehension.

2.2.2. Reorganization

The reorganization reading level is above the literal comprehension level. This reading level is comparatively more difficult because students have to read, understand, and identify more than one fact or event. They are then required to *classify, regroup, rearrange, assemble, collect, categorize or reorganize* these facts and events into a particular category or order.

Based on the reading text above, a reading task at the reorganization level is shown on the following page. This task requires the students to read and understand what Bonny does at a given time. The students are required to understand Bonny's daily routine and organize her routine into a timetable as shown below. Such a reading task is often called an "information-transfer" activity. This type of reading is more difficult than the literal comprehension reading.

First	I get up and have breakfast.	07:30
Second	1. ……..……..…	…….
Third	We start school.	08:00
Fourth	2. ……...…	11:00
Fifth	We finish school.	3. …….
Sixth	I do my homework	…….
Seventh	4. ……..…	…….
Eighth	I have dinner.	4:00
Ninth	I hang out with friends	…….
Tenth	I go to bed	5. …….

2.2.3. Inferential Comprehension

This is a difficult but very important reading level as many reading comprehension questions in examinations are targeted at this level. To *infer* means to *guess* or to *predict*. Students must be able to guess the meanings of new words, predicting outcomes or events and inferring the feelings and attitudes of people in a story. Reading at this level requires students to notice, identify, and understand meanings which the writers did not state explicitly but implied. The students have to pay very close attention to all the hints or clues in the text (contextual clues) as well as use their own schemata to guess or predict the writer's meaning in the text. This is also known as *'reading between the lines'* and *'reading beyond the texts.*

You stupid girl! You can't do anything right!" said the witch. The witch went back to check the oven and Gretel was standing behind her. When she had opened the oven door, Gretel pushed her in.

(Source: English Grade 9, Student's Book, Chapter 6, Unit 16, p. 108)

We can use the above *'Hansel and Gretel and the Witch'* to teach inferential comprehension. Students are required to read the given part of this story and to guess or predict what is going to happen next.

2.2.4 Evaluation

This is the second highest or second most difficult reading level. Many students will find reading at this level very difficult as a lot of thinking is involved such as *analyzing, appraising, evaluating, justifying, reasoning, criticizing and judging.* Here, students have to read and understand the whole text and then give a personal view or opinion of the people and events they have read about in the text. Answers to questions at this level are not found directly in the reading text but implied and so students are required to use a lot of their own schemata.

Based on the same story of 'Hansel and Gretel and the Witch', after the students have finished reading the whole story, they can be asked to answer the following evaluation level questions:

- *Who do you like better, Gretel or Hansel? Why?*
- *Do you think it was right for the woodcutter to chase his wife out of the house? Give your reasons.*

2.2.5. Appreciation

The highest reading level is appreciation. This reading level is essential for students who are doing literature. Your Grades 7-9 students may find it hard to attain this level. At this level, literature students are required to read popular classics (e.g. *Great Expectations* by Charles Dickens), poems (e.g. *The Daffodils* by William Wordsworth) or plays (e.g. *Macbeth* by Shakespeare) and then to *critique, appraise, comment, and appreciate* the work of these great writers.

3. How Should We Teach Reading?

Teaching reading is NOT just asking the students to read the given text in the school textbook and then answer the comprehension questions that follow. An effective reading teacher should not only focus on WHAT to read but also on HOW to read. Your job as a reading teacher is to show, to demonstrate, and to illustrate the reading sub-skills and levels to help your students to answer the given reading questions correctly.

As a reading teacher, you need to be teaching the reading sub-skills, the reading levels, and reading strategies. To do this, you need to include three stages in your reading lesson. Every reading lesson should have the following three stages:

❖ **Pre-reading**

Before asking students to read the text silently, the teacher should:

- activate students' schemata about the topic in the reading text
- arouse students' interest and motivation to read
- guide the students to read for general understanding first (skimming)

❖ **While-reading**

While the students are reading the text, the reading teacher needs to:

- raise students' awareness of specific reading sub-skills and levels
- demonstrate the workings of the specific reading sub-skill via think-aloud activities
- monitor and explore together with students on HOW to read using a specific sub-skill at a specific reading level

❖ **Post-reading**

After the students have read the text and answered the reading questions, the teacher needs to:

- explain and demonstrate how to answer the questions correctly
- support and facilitate students' use of appropriate reading learned to answer questions

3.1. Approaches to Teaching Reading

Effective approaches to teaching reading should integrate the following features of the Schema Theory:

- the role of reader's schemata
- the interaction between the reader & the text
- reading is a cognitive process
- reading is a receptive skill

The two reading approaches used in this Guidebook are:

1. Think-aloud Approach
2. Metacognitive Approach

These two approaches require you as reading teachers to **share** how you read explicitly and clearly. To do this, you have to **verbalize** or say aloud your thinking processes as you read and understand the texts.

3.1.1. Think-aloud Approach

The key feature of this approach is thinking-aloud or *verbalizing* the thinking or thoughts which are happening in the brain as the reader is reading. As reading is a cognitive process, how the brain makes sense of the reading text cannot be seen. Like an iceberg, the reading processes are implicit, intangible, invisible, and subconscious both to the reading teachers and students. (Harris & Hodges as cited in Block & Israel, 2004).

3.1.2. Metacognitive Approach

Like, the Think-aloud Approach, this approach not only requires you to share and verbalise what you are thinking while reading but also to make your students aware of the reading processes. Students need to think about their own thinking processes and, they need to be able to control and monitor themselves in reading (Flavell, 1979).

3.2. Teaching Reading Strategies

Your job as a reading teacher is to demonstrate clearly the 'hidden' processes of HOW to read based on the two reading approaches mentioned. This job is called a 'teaching reading strategy'. We will look at six reading strategies for teaching reading. All these six reading strategies are based on both the think-aloud and metacognitive approaches mentioned above.

Each of these six reading strategies aims at teaching different reading sub-skills at different reading levels.

A. Robin Hood

Reading Sub-skill: Inferring meaning of references

Reading Level: Inferential Comprehension

B. Jigsaw Reading

Reading Sub-skill: Inferring sequence of events or processes

Reading Levels: Reorganization, Inferential Comprehension

C. Same but Different

Reading Sub-skill: Inferring similarities & differences

Reading Levels: Reorganization, Inferential Comprehension, Evaluation

D. Robin Hood

Reading Sub-skill: Inferring meaning from contextual clues

Reading Levels: Reorganization, Inferential Comprehension, Evaluation

E. Cause & Effect Buttons

Reading Sub-skill: Inferring cause and effect relationships

Reading Levels: Reorganization, Inferential Comprehension, Evaluation

F. Finding Partners

Reading Sub-skill: Inferring cause and effect relationships

Reading Levels: Reorganization, Inferential Comprehension, Evaluation

G. Unfinished Story

Reading Sub-skill: Predicting Outcomes

Reading Levels: Reorganization, Inferential Comprehension, Evaluation

4. Guidelines for selection of reading texts

In addition to the reading texts found in the school textbooks, you are encouraged to use reading texts from other sources. The main reason is that most of the reading texts found in Grades 7-9 textbooks are used mainly to teach grammar rules instead of reading skills.

Here, are important guidelines in helping you to select suitable reading texts

a. Ideas/Content

Make sure that the reading text has ideas or information that are familiar to your students and within their schemata. In addition, the topic should be of interest and fun to them.

b. Reading Sub-Skills and Reading Levels

Make sure the reading text is relevant to the reading sub-skills and reading levels you are teaching in that reading lesson. For example, if you are going to teach the reading sub-skill of inferring cause and effect relationship, select a text that has many such relationships.

c. Language

Make sure that the language used in the reading text is suitable for your students' language

proficiency level. Avoid texts with too many new and difficult words. The ideal number of new words should be kept to a maximum of three. Avoid texts with sentences that are too complex. A combination of simple and compound sentences would be appropriate.

d. Length of the text

Make sure the total number of words is appropriate to your students. Generally, the length of reading texts vary from 50 to a maximum of 200 words for Grades 7 to 9.

5. Other Reading Resources

In addition to the reading texts, other resources you could use to make your reading lessons more engaging, interesting, and meaningful video-clips, pictures, PowerPoint slides, worksheets, story strips, newspapers, and even realia as used in the six strategies for teaching reading in Section 4.

Lesson 22: Teaching Speaking

What is speaking?

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

Key Concepts

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

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

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

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

Our purpose in speaking is to communicate meaning and we do all these things to achieve this. We can see that speaking involves a lot more than just using grammar and Vocabulary accurately in speech. When speak we constantly have in mind the person we are speaking to and our wish to communicate our meaning successfully to them. We use interactive Strategies to help us achieve this. These include using body language such as gestures, eye contact. facial expressions and movement to put our message across more strongly and clearly, and functions such as clarifying our meaning (e.g. 'I mean…' What I'm trying to say is…) asking for opinions (e.g. What do you think?) agreeing (e.g. Yes, that's right) to keep the interaction (communication going and check that it is successful. Turn-talking is another interactive strategy we use. It involves using intonation. language or body language to show you want to join a conversation or end one, keep speaking or invite other participants to join in. We use it to make sure we get our message across. Paraphrasing can also be thought of as an interactive strategy. We paraphrase when we judge our communication cannot be or has not been understood. We use other words to say the same thing in order to get our message across.

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

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

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

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

Key Concepts and the language teaching classroom

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

- Speaking involves a range of different subskills. Learners can benefit from practice in each of these to develop their speaking. We can help our learners get this practice by focusing regularly on particular aspects of speaking for example, fluency, pronunciation, register, grammatical accuracy, body language, interactive strategies, interactive speaking (Example, conversations, discussions), speaking at length (Example, presentations, giving points of view, etc.).
- In many classrooms, controlled practice activities (activities in which the learners are required to repeatedly use the language that they have just been taught) make up a large part of speaking practice. These activities include drills, repetition and saying things learnt by heart (things that are memorized). They focus on accuracy in speaking by helping students to use grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation correctly. They can motivate learners by giving them confidence that what they are saying is right. Controlled practice activities provide useful, if limited, preparation for speaking, as they do not give practice in fluency, interaction or successfully communication a message.
- Fluency activities allow learners to choose the language they use to speak. They include tasks such as information-gap activities, problem solving, project work. discussions, explaining solutions. All these tasks involve learners in communicating new information with one another. As they speak, learners need to try to get their message across to one another. These activities give learners the opportunity to practice communication, interaction and fluency.
- Pair and group work increase the opportunity for communication in the classroom as more people speak than if just one learner is speaking to the teacher while the rest of the class listens. In bigger classes, and in classes that are not used to working in pairs and groups, the teacher may need to introduce these activities carefully to make sure learners see the point of them and make good use of them.
- In controlled practice activities, the teacher usually corrects learners' accuracy, as accuracy is the purpose of these activities. In this way learners are given the opportunity to focus on communicating their message. The teacher can note down mistakes and work on them the class after the activity.
- Because speaking is such a complex skill, learners in the classroom may need a lot of help in preparing for speaking, e.g. practice of necessary vocabulary, time to organize their ideas and what they want to say, practice in pronouncing new words and expressions, practice in carrying out a task, before they speak freely. Or teachers may prefer to ask learners to carry out task and the focus on language problems after wards. Some experts believe that

- Focusing on language after rather than before a task makes learners more interested in learning about the language, as it helps them see the purpose of focusing on the language.
- Learners, especially beginners and children, may need time to take in and process all the new language they hear before they produce it in speaking. In some classrooms, especially primary ones, learners are allowed a silent period at the beginning of as course, so that they have time to listen to and process the language first.
- The activities in a speaking lesson often follow this pattern:
    1. **Lead-in**: an introduction to the topic of the lesson plus activities including a focus on the new language.
    2. Practice activities or tasks in which learners have opportunities to use the new language-these activities may move from controlled to freer activities or a teacher may choose to do them in the opposite order, depending on the class and learning context.
    3. **Post-task activities:** activities in which learners do free speaking activities on the topic and/or work on the language used in the tasks.
- Reading, listening and integrated sills lessons (lessons combining use of several language skills) also give opportunities for speaking practice as learners focus on language before the text and discuss its topic, and then after they have worked on understanding the text, they can go on to do speaking activities related to its topic.

  See Units 16 and 17 for speaking activities, Unit 21 for planning lessons, and Units 29 and 32 for correcting speaking.

Follow-up Activity (See page 239 for answers)

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

A. Accuracy	**B. Connected Speech**	**C. Appropriacy**
D. Fluency	**E. Functions**	**F. Interaction**

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

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**

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

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

Discovery Activities

1. Look at a unit in your course book. Which aspects(s) of speaking does it focus on? What other aspects of speaking do your students need to focus on?
2. Find a story you like, then record yourself telling the story in English. Listen to your recording, then record yourself telling it again. How have you improved? Why?
3. Practice your pronunciation or find out more about speaking at:

   http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/language

   http://teachingenglish.org.uk/think/knowledge-wiki/input

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

   Elementary Communication Games by Jill Hadfield, Pearson Education Ltd 1992

   simple speaking Activities by Jill and Charles Hadfield,

   Oxford University Press 1999

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

   Quizzes, Questionnaires and Puzzles by Miles Craven,

   Cambridge University Press 2005

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

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

TKT Practice task 8 (See page 245 for answer)

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

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

Aspects of Speaking

A. fluency

B. interaction

C. accuracy

D. appropriacy

Trainer's comments

1. That student rally helped the group work by inviting people to speak, summarizing ideas and stopping some students talking too much.
2. That student pauses and hesitates to much. He needs to sound more confident.
3. I'm afraid I couldn't understand what he was saying. I didn't know if he was saying /p/ or /b/, or /I/ or /n/, for example.
4. In some ways, that student gave an excellent presentation but he'll need to speak more formally when he presents it to all the teachers.
5. She kept confusing her tenses so nobody understood what she was talking about.
6. He was very good at continuing speaking smoothly even though he needed to paraphrase a lot.
7. I think they sound a bit rude. Maybe you can teach them some other exponents for these functions.

Lesson 23: Teaching Writing

Helping Learners to Write

1. What Is Writing?

According to Nation (2009), writing is "a very useful skill to make sure that learners are involved in meaning-focused use, language-focused learning, and fluency development … it covers a range of uses learners will perform in their daily lives" (p.1). To Reid (1993), writing is the process of communicating thoughts and ideas in a readable form.

Writing plays a vital role in people's personal and professional lives. Writing is considered a tool for expressing one's ideas in a non-verbal communicative way. In the process of learning, writing is one of the four essential skills for the learner of English as a Second Language (ESL) and of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

2. What Should We Teach in a Writing Course?

There are two main approaches to the teaching of writing that Cambodian teachers of English may find useful: the *process-based approach* and the *genre-based approach*.

2.1. Process-Based Approach

The process-based approach, sometimes called "process writing", enables the teacher to guide students to complete a final piece of writing. In this approach, 'students need to be led through the process of writing from the planning stage to completing the final draft' (Lewis 2009, p. 8). As shown in Figure 1, the process-based approach consists of five sub-processes: pre-writing, drafting, revising, editing, and publishing.

2.1.1. Pre-Writing

Key activities in the pre-writing stage include:

- ***Determining audience and purpose***: What types of readers you are writing to? What specific purpose do you want to convey? For example, a pen friend might write a letter to inform a friend about himself or his family's relatives. It is important for writers to keep their goals and audience in mind because it enables them to reflect on how effective their writing is.
- ***Planning, brainstorming, generating and organizing ideas***:

Freewriting: Write all ideas that flow to mind.

Brainstorming: Generate ideas that are related to topic. It is the stage where students collect all the ideas related to the topic, write down any ideas which come to mind in words or phrases and ignore any spelling mistakes. This technique includes *listing*, *clustering*, and *mind-mapping*.

2.1.2. Revising

At this stage, students should put their ideas into sentences and start writing the paragraph without worrying about language errors such as grammar, spelling, and sentence structure.

2.1.3. Revising

The purpose of revising is to edit the writing for improvement. Some ways to do this include:

Add: Add more details and information.

Rearrange: Sequence the ideas into well-organized paragraphs.

Remove: Take out what is not related to the topic or what is not necessary.

Replace: Let a teacher or friends take a look at the writing and give feedback. If something does not work well, rewrite or replace it.

2.1.4. Editing

Edit the writing again to check for errors such as grammar, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation. Editing can be done several times until students are satisfied.

2.1.5 Publishing

The final stage takes place when the writing is shown to an audience.

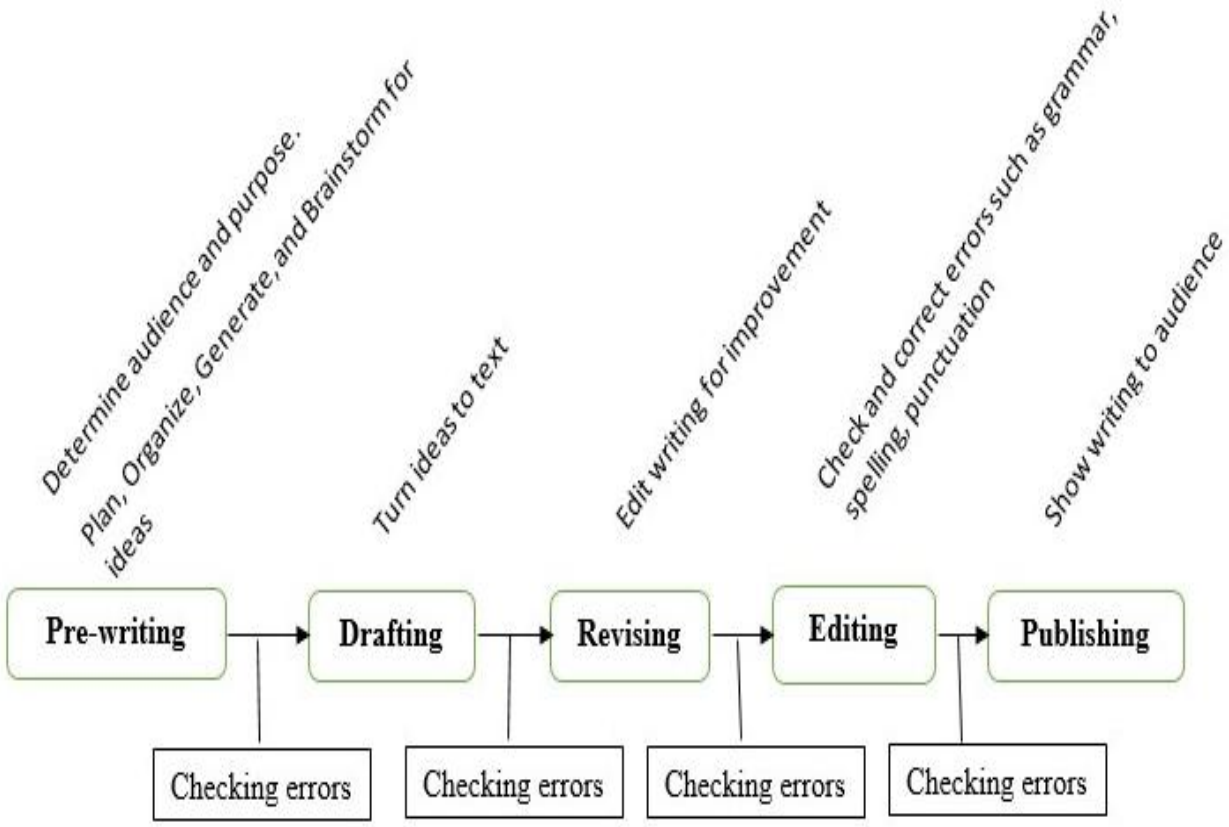


*Figure 1: Process-Based Approach**2.2***

Genre-Based Approach

According to Derewianka (1992) and Lewis (2009), a genre is a structure of text written using language in various styles and formats that differs based on the author's purpose and audience. One genre differs from another in *its features, the purposes it is written for, and its overall structure.*

As shown in Figure 2, the genre-based approach includes three basic stages:

2.2.1. Modeling

Learners investigate the language features and structural patterns of an example. Learners compare the example with other models.

2.2.1. Joint Construction of the Text

Learners add details to the example. The teacher slowly reduces input as learners are able to adapt their own piece of writing.

2.2.2. Independent Construction of Text

Learners work off the model to produce their final writing. Learner work is assessed for final grade.

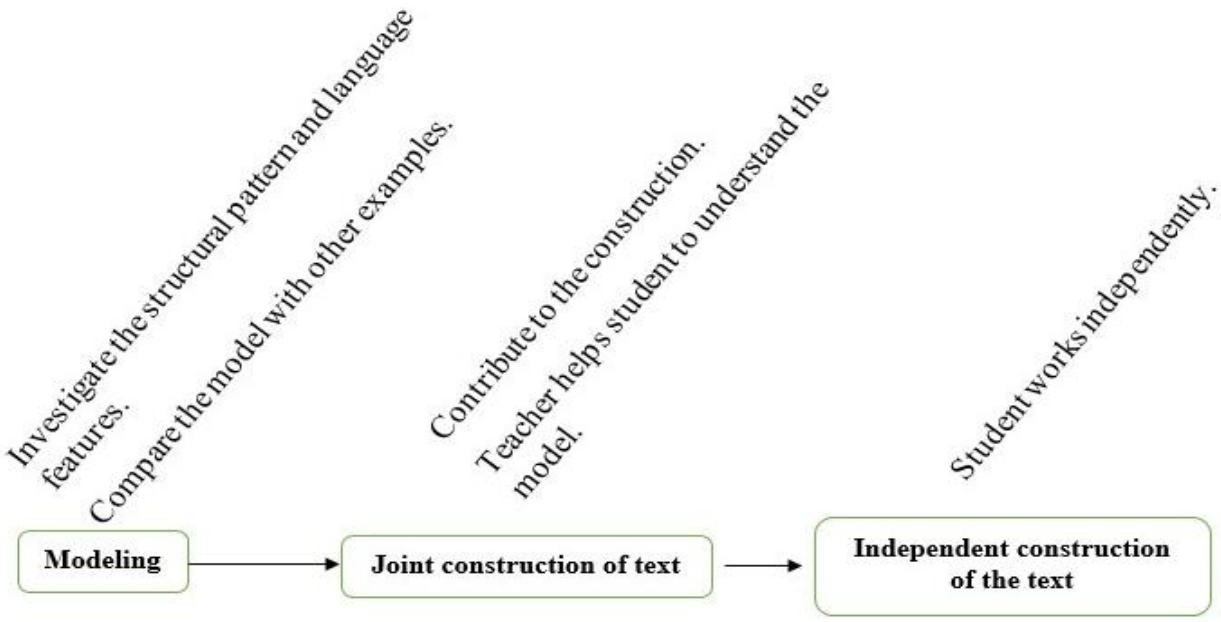


Figure 2: Genre-Based Approach

2.3. Types of Genres

Genres that are commonly found in writing include the following:

Table 1: Types of Genres

Genre	*Purpose and features*	*Possible Topics*
Descriptive Writing	To describe a person place or thing in vivid detail so that the reader can create a near-exact mental picture. Uses imaginative language, interesting comparisons and images.	• Khmer New Year Day • Water Festival • Pchum Ben Festival • Wedding Ceremony
Narrative Writing	To tell stories or a sequence of stories. Can be factual or fictional. Must develop beginning, middle, and end as well as plot and characters.	• Spooky Story • Little Red Riding Hood
Letters and Journals	To share news, explore new ideas and record notes. To learn correct formatting of formal and informal letters and emails.	• Business letters • Friendly letters • Emails • Personal journals

3. How Should We Teach Writing?

When teaching writing, it is important to teach students how to write a good paragraph. Students should also learn and practice the five stages of process writing. More advanced students may benefit from being able to recognize and write texts in different genres.

3.1. Paragraph Writing

3.1.1. Parts of a paragraph

A paragraph is a combination of sentences on a topic broken into the following parts (Peter et al., 2011):

Topic sentence

Usually the first sentence.

Tells *the topic* and *the controlling idea* (the main idea about the topic).

Supporting sentences

Essential parts of the paragraph.

Give a few supporting ideas that describe the controlling ideas.

Give details that clarify each supporting idea.

Concluding sentence

Last sentence of a paragraph

Summarizes the controlling idea

3.1.2. Features of a Good Paragraph

According to David (2012), a good paragraph should consist of:

- One main idea
- One topic sentence
- 5-7 supporting sentences
- One closing sentence
- Indentation, spelling, and punctuation.

Based on these points, the differences between good and bad paragraphs are explained using the following paragraphs as examples.

Paragraph A below is not a good paragraph because it lacks unity, coherence, and development

Paragraph A:

My favorite hobby is playing the drums. My parents bought me a drum set. I was very loud. Now, I play the drums in a band with my friend Borin. Playing the drums is my favorite hobby.

Paragraph B is a slight improvement over paragraph A. A topic sentence was added, combined with the previous sentence. However, the paragraph is still incomplete because there is little coherence. The paragraph needs more development.

Paragraph B:

Some people have many hobbies and my favorite hobby is the playing drums. I was very loud, but my mother never complained. I started learning to play the drums when I was 9 years old. Now, I play the drums in a band with my friend Borin. Playing the drums is my favorite hobby.

Paragraph C is still poorly written. It demonstrates more unity (one main topic) and coherence (sentences are in a logical order and linking words are used), but the paragraph needs more development.

Paragraph C:

Some people have many hobbies like gardening, reading, or painting. My favorite hobby is the playing drums, I started playing the drums when I was 9 years old. My parents bought me a drum set and I started practicing every day after school. Now, I play the drums in a band with my friend Borin. We write songs, perform, and practice twice a week. Playing the drumsis my favorite hobby.

Paragraph D is good because it demonstrates unity (one main topic); coherence (sentences are in a logical order and linking words are used); and topic development (there are more supporting sentences, including a concluding sentence).

Paragraph D:

> *Some people have many hobbies like gardening, reading, or painting. My favorite hobby is playing drums. I started playing the drums when I was 9 years old when my parents bought me a drum set and I started practicing every day after school. I was very loud, but my mother never complained. When I was 12, I got a private drum teacher and started to really enjoy playing. I improved a lot, and playing drums has been my favorite hobby ever since. Today, I spend a lot of my free time playing drums, playing in my school's band and with my friends. I play drums in a band with my friend Borin, who plays guitar. We write songs, perform, and practice twice a week. Playing the drums is still as fun as it was when I first started playing.*

3.2. Process-Based Approach

The process-based approach may be familiar to many teachers in Cambodia. The steps below show how the process-based approach can be used to help students to complete a writing task

from the English Grade 7 Student's Book.

> *Task: Write about your friend. Draw and color. Use your notebook. (From Grade 7 Student's Book, Chapter 1, Unit 1, Lesson B, Question 5, p. 11)*

Step 1: Pre-writing

Mind-mapping: Teacher asks students to work in pairs. With their partners, they need to think of related topics on friendship. Students draw a mind map on a piece of paper. An example of a mind map for this activity is shown in Figure 3.

Step 2: Drafting

Teacher asks students to write the first draft based on the mind mapping activities. They work with their partners to write about a friend. Teacher walks around and gives some help if needed. Students compare their writing with another pair.

Step 3: Revising

After doing pair comparison, students work with their partners to add, rearrange, and remove some ideas.

Step 4: Editing

Teacher asks students to re-read their drafts for errors such as grammar, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation. With help of the teacher, students write their final draft.

Step 5: Publishing

Students write a final draft after final proofreading. Finally, students submit their final copy.

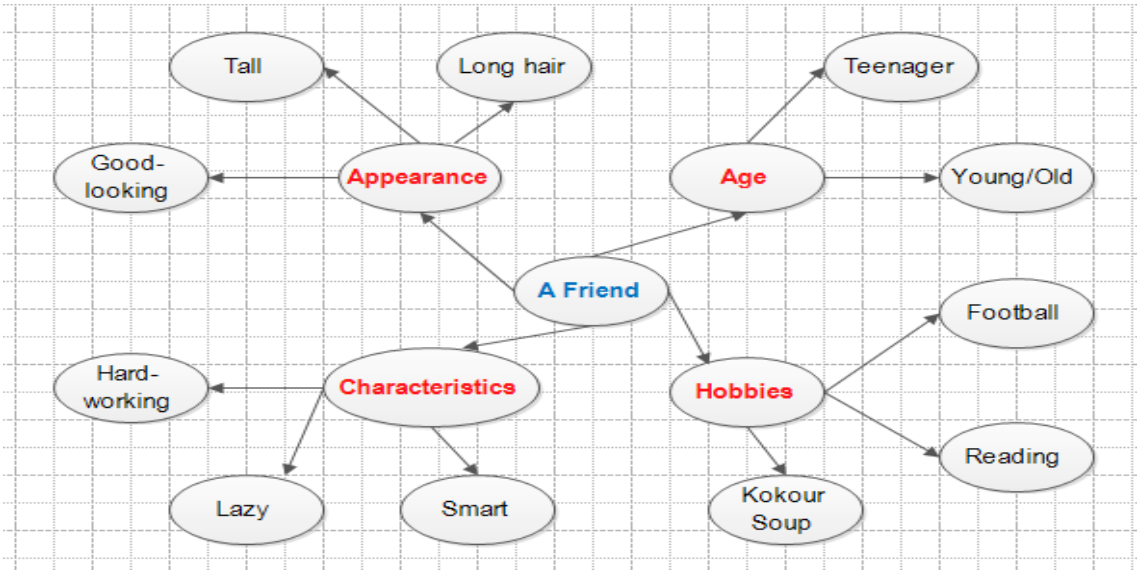


Figure 3: Mind Map

3.3. Genre-Based Approach

Many teachers in Cambodia may find this approach relatively new. The genre-based approach is particularly suited to Cambodian learners in many ways as it provides models, based on which students identify grammatical and lexical features. Students then use these models to create similar texts based on their own ideas.

The steps below show how the genre-based approach can be used to help students to complete a writing task from the English Grade 8 Student's Book.

> *Task: What about you and your family? How do you get around? Write a short paragraph inyour notebook about your family and their vehicles. (From Grade 8 Student's Book, Chapter9, Unit 25c, Question 4, p. 162)*

Step 1: Modelling

Teacher asks students to read the model text. Teacher asks each student to analyse the language features and structural patterns of the text.

Step 2: Joint Construction of the Text

Teacher asks students to remodel the text by using their own information. Teacher walks around and gives help if needed.

Step 3: Independent Construction of the Text

Teacher asks students to re-read their work and check errors such as grammar, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation. With the help of the teacher, students could produce their final draft.

By teaching paragraph writing and using process-based and genre-based approaches, Cambodian teachers of English can help their learners to complete the writing tasks that are included in their English textbooks.

4. What Materials Can We Use to Teach Writing?

The English Grades 7-9 textbooks include many writing tasks. The resources shown below will help teachers to teach paragraph writing, process-based, and genre-based approaches to extend the writing tasks in the textbooks.

4.1. Resources to Support Process-Based Approach

In the sections below, examples are given of materials that can be used at each stage of the process-based approach.

4.1.1. Pre-writing: Brainstorming or Gathering Ideas

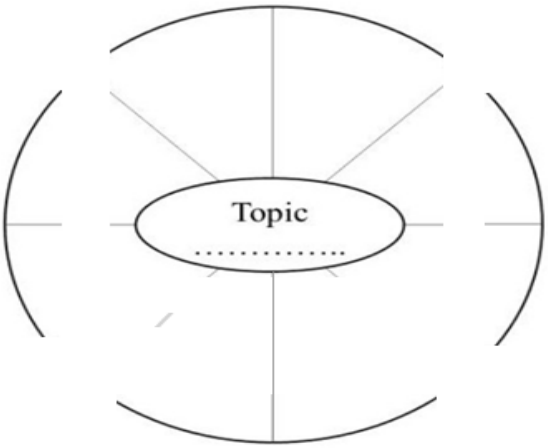
Teachers can use the worksheets shown on the following pages to help students to brainstorm and generate ideas. These include: Describing Wheel, Flow Chart, Four Column Chart, Inverted Triangle, Pros/Cons Graphic Organizer, Sequence Chart, Step-by-Step Chart, Tree Chart, and Venn Diagram.

To use the Describing Wheel, students can add describing words about the topic between the spokes. Example: The teacher asks the students to write the topic in the middle of circle of "An interesting trip in Singapore". The teacher then asks the students to write the details or descriptions in the boxes around it e.g. "clean, safe, many shopping malls, etc." The teacher can use this to get students to brainstorm ideas about the topic so that they can use the ideas in their writing.

Name..... Date.....

Describing Wheel

Add describing words about your topic beTween thespoke



Name..... Date.....

Describing Wheel

Add describing words about your topic beTween the spoke

Name..... Date.....

Flow Chart

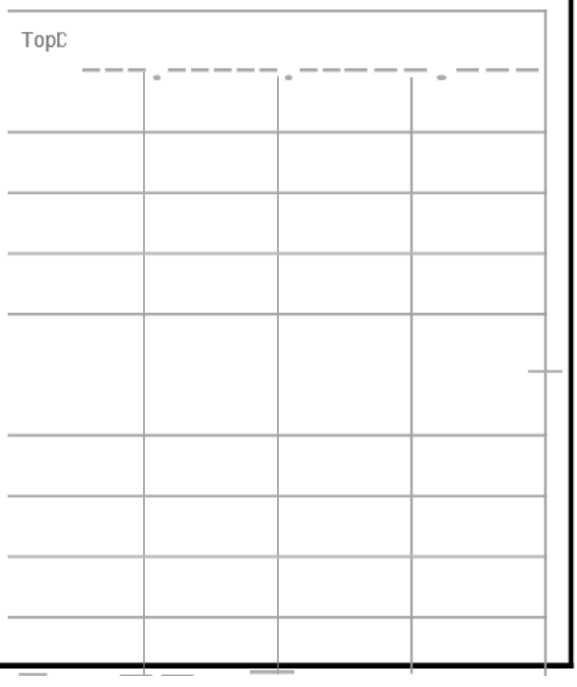
Write your topic at the top. List steps or events in time order

Topic

Name..... Date.....

Four Column Chart

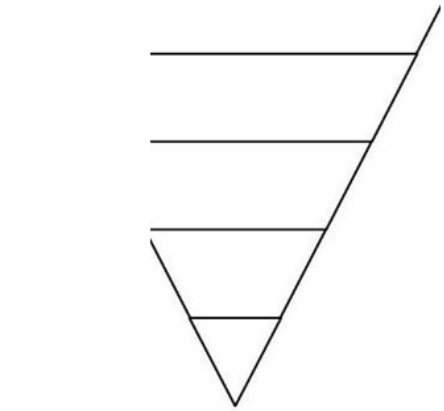
Write heading for each column. Add details to each column.



Name.... ..... Date..

Inverted Triangle

Write a broad topic on the top line. WriTe one part of the topic on the next line. Write one part ofT he topic below iT. Keep going until you get a focused topic.



Name..... Date.....

Pros/Cons Graphic Organizer

List the positive point and negative point in another column.

	Pros	Cons
Optaon 1		
Opt on2		
Optlonl		
Opt on4		

Name…..……..…..…. Date…..……

Sequence Chart

List steps or events in time order.

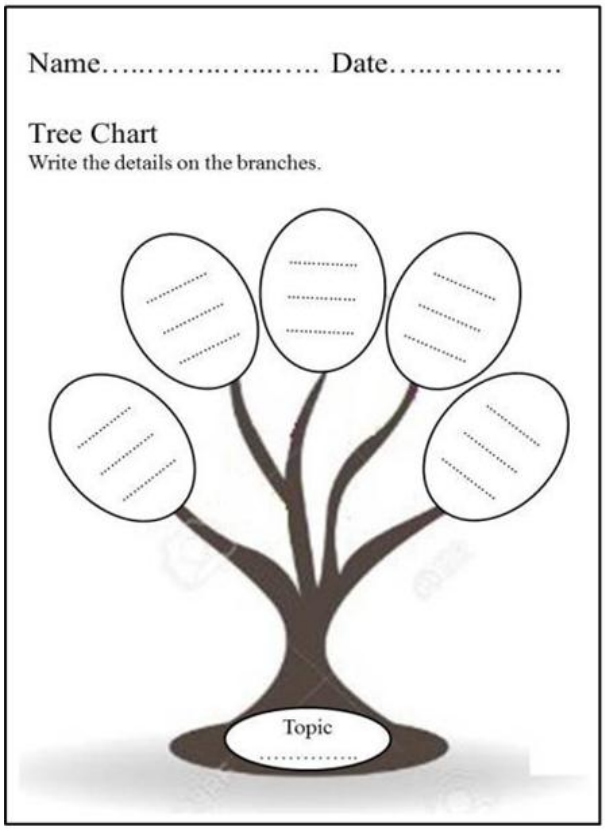
Topic.....
First,.....
Second,.....
Third,.....
Next,.....
Then,.....
After that,.....
Last,.....

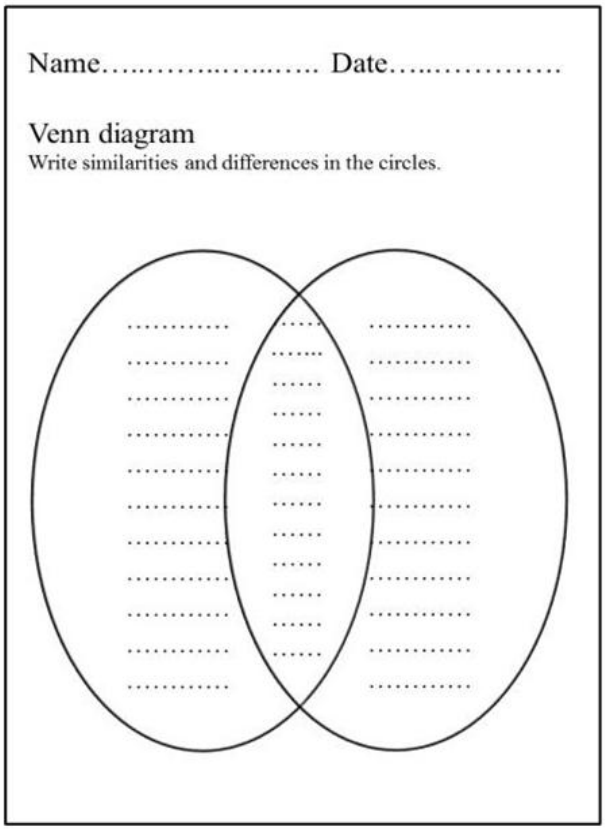
Name…..……..…..…. Date…..……

Step-by-Step Chart

Write each step in order. Add details.

Topic	
Steps	Details
Step 1:	
Step 2:	
Step 3:	
Step 4:	
Step 5:	





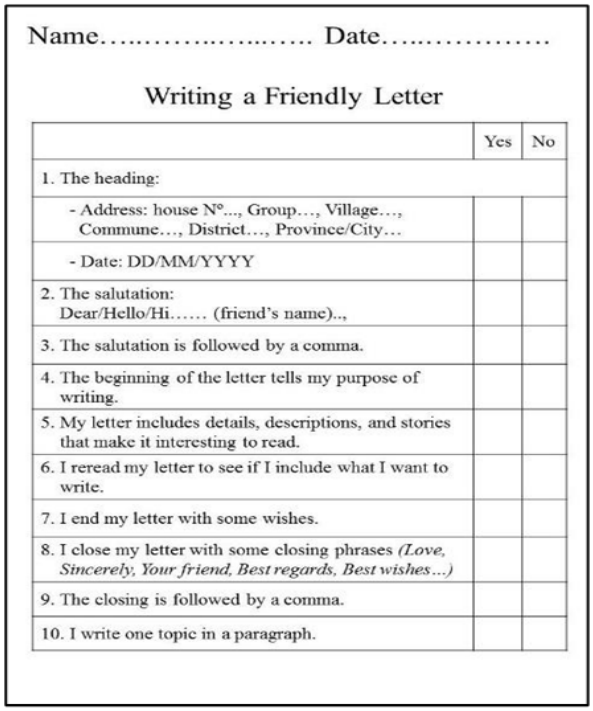
4.1.2. Drafting (planning, outlining, and diagramming)

The teacher can use this chart to get students to write/complete an outline:

Topic: _____ Topic Sentence: Supporting detail (1): _____ (state a reason). Sub-detail (1): (state an example). Supporting detail (2): _____ _____ _____(state a reason). Sub-detail (2): _____ (state an example). Supporting detail (3): _____ (state a reason). Sub-detail (3): (state an example). In conclusion,

4.1.3. Revising

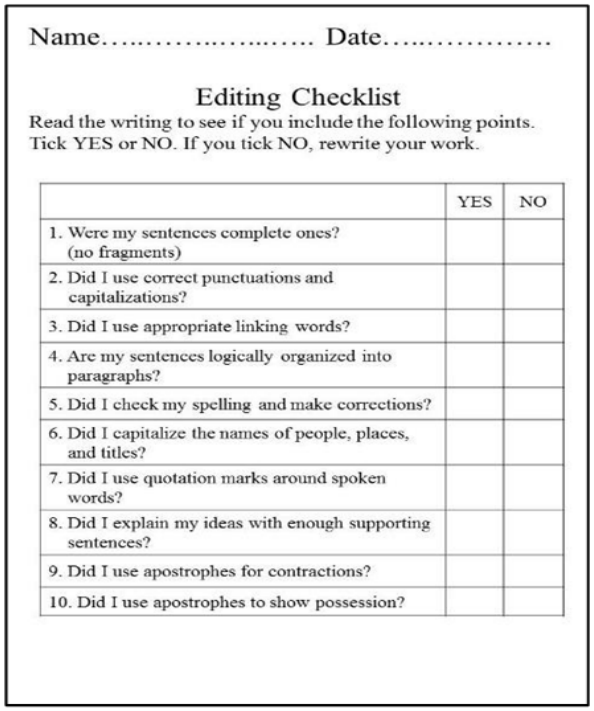
A checklist, such as the one below and in the next section can be used for peer editing or revising.



Name…..…….…..….. Date…..……

Writing a Friendly Letter

	Yes	No
1. The heading:		
- Address: house N°..., Group…, Village…, Commune…, District…, Province/City…		
- Date: DD/MM/YYYY		
2. The salutation: Dear/Hello/Hi…… (friend's name)..,		
3. The salutation is followed by a comma.		
4. The beginning of the letter tells my purpose of writing.		
5. My letter includes details, descriptions, and stories that make it interesting to read.		
6. I reread my letter to see if I include what I want to write.		
7. I end my letter with some wishes.		
8. I close my letter with some closing phrases *(Love, Sincerely, Your friend, Best regards, Best wishes…)*		
9. The closing is followed by a comma.		
10. I write one topic in a paragraph.		



Name…..…….…..….. Date…..……

Editing Checklist

Read the writing to see if you include the following points. Tick YES or NO. If you tick NO, rewrite your work.

	YES	NO
1. Were my sentences complete ones? (no fragments)		
2. Did I use correct punctuations and capitalizations?		
3. Did I use appropriate linking words?		
4. Are my sentences logically organized into paragraphs?		
5. Did I check my spelling and make corrections?		
6. Did I capitalize the names of people, places, and titles?		
7. Did I use quotation marks around spoken words?		
8. Did I explain my ideas with enough supporting sentences?		
9. Did I use apostrophes for contractions?		
10. Did I use apostrophes to show possession?		

Rubrics, especially those that include criteria, indicators and description of each criteria and indicator, may also be useful. Some examples of rubrics are provided in the next section.

4.1.4. Editing

Correcting symbols can be used for peer editing or by the teacher to give written corrective feedback. Abbreviations such as these can be used to indicate incorrect language:
pl = mistake with the plural
form sp = spelling mistake
agr =subject-verb agreement

Teachers can also use editing symbols such as those in the list below or add other symbols to represent common errors.

Editing Symbols

Symbol	Meaning	Example	Symbol	Meaning	Example
¶	New paragraph				
sp	Spelling	sceince			
wo	Word order	He only picked the one he likes.			
	Word order	He only picked the one he likes.			
Cap	Capitalization	We spent the Fall in spain.			
X	Delete	This is the the most.			

4.1.5. Publishing

The student's final product or piece of writing made available to others. The process is complete and is submitted for final assessment and/or displayed to an audience, e.g. printed in the school newspaper.

4.2. Resources to Support Genre-Based Approach

In the sections below, examples of materials that can be used at each stage of the genre-based approach are provided.

4.2.1. Modelling

During this stage, students are given models of texts. For example, when learning to write a recipe, they might be given an example of a recipe "How to make fried chicken". They then analyze the example, looking at the format, language and style. Some features of a recipe are a list of ingredients and the steps to make the dish. After analyzing the model, students list their own ingredients and then they start to write their own recipe following the model given by the teacher.

How to Make Chicken Soup	
Ingredients:	***Steps in cooking:***
1/2 kg of sliced chicken	*First, put the oil into the frying pan on the*
50 ml of oil	*stove Second,… Next, … Then …*
Etc.	*Finally, …*

Examples of sample texts that could be included for the genre-based approach can be found in the English Grade 8, Student's Book:

- letter (page 34)
- postcard (page 40)
- journal entry (page 46)

4.2.2. Joint construction of text

During this stage, students write their own drafts and share with their class through various activities such as gallery walk, jigsaw groups, and peer-editing.

4.2.3. Independent construction of text

Students write the final drafts in their notebooks for final assessment.

Lesson 24: Topic Types

Types of Essays: End the Confusion

Effectively writing different types of essays has become critical to academic success. Essay writing is a common school assignment, a part of standardized tests, and a requirement on college applications. Often on tests, choosing the correct type of essay to write in response to a writing prompt is key to getting the question right. Clearly, students can't afford to remain confused about types of essays.

There are over a dozen types of essays, so it's easy to get confused. However, rest assured, the number is actually more manageable. Essentially there are four major types of essays, with the variations making up the remainder.

Four Major Types of Essays

Distinguishing between types of essays is simply a matter of determining the writer's goal. Does the writer want to talk about a personal experience, describe something, explain an issue, or convince the reader to accept a certain viewpoint? The four major types of essays address these purposes:

1. **Narrative Essays: Telling a Story**

   In a narrative essay, the writer tells a story about a real-life experience. While telling a story may sound easy to do, the narrative essay challenges students to think and write about themselves. When writing a narrative essay, writers should try to involve the reader by making the story as vivid as possible. The fact that narrative essays are usually written in the first person helps engage the reader. "I" sentences give readers a feeling of being part of the story. A well-crafted narrative essay will also build towards drawing a conclusion or making a personal statement.

2. **Descriptive Essays: Painting a Picture**

   A cousin of the narrative essay, a descriptive essay paints a picture with words. A writer might describe a person, place, object, or even memory of special significance. However, this type of essay is not description for description's sake. The descriptive essay strives to communicate a deeper meaning through the description. In a descriptive essay, the writer should show, not tell, through the use of colourful words and sensory details. The best descriptive essays appeal to the reader's emotions, with a result that is highly evocative.

3. **Expository Essays: Just the Facts**

   The expository essay is an informative piece of writing that presents a balanced analysis of a topic. In an expository essay, the writer explains or defines a topic, using facts, statistics, and examples. Expository writing encompasses a wide range of essay variations,

such as the comparison and contrast essay, the cause-and-effect essay, and the "how to" or process essay. Because expository essays are based on facts and not personal feelings, writers don't reveal their emotions or write in the first person.

4. **Persuasive Essays: Convince Me**

   While like an expository essay in its presentation of facts, the goal of the persuasive essay is to convince the reader to accept the writer's point of view or recommendation. The writer must build a case using facts and logic, as well as examples, expert opinion, and sound reasoning. The writer should present all sides of the argument, but must be able to communicate clearly and without equivocation why a certain position is correct.

Learn How to Write Different Types of Essays

Time 4Writing essay writing courses offer a highly effective way to learn how to write the types of essays required for school, standardized tests, and college applications. These online writing classes for elementary, middle school, and high school students, break down the writing process into manageable chunks, easily digested by young writers. Students steadily build writing skills and confidence with each online writing course, guided by one-on-one instruction with a dedicated, certified teacher.

In the elementary years, young writers get an introduction to essay writing through two courses designed to bring excitement and enjoyment to the writing process. **Narrative Writing** and **Informative Writing** take young writers on an animal-filled adventure to beginning essay writing. Our middle school online writing courses, **Welcome to the Essay** and **Advanced Essay**, teach students the fundamentals of writing well-constructed essays. The high school online writing class, **Exciting Essay Writing**, focuses in depth on the essay writing process with preparation for college as the goal. The online writing classes for kids also cover how to interpret essay writing prompts in testing situations. **Read what parents are saying about their children's writing progress in Time4Writing's online writing courses.**

How to identify

The 4 Main Types of Writing Styles and How to Use Them as a Writer

One of the things that can help you grow as a writer is to learn the 4 main types of writing styles and use the characteristics of each to further develop your own personal voice as a writer. By learning how to use the different writing styles in your work, you will not only improve your skills as writer, but also learn ways to better connect with your audience of readers.

In this post we'll cover the 4 main types of writing styles and how to use them as a writer to create compelling books, stories, essays, poetry, articles and more.

What are Writing Styles?

Writing styles are basically another way of saying the form or type of written work you are creating. Think of it as a classification for being able to identify what kind of writing you are creating.

For example, if you are writing a cookbook, that is a completely different style of writing than if you were writing a steamy romance novel!

Each writing style has a different purpose – and therefore, different characteristics are present when you are writing each type of different work.

Now that we understand what a writing style is – let's talk about the 4 main writing styles which are commonly talked about amongst writers and literary educators.

The 4 Main Writing Styles & What They Mean. The four main writing styles which are commonly recognized are **expository**, **descriptive**, **narrative**, and **persuasive**.

Style 1: Expository

The definition of expository is this: "intended to explain or describe something." Most types of written work that fall into this category explain something in more detail, or provide insight and instruction in regards to a particular topic.

What types of writing fall into this category of expository writing style?

While there are many different types of written work which can be categorized as expository style of writing, you can often identify this type of writing by noticing the purpose of the work.

- Does the work intend to explain something in more detail?
- Does the written piece inform?
- Does the written piece answer questions such as "what, how and why?"

A business newspaper is an example of expository style writing, in which it contains information, facts, and insight about a particular subject.

Here are some examples of the different types of writing pieces which can fall into the category of expository writing:

- Newspaper and Magazine Articles {not including editorials}
- Non-Fiction Books
- How-To Books
- Self Help Books
- Writing about Hobbies & Interests

- Recipes & Cookbooks
- Instructional Guides
- Scientific Research
- Manuals
- Textbooks & Educational Resources
- Business Articles & Books
- Medical Research, Journals and Articles

When you write expository style pieces, your main goal as a writer is to inform your readers with insight and facts that pertain to the subject of your piece. For example, if you are writing about the history of ice cream, you would be including a lot of research and fun facts into your piece.

Note that this type of writing style is not intended to persuade or influence your audience. In writing your piece on the history of ice cream, you would NOT be trying to persuade your readers. You would not want to say things like "Everybody should eat ice cream!" and "These 5 reasons will convince you forever to choose strawberry swirl flavored ice cream as your favorite flavor."

Sometimes it can be confusing on whether an article is expository or persuasive. For example, an article called "The 5 Unexpected Health Benefits of Ice Cream" – would not fall into expository writing, even though it is providing information.

The word "benefits" has a positive connotation to the title. If you were to be writing an article on possible health benefits on ice cream, it would be very important that you as the writer keep your opinion separated from the facts and information if you plan for it to be an expository style piece. To be expository in nature, you would want to use a title such as "Scientists Research The Health Effects of Ice Cream."

Books and articles that explain how to do something are also very popular examples of expository writing. Cookbooks are very popular, as they explain to others the tips, techniques, and recipes on how to cook something. How-to books for hobbies and crafts are also a good example of this type of writing.

Style 2: Descriptive Writing

Descriptive writing goes deeper than expository writing. While expository writing might have some descriptive details and factual information, descriptive writing will make use of many writing elements and literary devices such as metaphors and similes.

The purpose and goal of descriptive writing is to bring your reader into the written work as if the reader were to be experiencing it first-hand.

Most fictional pieces fall under the category of descriptive writing, and even some non-fiction pieces such as memoirs and creative non-fiction can fall under the category of a descriptive writing style.

If you are writing fiction, the more descriptive you can be with your words, the more relatable your story will be to the reader.

For example, we recommend that writers ask their characters questions as one way to really intimately understand the details about a character. Details about the setting, events, and people present in a story will help your readers be able to imagine and understand the piece.

This style also includes poetry. If you browse through some of our poetry writing prompts, you will see there is a lot of attention put on using details to create a scene or feeling in writing a poem!

Here are some examples of types of descriptive writing pieces:

- Poetry & Prose
- Travel Diaries
- Personal Journals
- Lyrics in Music and Songwriting

Most pieces using only a descriptive writing style are not very long. It is uncommon for a fictional novel to be 100% fully descriptive without getting into our next writing style, which is narrative writing.

Style 3: Narrative Writing

Narrative writing is far more complex that simple descriptive writing.

While a poem for example may describe a scene or even events or people – generally you do not get into the deep inner thoughts of the characters or even get a full story with a clear middle, beginning, and end complete with conflict and dialogue.

Nearly all fiction novels fall into the case of narrative writing, as well as longer epic poems and sagas.

In narrative writing, there is a story to be told – a clear plot completes with setting, characters, dialogue, conflict and resolution. A narrative piece often has a timeline or sequence of events which further build to the point of conflict and resolution.

Here are some examples of the work which would be considered to have a narrative writing style:

- Fiction Novels
- Memoirs & Biographies
- Screenplays
- Epic Poems
- Sagas
- Myths, Legends, and Fables
- Historical accounts
- Essays which talk about a lesson learned or valuable insight from an experience

Narrative writing pieces are generally easy to identify, although sometimes it can be confused with descriptive writing styles. The key difference in determining which one a written work might be is whether or not there is a developed storyline or plot.

If there is a well-developed plot and storyline, you are most likely reading narrative writing.

Style 4: Persuasive Writing

Persuasive writing is a type of writing style where the purpose is to influence someone into believing or doing something. As the word "persuasive" suggests – your goal is to persuade someone's actions or thoughts to align with your own goals as the writer.

The persuasive writing essay is a popular homework assignment for many kids. For example, a student might be assigned to write an essay to convince their parents of something. "Why We Should Get a Pet Rabbit" and "5 Reasons You Should Not Make Me Clean My Room".

Persuasive writing is intended to convince someone of something, and so it usually needs to have a good bit of research and logical analysis – but also should attempt to make an emotional connection to the desired audience as well.

A classic piece of writing which serves as an example of persuasive writing is Thomas Paine's book Common Sense, which was written in the colonial times of the American Revolutionary War, urging citizens that separating from England was of utmost importance.

Here are some examples of types of writing which are persuasive writing:

- Editorial & Opinion pieces in Newspapers and Magazines
- Essays on a specific belief or "hot button" topic
- Letters written to request an action or file a complaint
- Advertisements {Convincing you to buy something}
- Copywriting {Note, copywriting is different from copyright!}

- Company Brochures
- Business Proposals
- Political speeches

When the intention of the work is to convince the audience of something – this fall into persuasive writing.

How to Use the 4 Main Different Writing Styles as a Writer

Now that we know the different types of writing styles, you may be wondering how do you use each style?

The first thing to do is think about what you are planning to write and what the intention is. What is your goal and what type of message are you trying to communicate to your readers?

Expository Style Writing:

In this type of writing your goal is to inform your readers about research or data.

When writing expository style pieces, follow these guidelines:

- Avoid using words which have a positive or negative connotation
- Do not insert your opinion or attempt to persuade your audience into thinking, feeling, or doing something based on your beliefs
- Use research and cite your sources
- When writing online, link to additional resources or websites
- Use quotes, illustrations or informative graphics to highlight the information
- Give concise and clear directions

Descriptive Writing Style:

This type of writing has the goal to describe something and bring into your reader's imaginations.

Here are some tips for writing with descriptive writing styles:

- Use literary devices such as metaphors and similes.
- Use well thought out adjectives and adverbs to describe nouns and verbs.
- Bring attention to small details
- Use the 6 senses: sight, touch, taste, smell, sound, and feeling

Narrative Writing Style:

In narrative writing style, your goal is to convey a storyline to your readers.

Here is how to achieve this type of writing style:

- Outline a storyline, plot or timeline sequence of events
- Include detailed descriptions of your characters and scenes
- Give your readers insight into the inner thoughts or behind-the-scenes information to elements of your story
- Answer the 6 W questions in your writing: Who, What, When, Where, How, and Why?
- Make it so your piece of work conveys an important lesson or insight – what is the moral of the story? What was the outcome of this experience?
- Use concrete language which gives readers a specific image to visualize and relate to

Persuasive Writing Style:

When you are writing to persuade, your intention is to convince your readers to side with you. This can be as simple as convincing them to buy your latest new product, or even writing about important social and humanitarian issues.

Here are some tips for writing persuasively:

- Include information, data, and facts to back up your argument
- Cite your sources and give readers access to additional information
- Appeal to your readers on an emotional level – how will siding with your opinion connect with them and make them feel?
- Take into consideration your reader's needs, wants, and desires and how your message will help your reader achieve these.

Understanding Writing Styles Can Help You Be a Better Writer

No matter what type of writing you enjoy creating – understanding the basic main 4 types of writing styles can help you become a better writer.

If you are writing a how-to article for example, you will be able to understand what types of elements to ensure your piece of work includes. If you're writing a descriptive poem, knowing what type of language to use can help convey your message for abstract concepts.

Use these different writing styles as a fun writing exercise!

Even if you typically only write for one style, it can be a lot of fun to push yourself to try to write for the different types of styles. For example, try writing a persuasive essay, and then a

descriptive essay on the same topic. It can also be fun to write a descriptive poem and then turn it into a narrative essay or short story.

Not sure what to write about using these different writing styles? We have TONS of ideas for you with many different writing prompts! Check out our list of 365 writing prompts ideas which are sure to inspire your creative muse!

Using prompts is a great way to help you start writing in different writing styles and push yourself to a new exciting challenge for your writing skills!

I hope this article about the different writing styles and how you can use them as a writer will be helpful for you in building and developing your written skillset.

What types of writing styles do you enjoy writing the most? Have any tips for writing in expository, descriptive, narrative or persuasive styles of writing? We'd love to hear your ideas and experiences in the comments section below!

https://www.time4writing.com/writing-resources/types-of-essays/

https://thinkwritten.com/writing-styles/

Lesson 25: Responding to Written Work

Responding to Student Writing

Some general principles

- Assessment of student writing really begins with assignment design, because that is the best time to determine what you want students to achieve with the assignment, and what constitutes a good response.
- Students value thoughtful feedback that engages them in dialogue with a reader making an effort to understand what they have to say.
- Reactive commenting and line editing result in fragmented and confusing feedback.
- Some of the most useful forms of commenting include (i) questions stimulating further thought, (ii) brief summaries of what the reader got out of the paper, and (iii) descriptions of difficulties the reader encountered.
- Offering your more detailed feedback on drafts that students will revise puts it to more efficient and effective use.

Some best practices

- To promote student writing as an act of communication, and not simply an exercise in meeting instructor expectations, read each essay as a *reader* first, and as a grader last.
- After you've read an essay once through without marking it, choose the two or three most important elements to highlight in a global comment placed at the beginning or end of the paper.
- Finally, insert selective marginal comments, questions, and praise to reinforce the global comment. Use global and marginal comments together to create a coherent set of responses to the paper.
- If you are commenting on style, grammar, and punctuation, mark up a single representative paragraph as a model of patterns encountered throughout the essay.
- Distribute rubrics and other grading criteria in advance of assigning grades to a specific set of essays.

Some time-saving strategies

- Invest time in discussing and responding to student writing early in a course to achieve stronger writing throughout the semester.
- Skim a set of essays to identify common problems, and construct a handout addressing them, rather than commenting on them in each essay.

- As you skim the set, note the range of responses, so that you can focus your assessment of individual essays more precisely.
- Design assignments that teach particular skills, and then limit your comments to the success with which those skills are demonstrated.
- Stage assignments in parts, so that students can receive feedback on specific areas (thesis, introduction, topic sentences, e.g.) that will produce more successful completed essays.
- Assign low-stakes writing that reinforces learning, but can be read quickly, or not at all (and/or, use pairs or peer groups to respond, either in class or over Canvas).
- Use peer groups to respond to drafts, even in very large classes, where you can distribute essays over email or Canvas, and have students discuss the papers in sections, making note only of compliance.
- Ask students to turn in a self-reflective note on their essay's strengths and weaknesses along with their draft.
- When you have responded to student drafts, final essays need only a summative comment noting the success of the revision and the essay's overall strengths and weaknesses.
- If an essay is very confusing, or if the feedback you want to convey is highly complex, make a general note of the issue, and ask the student to schedule an appointment.

Some resources (and sources we've borrowed from here)

Responding to Student Papers Effectively and Efficiently

Your comments on student work can contribute to your teaching as well as explaining and defending the grade. Fortunately, the most helpful ways of responding to students' writing—before, during, and after grading—also save time and frustration for you.

Giving the Assignment

1. Help students see what role the assignment plays in course goals, especially in practicing ways of thinking in the discipline.
2. Ensure that students know what is meant by terms such as *essay*, *analyze*, *argue*, and *evidence*.
3. Indicate on the assignment sheet and in class discussion the expectations for each piece of work. Distribute and discuss your marking scale or rubric if you use one, or direct students to their official faculty statement about what grades mean.
4. Showing good (and improvable) samples of past student writing to the class also sets standards and clarifies expectations. Present them as examples of possible approaches, not as models or templates. Among other elements to mention, pointing out appropriate ways of integrating and referring to sources can diminish many problems.

5. For major assignments, ask for sentence-form outlines or annotated reference lists well ahead of the due date. (See the Advice section of this site for concise files on outlines and annotated bibliographies.) You can read them quickly and give brief preventive or encouraging comments. Investing your effort at this stage saves time pointing out preventable flaws in final papers. This practice also deters plagiarism.

6. Don't wait till the due date to find out what students' problems are — by then, they're your problems. Encourage students to ask questions in class. They may harbor misunderstandings about suitable sources, the place of personal opinion, collaborative work, etc. If students are reluctant to speak out individually, ask them to generate questions in small groups: three or four students together may realize they are all wondering the same thing.

7. Shortly before the due date, use ten minutes of class time to ask about students' progress and discoveries (Example "What useful material have you found?"; "What surprised you in your observations?"; "What disagreements did you find among your sources?"). Ask students to write quick answers to similar questions. Respond individually with a checkmark or a word of comment if you can/ skim through the set and comment in class on the patterns you see.

8. When students consult you in office hours, work on problem-solving along with them. Let them know that recognizing difficulties in a topic is a way of getting into depth about it. If they seem overwhelmed by the task of organizing the paper, don't just give a formula: ask them to tell you in four of five sentences why have chosen a topic, what they want to say about it, and why that is worth saying. Then encourage them to build the paper from what they said. Don't get drawn into supplying ideas or promising approval of revisions.

9. You're not the only one who can give helpful comments on drafts. Students benefit greatly from participating in guided peer response groups. Consider using some class time (perhaps in the class preceding the due date) to get students to look at each other's drafts in pairs to answer focused questions: "What was the most interesting idea in this piece?" "What points need further explanation?" Ask students to serve as authentic readers of each other's work rather than proofreaders.

10. Don't try to do everything yourself. Encourage students to use other relevant resources. Make sure that students know about handbooks on writing in your discipline, online advice on academic writing, and writing centers in their faculties or colleges. Other campus resources also provide specialized help for anxious students, those with possible learning disabilities (e.g., a striking discrepancy between oral and written performance), and students learning English as a new language. Follow up your recommendations by asking students about their learning experiences with these resources, and comment on any improvements you see in subsequent work.

While Marking

1. Don't write any more on the paper than the student is going to read and understand. Keep in mind that ambitious students are likely to be more interested in your comments than students who aim only at getting through.
2. Make the most comments on the things you care about the most. That's probably the content of your course rather than details of grammar or punctuation. Students become confused and sometimes resentful when their papers are covered with scribbled corrections.
3. When you get the pile of papers, don't just plunge in with your red pen or your finger on the "comment" button. Look through the whole set (with your marking scale at hand), and get a sense of overall patterns. If you are co-marking with others, this is a good stage to meet and clarify expectations, perhaps working out a rubric on the spot if you don't have one already. (It's worthwhile to pay course TAs for this type of preliminary "benchmarking" meeting—more efficient and much more enjoyable than spending time later correcting off-target grading.)
4. For marginal comments, using pencil lets you erase in case of second thoughts. Or word-process a list of comments matching numbers in the margins.
5. For final notes, the computer is invaluable: you can erase and revise, your notes are legible, and you have a record of what you said. Students see printed notes as respectful of their work.
6. For positive remarks, use personal pronouns and names ("Jenna, I enjoyed your succinct analysis of X and your cogent comments on Y"). Criticisms can be stated impersonally ("This paper sets out accurate information about A but does not provide an analysis").
7. To avoid over-praising, use descriptions of partial success: "This paper summarizes the arguments of X and Y"; "You have put considerable effort into explaining your anomalous results"; "You show that you have understood the assigned reading."
8. To avoid a crashing "But," try putting criticisms in point form. They can be explicit directions ("Next time, check your paper in these ways: . . .) or suggestions for further consideration: ("I was left wondering about these points . . ."). Avoid writing truncated marginal questions ("meaning?" "source?"), which can sound sarcastic or accusatory.
9. The most important stylistic criticism you can make is that a statement is unclear, or that you can't follow the argument in a specific passage. Try to indicate where you got lost, and why. This is appropriate even in timed writing like tests.

10. Correcting or noting *all* errors of style or grammar shows your annoyance, but it wastes your time, and research on student learning demonstrates consistently that it teaches very little. Pointing out two or three *kinds* of error, however, can show receptive students how to focus their revision efforts. Back up your analysis with referrals to sources of instruction, and let students know you expect to see improvements.

11. If you feel you must indicate the volume of errors in a student's writing, draw a line or a box around a representative segment of text (e.g., a middle paragraph), and circle the errors there.

    If the errors affect your grade, say so, emphasizing that they affect clarity of content and communication.

12. Students learning English make errors that fall into fairly standard and limited patterns, even if they look chaotic and pervasive at first sight. Given the process of second-language acquisition, some errors are more tractable than others. If you want to comment on a few kinds of error, see the notes below. (Our faculty advice files about **Multilingual Students** show other ways to help the English-language learners in your class.)

    - Vocabulary errors in key words and phrases can cause confusion and look unprofessional. Circle and correct these when they occur in titles, headings, and topic sentences, and encourage students to work on accurate usage in these areas in particular.
    - Problems with *the* and *a*, and with prepositions like *by* and *in*, make for odd-looking prose, but don't usually create real barriers to understanding. These usages are complex and sometimes illogical in English, and errors are equivalent to "writing with an accent." It's not worthwhile to correct them aggressively.
    - Verb errors, on the other hand, especially in tenses and modal forms (*might, would, could*) can be learned. Again, don't proofread, but you could recommend that the student review usage of particular verbs forms or uses relevant to your discipline (e.g. present tenses for
    - referring to literary texts ["Hamlet says"] and for statements in discussion sections of science reports ["our results suggest"]). Ask students to check specifically for verbs as part of revision.
    - Direct students to the courses, workshops, and individual instruction available to those who want to invest time in learning English thoroughly: see our pages about **English Language Support**. Your recommendation can help motivate this effort.

After Returning Papers

1. If many students display a particular weakness in reasoning or style, you can best explain it in a few minutes of class time, a printed sheet, or a file in your Blackboard site. Offer examples of successes too.
2. Some problems need individual counselling, leave some of your marking time for giving oral feedback. Make a succinct final comment and ask the student to come to your office and discuss a strategy for improvement.
3. When possible, offer the chance to rewrite for re-grading. Ask students to hand in the old version along with the rewritten one; then average the old and new marks. Ask also for a note on the strategies used in revising. This lets you stick to your high standards, makes the suggestions in your initial comments realistic, and demands self-assessment. Only a few students will take you up on the offer, but some of them will improve dramatically.
4. Use a similar method to deal with grade complaints: ask students to write a self-evaluation in terms of the assignment prompt and its rubric, and to come and discuss the paper with you in person.
5. See the point above on not trying to do everything yourself. Send students to specialized help and expect them to follow through.

Gottschalk, Katherine, and Keith Hjortshoj. *The Elements of Teaching Writing: A Resource for Instructors in All Disciplines*. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2004.

Hedengren, Beth Finch. *A TA's Guide to Teaching Writing in All Disciplines*. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's, 2004.

Lesson 26: Types of Meaning

A word is the smallest unit of spoken language which has meaning and can stand alone, it is a written representation of one or more sounds which can be spoken to represent an idea, object, action, etc. in order to be understood by the people, a word must have a meaning.

Most words have more than one meaning, it is the characteristic of words that a single word may have several meanings, in fact, words may play an enormous part in our life. Words are used to express something and also conveys feelings about what we are describing. Words are used not in isolation but related to human situation. It is through our experience with them in human situation that they take on meaning.

If we talk about words, we cannot avoid talking about the study of meaning (semantics). The meaning of words is often complex, having such component as a picture, an idea, a quality, a relationship and personal feelings and association. Lyons 1977:643 in Palmer1981:40-41) suggested that we should draw a distinction between sentence meaning and utterance meaning, the sentence meaning being directly predictable from the grammatical and lexical features of the sentence, while utterance meaning includes all the various types of meaning, then, is the part of meaning of a sentence that we are going to discuss in the next following. Lyons states that, utterance meaning is the part of meaning of a sentence that is directly related to grammatical and lexical features, but is obtained either from associated prosodic and paralinguistic features or from the content, linguistic and non-linguistic. The seven types of meaning are as follows:

1. **Conceptual Meaning** (logical, cognitive, or denotative content)

Conceptual meaning is sometimes called denotative meaning or cognitive meaning, it is widely assumed to be the central factor in linguistic communication. Larson noted that denotative meaning is also called as primary meaning, that is the meaning suggested by the word when it used alone. It is the first meaning or usage which a word will suggest to most people when the word is said in isolation. it is the meaning learned early in life and likely to have reference to a physical situation (Larson, 1984: 100)

It refers to the dictionary meaning which indicates the concepts. In reading we can find many different words have the same conceptual meanings. Take the word walk as an example, the conceptual meaning or the primary dictionary meaning is to move forward by placing one foot in front of the other. There are also a few other words that, according to the dictionary, mean to move forward on foot, etc.

The denotation of word is its agreed-upon sense-what it refers to, stands for, or designates, a part from the feeling it may call up, and this again is able for a good deal on the context the words that appears in.

It is said that the aim of denotative meaning is to provide, for any given interpretation of a sentence, a configuration of abstract symbols, in which shows exactly what we need to know if we are to distinguish that meaning from all other possible sentence meaning in the language.

2. Connotative Meaning (what is communicated by virtue of what language refers to)

As we experience, words are human situations, they not only take on certain denotation, but also often acquire individual flavors. They have come to have emotive tone, the associations, and suggestiveness of the situation in which they have been a part. For example, let us examine the words "brink". This denotes on "edge". However, in the phrase "*The brink of the cliff" or" the brink of disaster"*, this word suggests danger and its emotive tone is that of fear.

According to Leech (1974: 40-41) connotative meaning is the communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual content. It will be clear if we are talking about connotation, we are in fact talking about the "real word experience". Someone associates with an expression when someone uses and hears it. The fact that if we compared connotative meaning with denotative meaning is that connotations are relatively unstable; that is, they vary considerably we have seen, according to culture, historical period, and the experience of the individual. Although all the speaker of particular language speaks the language exactly the same conceptual framework, actually each of them has individual perception of words. Connotative meaning is indeterminate and open in the same way as our knowledge and belief about the universe are opened-ended. Connotations play a major role in the language of literature, of politics, of advertising, and a greeting card.

It refers to the associations that are connected to a certain word or the emotional suggestions related to that word. The connotative meanings of a word exist together with the denotative meanings. The connotations for the word snake could include evil or danger.

3. Stylistic Meaning (what is communicated of the social circumstances of language use)

Stylistic meaning is that which a piece of language conveys about the circumstances of its use. A recent account of English has recognized some main dimensions of stylistic variation. For instance:

a. They chucked a stone at the cops, and then did a bunk with the loot.

b. After casting a stone at the police, they absconded with the money.

Sentence (1) could be said by the two criminals, talking casually about the crime afterwards; sentence (2) might be said by the chief of the police in making the official report; both could describe the same happening (Leech, 1974: 15)

Social meaning refers to the usage of language in and by society which has big proportions in determining the meaning that certain speaker has to use and wants to convey, those factors include social class of the speaker and hearer and the degree of formality. Only part of the social

meaning of a conversation is carried by words. Take saying hello or talking about the weather. Often such talk has little dictionary meaning. It is a way of being friendly or polite.

4. **Affective Meaning** (what is communicated of the feeling and attitudes of the speaker/writer)

Affective meaning is a sort of meaning which an effect the personal feeling of speakers, including his/her attitude to the listener, or his/her attitude to something he/she talking about. In order to get people attention to be quiet, we might say either (1)" *I'm terribly sorry to interrupt, but I wonder if you would be so kind as to lower your voice as a little*" or (2) "Will you belt up". Factors such as intonation and voice timbre are also important here. The impression of politeness in the sentence (1) can be reserved by tone of biting sarcasm; sentence (2) can be turn into a playful remark between intimates if delivered with the intonation of a mild request.

Affective meaning refers to the speaker's feeling / attitude towards the content or the ongoing context. It is important to remember that each individual will have a different affective meaning for a word. As such, only the person using a word will be aware of the particular affective meaning that they hold with the word. For example, we can discuss the word winter further. The word winter denotatively refers to a time period during which either the northern or southern hemisphere is furthest away from the sun. Different use of stress and intonation also provides a striking contrast in the feelings and attitudes communicated through an utterance.

5. **Reflected Meaning** (what is communicated through association with another sense of the same expression)

Reflected meaning involves an interconnection on the lexical level of language, it is the meaning, which arises in case of multiple conceptual meaning, when one senses of word forms part of our response to another sense. For instance, on hearing the Church service, the synonymous expressions The Comforter and The Holy Ghost both refer to the Third Trinity, but the Comforter sounds warm and comforting, while the Holy Ghost sounds awesome.

Reflected meaning refers to terms which have more than one meaning surfaces at the same time, so there is a kind of ambiguity. It is as if one or more unintended meanings were inevitably thrown back rather like light or sound reflected on a surface. For instance, if I use the medical expression chronic bronchitis, it is difficult for the more colloquial emotive meaning of chronic, 'bad,' not to intrude as well. . . . Sometimes, such coincidental, 'unwanted' meanings cause us to change a lexical item for another.

6. **Collocative Meaning** (what is communicated through association with words which tend to occur in the environment of another word)

Collocative meaning consists of the associations a word acquires s on account of the meanings of the words, which tends to occur in its environment. For instance, the words pretty and handsome share common ground in the meaning of good looking. But may be distinguished by the range of noun in which they are like to occur or collocate; Pretty woman and handsome man.

The ranges may well match although they suggest a different kind of attractiveness of the adjectives.

Collocative meaning refers to the associations a word acquires on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in its environment. In other words, it is that part of the word-meaning suggested by the words that go before or come after a word in question, for instance, heavy news (a piece of sad news); heavy schedule (a very tight schedule); fast color (the color that does not fade); fast friend (a reliable friend); fast woman (a lady of easy virtue), etc.

7. **Thematic Meaning** (what is communicated by the way in which the message is organized in terms of order and emphasis).

This is the final category of meaning, thematic meaning is the meaning that is communicated by the way in which the speaker or writer organizes the message, in terms of ordering, focus, and emphasis. It is often felt an active sentence such as (1) below has a different meaning from its passive equivalent (2) although in conceptual content they seem to be the same (Leech. 1974: 19)

a. Mrs. Bessie Smith donated the first prize.

b. The first prize was donated by Mrs. Bessie Smith

We can assume that the active sentence answers an implicit question "*what did Mrs. Bessie Smith donate*?", while the passive sentence answers the implicit question "*who donates the first prize*?", that in other words (1) in contrast to (2) suggest that we know who Mrs. Bessie Smith. Thematic meaning relates to or constitutes a topic of discourse, the meaning that the word conveys is that of something that is connected with the theme of something

Lesson 27: Sense Relations

TKT: KAL Part 1 Lexis: Sense relations – Participant's Worksheet

Exercise 1

Match the terms to the definitions

Terms	Definitions
1. Synonyms 2. Antonyms 3. Hyponyms 4. Lexical set 5. False friends 6. Superordinate 7. Word families	a. Words that all derive from the same base word b. Words with a similar form but different meaning across two languages c. Words which have the same or nearly the same meaning d. Words which are the name for a type or category of thing e. Words which are examples of a type of thing f. Words which mean the opposite of other words g. Words all related to the same topic area

Exercise 2

Put these words into the right column in the table

material difficult fast reasonable silly
insensible slowly speedily easy
plastic sensitive (Romance languages) glassy
hardship sensibility logical carefully quick sensibly

	glass	hard	sensible	quickly
synonym				
antonym				
hyponym				
lexical set				
false friend				
superordinate				
word family				

Exercise 3

Complete as many boxes as possible in this table with one or more words

	difficult	banana	embarrassed	computer	to run
synonym					
antonym					
hyponym					
lexical set					
false friend					
superordinate					
word family					

TKT: KAL Part 1 Lexis: Sense relations – Sample Task

A teacher is doing a task on the meaning relationships between words for her own professional development.

Domestic robots

Robots in film and literature tend to fall into one of two camps: Line 1
terrifying, 'destroy all humans' such as Terminator, or friendly servant Line 2
droids like C-3PO. Line 3
Military research units across the globe are working hard to make the Line 4
former a reality, speeding us toward Judgement Day with merry Line 5
abandon. But those of us who'd prefer to invite a nice, gentle, helpful Line 6
robot into our home, as opposed to having an aggressive, scary T-1000 Line 7
kick the door in, are also being catered for. Line 8
Smart machines that do the housework, including vacuuming the Line 9
house, cleaning the gutter, washing up the knives, forks, plates etc. and Line 10
mowing the lawn can all be purchased today, and advanced humanoid Line 11
robots that perform a range of household tasks are also in Line 12
development. Take a look at some of the smartest current purchases, Line 13
and upcoming, domestic robots. Line 14

Read the text and the three possible answers, listed A, B and C.

1. Which line contains an example of words which are antonyms of each other?
   A. line 2 B. line 6 C. line 9
2. 2 Which line contains an example of words which belong to the same lexical set?
   A. line 4 B. line 8 C. line 10
3. 3 Which line contains words which are partial synonyms of each another?
   A. line 5 B. line 6 C. line 9
4. Which lines contain words which belong to the same word family?
   A. lines 2 and 4 B. lines 7 and 9 C. lines 11 and 13
5. Which line contains a word which is a superordinate of other words in the text?
   A. line 4 B. line 5 C. line 9
6. Which line contains words which are hyponyms of each other?
   A. line 7 B. line 8 C. line 12

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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Lesson 28: Word Formation

TKT: KAL Part 1 Lexis: Word formation – Participant's Worksheet 1

1. Label these sets of words 1–6 with the kinds of word formation, A–F, they exemplify. N.B. Some sets may exemplify more than one kind.

A: morphemes B: affixes C: compounds D: acronyms

E: spelling rules F: word families

……..

1

walk, walking, walker

……

2

FAQ, EFL, ATM

……..

3

"i before e except after c" Double the consonant at the end of words if it is a single consonant in a single syllable word containing a short vowel.

……..

4

un- -ly re -ish dis -er -ment

……

5

-s il- -ed break -tion sock

……

6

birthday, toothbrush, to catch sight (of)

……..

2. Add at least two more examples to each box.

TKT: KAL Part 1 Lexis: Word formation – Participant's Worksheet 2

The following definitions of these terms for different types of word formation are all slightly wrong. Reword them so that they are exact.

Compounds These are words formed from three or more words, and the meaning of which comes from the main word in the compound. Compounds can only be nouns, e.g. bookshelf, evening meal.

Morphemes These are the smallest possible words in a language. There are two kinds of morpheme – those which must be attached to another word, e.g., un-, and those which can stand alone, e.g. countable. The word handbags contain two morphemes.

Acronyms A word formed from the first and last letters of several words and that is pronounceable as a normal word, e.g., JPEG or radar. Sometimes it is also used to refer to just a string of initials representing the first letter in a group of words but pronounced as letters rather than as a word, e.g., HTML.

Affixation There are two kinds of affixation in English: prefixes and infixes. Prefixes are attached to the beginning of a word, while suffixes are added in the middle. Affixes can have a grammatical function e.g., plural 's' or the past tense ending '–ed'. They may also change a word's lexical set, e.g., happy-happiness, careful-carefully. Often prefixes and suffixes also have particular meanings attached to them e.g., un-/ il-/ ir-/ re- have a negative meaning when attached to an adjective.

Word families These are words which are all related by topic to a base word, e.g. direct, direction, director, directing, undirected.

Spelling rules These are rules which govern how words are pronounced in English. They help particularly with knowing when to double letters and the spelling of adverbs. They can also guide the spelling of silent letters, i.e. letters in a word which do not contribute to a word's pronunciation, e.g. climb, knife, sign.

TKT: KAL Part 1 Lexis: Word formation – Sample Task

A teacher is researching word formation in preparation for teaching aspects of it to a class. Match the examples with the types of word formation listed A – E.

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

Types of word formation Examples

A compound words	1. AWOL, PIN
B words with affixes	2. onto, in order to
C morphemes	3. teacher, receptionist
D acronyms	4. can, not, -ing
E word families	5. satisfy, satisfaction, dissatisfied
	6. barman, headmaster
	7. unfortunately, mispronunciation
	8. un-, will, -ly

Lesson 29: Lexical Units

TKT KAL Part 1, Application of Lexical Knowledge to Teaching

What is lexis?

Teacher attitudes to vocabulary have changed a lot over recent years. The use of the word lexis (rather than the more familiar vocabulary) reflects a fundamental shift in understanding, attitude and approach. The increasing availability of corpora (large computerized databases of analyzable real conversations and other text), and dictionaries, grammar books and other resources based on them have revealed many surprising features of language that had been previously unrealized. An influential book, The Lexical Approach by Michael Lewis published in 1993, had a significant impact on the profession in raising awareness of the importance of lexis and of the weaknesses of much classroom vocabulary work. So what is lexis? Is it more than just a fancy word for vocabulary? How does lexis relate to grammar? I'll give some definitions on the next page, but first it may be useful to see why there is a need for these different words.

1. Choose <u>one</u> of the following. *Circle* it.

lexical set	*word family*	*collocation*	*idiom*	*fixed phrase*	*semi-fixed phrase*

2. Write some examples of it below.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. Now imagine that you are going to teach these words to a class. Think about how you can use your knowledge of the lexical item you circled above to teach it more effectively. Discuss some teaching techniques you could use in your class. Write your ideas below.

a. What I know about it:

_____

_____

_____

_____

b. Teaching techniques:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

TKT: KAL Part 1 Lexis: Lexical Units- Participants' Worksheet

Spot the chuck which does not belong in each set.

A: Collocations

Set the table to log on frightening trees brand new

hideously expensive a sharp drop broken trousers

(it) rose dramatically beautiful driven to work hard

the cat's tail broken fence

B: Idioms

a little bird told me to learn the ropes to multi-task

runs in the family up to his eyes in work to get up

a great day for swimming drag and drop on its last legs

to be in someone's bed books laugh hysterically

take something in your stride nobody's business

C: Fixed phrases

to sum up come in handy the back door to tell you the truth one way or another so to speak

business is looking up the thing is more or less

as a matter of fact scrambled eggs time and again

a biased argument you might as well generally speaking

D: Formulaic phrases

Bye for now What a lovely haircut! How are you?

Pass me that book Is this seat free? Nobody's interested

Get a move on No worries See you later

The future looks promising How's it going?

Sleep well Cheers Have a good day

TKT: KAL Part 1 Lexis: Lexical Units – Sample Task

A teacher is completing a task on lexis on a teacher training website for her own professional development.

Match the sentences with the types of lexical units they contain, listed A – F. You will need to use some of the options more than once.

Types of lexical unit

A. formulaic phrase

B. compound

C. idioms

D. word family

E. lexical set

F. fixed phrase

Sentences

1. 'Have a good trip' he said, as Jane climbed on to the coach.

2. After you've cleaned the stove, I'll clean all those dirty cushions.

3. I must remember to pack my alarm clock.

4. Sooner or later he'll have to retire.

5. 'Look after yourself' was something he always used to repeat.

6. She put her printer and computer onto the new desk.

7. 'I really need to buy a new hard drive', Tom said unhappily.

8. 'Don't judge a book by its cover' is excellent advice.

9. The argument was very one-sided.

TKT KAL Lexical Units

Lexical units refer to combinations of words. Below are some different types of lexical units. For each one:

a. write a definition
b. give one example from the book
c. give your own example that is not in the book

1. Collocations, p. 20-21	
Definition	
Example from book	
Your own example	

2. Idioms, p. 21	
Definition	
Example from book	
Your own example	

3. Fixed phrases, p. 22	
Definition	
Example from book	
Your own example	

4. Semi-fixed phrases, p. 22	
Definition	
Example from book	
Your own example	

Grouping lexical items for teaching

Think of one or two other ways to group lexical items for teaching.

Presentation techniques for lexis.

If you just want to quickly convey the meaning of one or more lexical items, there are a number of ways you could do that. The most common technique probably involves a presentation—practice route:

- Present: you first offer some cues, pictures or information about the target items and elicit the words from students or model them yourself. You will need to check that learners have understood how they are formed, what they mean and how they are used.
- Practice: you then get the students to practice, e.g. by repeating items, using them in short dialogues, etc.

These techniques are similar to those used in the present—practice section on grammar (see Chapter 7, Section 2).

Alternatively, there are many other ways to convey meaning. For each lexical item in the following random list, I've suggested a different way that you could help students begin to learn the meaning.

gloves	Mime putting them on.
disgusting	Mime (eg smelling old food) and make a facial expression.
swimming	Translate it.
café	Draw a quick sketch on the board or show a flashcard or picture in a book.
often	Draw a line. Mark never at one end and always at the other. Mark points along it: usually, rarely, etc.
chase	Get two or three students to act it out.
frightened	Tell a personal anecdote.
crossroads	Build a model with Cuisenaire rods or toy construction bricks.
window sill	Point to the object.
exploitation	Explain the meaning (with examples).
hope	Read out the dictionary definition.
put up with	Tell a short story that includes it.
stapler	Bring one into class to show them.
put your foot down	Act out a short conversation.
contact lens	Students who know explain to those who don't.
reduction	Draw a diagram or graph.

Some of these ideas used on their own might seem more time-consuming than is worthwhile for a single word. However, they may be valid if they are generative, ie if they also allow you to introduce other items using the same technique, context or illustration. For example, the idea given above for crossroads involves using Cuisenaire rods to make a little road scene, which presumably would take a minute or so to set up and introduce. That might arguably be long-winded, but becomes more usable if, having set up the scene, you can then also easily teach traffic lights, zebra crossing, signpost, traffic using the same situational context.

Bear in mind that, whatever you do, the stand-alone words are not much use on their own. For example, disgusting as a single word has some use but is limited. But if students know that they can smell food and say 'Ooh! That's disgusting!' and 'That café was absolutely disgusting!', it starts to become a really usable item. So, if you present lexical items, remember not just to teach isolated items, but to make sure that learners get to hear and use them in realistic sentences.

Knowing a lexical item

What are some things you can know about a lexical item?

You can know . .	**Notes**
how it's spelled	……..
the number of syllables	……..
phonemes	the sounds that make up the word
which syllables are stressed	short words usually have one main stress; longer words may have a number of secondary stresses, too
which stresses are stronger or weaker	…….. ……..
what part(s) of speech it is	……..
grammatically related forms	e.g. the past-tense form of a verb
the basic, 'core' meaning	e.g. table = piece of furniture with a flat surface and legs
other meanings	……..

the 'semantic space' it occupies	where the meaning of one word ends and another begins, e.g. fence/wall/hedge
metaphorical meanings	e.g. the uses of 'water' words to talk about business: drowning in debt, cash flow, etc.
connotation	the associations and 'feelings' that seem to attach to words quite apart from their literal meaning, e.g. junkie sounds more disapproving than drug user
appropriacy for certain social situations, contexts, etc.	e.g. it may not be appropriate to call a job interviewer mate
restrictions on meaning	things that the item cannot be used for
immediate collocates	words that typically go with the word
collocational field	the range of words that an item collocates with
colligation	the grammatical position in a sentence that the word typically takes, and the grammatical patterns that typically go with this item
common chunks, phrases, idioms it appears in	…….. ……..
translation(s)	words often do not have a precise correlation
false friends	words which in translation suggest a wrong meaning, e.g. in Halian caldo looks similar to the English cold, but in fact means hot
true friends	words which mean almost precisely the same in the other language
lexical families	other words related to the word by its topic, e.g. saucepan, can opener, ladle,
lexical sets	many words are related to other words that cover a wider or smaller range of meaning, eg sweater is included Within clothes. Similarly, sweater itself includes polo-neck sweater

synonyms	words with similar meanings
homonyms	words that have the same spelling but have different meanings
homophones	words that are pronounced the same but have a different meaning
opposites (antonyms)	……..
suffixes that can be added to the word	e.g. possess — possession
prefixes that can be added to the word	e.g. flow — overflow
the visual image people typically have for this word	…….. …….. ……..
personal feelings about this word	…….. ……..
mnemonics (things help you remember the word)	…….. ……..

Now this, of course, is a massive list. There is no way that an initial classroom meeting with a lexical item could deal with more than two or three of these. Naturally, therefore, initial teaching tends to prioritize on core meaning, spelling and pronunciation. However, problems arise when classroom work continually focuses on introducing more and more new items in this way — and doesn't explore in more depth. By Intermediate level, most students will have met a large percentage of the most useful English lexical items. It's arguable that by this point in a learner's progress, it becomes more important to explore uses of lexical items they already know than to learn new things, i.e. what is new is not the words themselves but the new combinations and patterns they are used in. This suggests that, rather than following a traditional teaching model such as 'teach new lexis, then practice it, then later on recycle it', we might do better to plan lessons that allow students to constantly meet the same items in use in different texts, recordings, conversations, etc. and notice them in new combinations with different surroundings with different

uses, and then have repeated opportunities to try using the items themselves. The initial 'teaching' is of relatively little importance. Items need to be encountered again and again: many encounters, many associations. Seeing real examples of language being used is often more important than hearing 'cold' definitions.

How can we do this? How can we worry less about the 'input' of lexis and spend more time on going deeper with language, looking at how words are used, noticing patterns, encouraging students to notice more in the texts they see, encouraging long-term recognition and recall and getting our students to use the language themselves? Here are some ideas.

Lesson 30: Lexicogrammatically Features

Designing a task for specific lexical items

Look at the picture and lexical items below. Design a task that will give students written or oral practice in using a number of these lexical items: cash register, shop assistant, trolley, credit card, expensive, thief, purse, change, shopping bag, receipt, customer, pay, paid, shopping (noun).

Suggest your ideas:

1. ……
   ……
   ……
2. ……
   ……
   ……
3. ……
   ……
   ……
4. ……
   ……
   ……

Jim Scrivener P185

Lexis and skills work

A great deal of lexis work in class occurs in relation to reading and listening tasks. There are definite advantages in this, most importantly because learners meet the language in realistic contexts and see how the items fit into the meaning and style of a whole text.

The text that immediately surrounds a lexical item is referred to as co-text. Context provides important exposure for learners to samples of language being used. This suggests why texts are often more useful for teaching lexis than lessons that focus on lexis as separated, stand-alone items without such surrounding language. When using reading or listening texts, a focus on lexis may occur before, while or after the students read or listen.

Pre-teaching lexis

The teacher may select some activities specifically designed to revise, teach and practice lexis before moving on to work on the text or recording. The lexis selected for teaching is likely to be that most needed for completion of whatever listening or reading tasks are to be set. Although this is usually called pre-teaching, remember that this work may be helping students to recall items they already know as much as introducing new items. The main aim is to help ensure that the following activity will work (because there will be fewer stumbling blocks of unknown lexical items). This work may, of course, also teach or revise some lexis that may be useful in its own right.

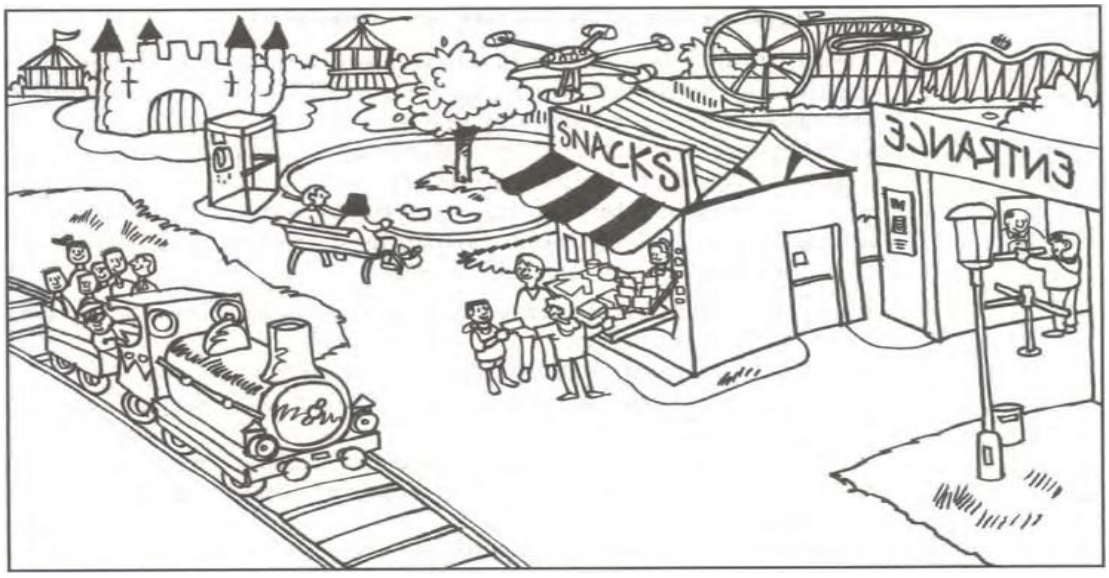
Lexis and listening work

The following audio script is for a recording that will be used with an Elementary class. The students have recently been working on ways of describing position (next to, behind, beside, etc.). Their task when listening will be to look at a picture (Figure 8.3) and note the mistakes.

Read the audio script and underline three or four lexical items that you might pre-teach. What other items do you think students will need (or want) to understand?

Audio script

Well, he's made a few mistakes, hasn't he? This place selling snacks — that should be a souvenir shop, shouldn't it? So, change that name from 'Snacks' to 'Gifts'. Yes, it'll be selling postcards and toys and things. And why is the phone box over by the lake? I'm going to sack that artist when I see him again! He's absolutely incompetent. He gets twice my salary and can't do a basic sketch. I mean, we wanted the phone next to the shop, didn't we, not over there by the lake. Yes, on the right of the shop, by that street lamp. And I think there should be a letter box there as well, on the wall of the shop would be fine. And there aren't enough trees — we could do with a lot more trees — beside the lake, along the edge of the water. Yes, that looks better.



Commentary

The following lexical items are useful to do the task: snacks, souvenir shop, gifts, phone box, street lamp, letter box, trees, edge.

Note that sack, artist, absolutely, incompetent, twice, salary, basic and sketch, although probably unknown to the students, are not necessary in order to complete the task, and therefore do not need to be pre-taught or otherwise focused on. It is likely that you would not deal with them at all, unless a student specifically asked about them.

Here are some common pre-teaching tasks of the kind you frequently find in coursebooks.

- Match the words with the pictures.
- Check the meaning of these words in the dictionary.
- Match the words with the definitions.
- Brainstorm words on a set topic (i.e. collect as many as you can).
- ……
- …….
- ……
- …….
- ……
- …….

In addition to these ideas, you may want to do some teacher-led presentation or clarification. You could use ideas from Presenting lexis (Section 3 of this chapter), for example offering students definitions or illustrations of words and eliciting the items from learners.

Using short anecdotes for pre—teaching

One difficulty you may find when planning pre-teaching is that you have quite a random collection of words, and it may be hard to organize the teaching into a coherent shape. One strategy teachers often use is to concoct a short story (perhaps a personal anecdote) that includes each of the separate items. The story can be designed to help make the meanings of the items clear and memorable. It may be similar to the text that students are going to read or listen to, but it shouldn't be so close that it diffuses later interest in working with that text. When the story has been prepared, you can:

- tell it, miming or showing flashcards or board drawings, etc to illustrate meanings as you go;
- tell it, explaining or translating meanings as you go;
- tell it, asking comprehension questions and concept questions as words come up in the story;
- tell it, asking comprehension questions and concept questions afterwards;
- tell it, pretending to forget the words as you tell the story. Elicit the words from students;
- tell the whole story once with the lexis included, then retell it and 'forget' the items (as above).

Planning a story including specific lexis

Work out a short story you could tell to help students at Elementary level understand the meaning of the following lexical items: bridge, basket, goldfish, library, map, photographer.

Note that pre-teaching is not compulsory! It may sometimes interfere with or undermine the aims of your reading or listening work. For example, if one of the aims of a reading task is that learners read quickly and do not get worried about lexical items they don't know, you may upset this by dealing with some of this potentially unknown lexis before they even start the task.

Dealing with lexis during reading or listening work

While students are mainly working on reading or listening skills, you are less likely to spend time on lexis, as this might clash with the reading, listening or other aims. During such stages, you are likely only to:

- deal with an item when a student specifically asks about it;
- give brief, to-the-point explanations or translations, rather than detailed presentations;
- offer help quietly to the one or two students who ask, rather than to the whole class;
- sometimes refuse help and tell students to do their best without knowing some items.

After the first phase of listening or reading work

Once the learners have become comfortable with the text, you can focus attention on lexical items in the text and how they are used. Here are some things that you could ask:

- Can you guess the meaning of this word from the meaning of the text around it?
- Find some words in the text that mean ...
- Find some words in the text connected with the subject of... . In line X, what does ... mean?
- Find words and sort them into three separate groups under these headings:
- Why does the writer use the word… here?
- Find words in the text that match this list of synonyms.
- What words come before / after the word . .. What other words collocate with this word?
- Can you remember any other phrases you know with this word in them?
- Can you find any multiword items (i.e. groups of words that go together / chunks)?
- What's the opposite of this word?
- How many different words does the writer use to describe the ... ?

Lexis work after the main stages of reading or listening work

Coursebooks frequently offer follow-up tasks and exercises that focus on the use of lexis in the text and encourage learners to try using the items themselves. These are often similar to the practice activities we looked at in Section 4 of this chapter.

Lesson procedures

Here is a brief lesson procedure for a reading and speaking lesson including lexis work at Elementary level for a multinational group of young adults who have recently travelled

1. Pre-teach lexis

Use board pictures to draw an airport. Elicit the following items (and clarify those they don't know): plane, check-in, take off, delayed, passenger, customs, first aid, bureau de change. Practice pronunciation. Focus on getting the stress correct. Make sure students get oral practice.

2. Written practice of lexis

Give each student a handout showing photos of an airport, with a list of lexical items around the edges. Students match the lexical items to objects in the picture by drawing lines.

3. Oral practice of lexis

Put students into pairs. Ask them to think about the last time they used an airport and describe to each other the procedure from arrival to the moment they took off. What did they like or not like about it?

4. Reading to find specific information

Use a Heathrow Airport information leaflet for a fast-reading exercise.

Students have to find the answers to ten questions as quickly as possible, eg What lime does the bureau de change close? (The questions should involve using the lexis taught in Stage 1 .)

5. Further lexis work

When they've finished, ask questions to focus them on arrivals, departures, duty free, immigration, baggage claim, plus any useful lexical items the students ask about.

6. Communicative activity (an opportunity to use lexis learned)

Role play in small groups: one student in each group is at the information desk; the other students have various problems and come to get advice.

Selecting an order for a skills and lexis lesson

Here is a procedure of a reading, speaking and lexis lesson for Advanced students. Put the stages in a likely working order.

a. Set the task: read the article and find two arguments for banning all cars and two against.

b. Simulation: a formal meeting of the two opposing sides is held at the United Nations.

c. Elicit / teach lexis that students have seen in the text: scaremongering, pressure group, target, manifesto.

d. Show picture of the Earth. The globe has a cartoon face and is sweating and mopping its brow. Elicit what it means (global warming) and find out student opinions.

e. Elicit / teach ozone layer, iceberg, extinct, exhaust fumes, ultra-violet.

f. Divide students into two opposing groups and have them use the article to help prepare a detailed argument either for or against. Help with lexis problems while they are working.

g. Students read the article and do the task. Discuss the answers together.

Lesson 31: Phonemes, and Place and Manner of Articulation

What is Articulation

Articulation is the movement of the tongue, lips, jaw, and other speech organs in order to make speech sounds. The act of expelling air from the lungs produces sounds. But a speech sound is produced by the constriction of the airflow in the vocal organs at a particular place and in a particular way. In other words, speech sounds are produced when two speech organs come close to each other and contact each other, so as to create an obstruction that shapes the air in a particular fashion.

Tongue, lips, teeth, palate, jaw are the speech organs that help us produce speech sounds. The exact point where the obstruction occurs is known as the place of articulation and the manner in which this obstruction is called the place of articulation.

Place of Articulation

Given below are the places of articulation used in the English language.

Place of Articulation	Description	Examples
Bilabial	Both lips come together	p, b, m
Labiodental	Lower lip contacts upper teeth	f,v
Dental	Tip of the tongue contacts upper teeth	“Thursday” [voiceless] or “the” [voiced]
Alveolar	Tip of the tongue contacts the alveolar ridge	t, d, n, s, z
Postalveolar	Tip of the tongue contacts the postalveolar region behind the alveolar ridge	sh, ch, zh,
Palatal	Middle of tongue approaches or contacts the hard palate	y
Velar	Back of tongue contacts the soft palate	k, g, ng
Labiovelar	Back of tongue comes close to the soft palate and, lips come close to each other	w
Laryngeal	Obstruction is in the vocal cords in the throat	h

Manner of Articulation

The manner of articulation can be categorized into the degree of stricture, alternative air flow and dynamic movement of the tongue.

Degree of Stricture (the extent of the blockage)

Stop – Complete blockage followed by sudden release (Ex: t, d, p, b, k, g)

Fricative – Incomplete blockage but causes a significant airflow turbulence (Ex: f, v, s, z, sh, zh)

Affricate – Complete blockage followed by a gradual release. Combination of stop and fricative (Ex: ch and j)

Approximant – Incomplete blockage and the airflow is smooth (Ex: *r*, *y*, *w*, and *h*)

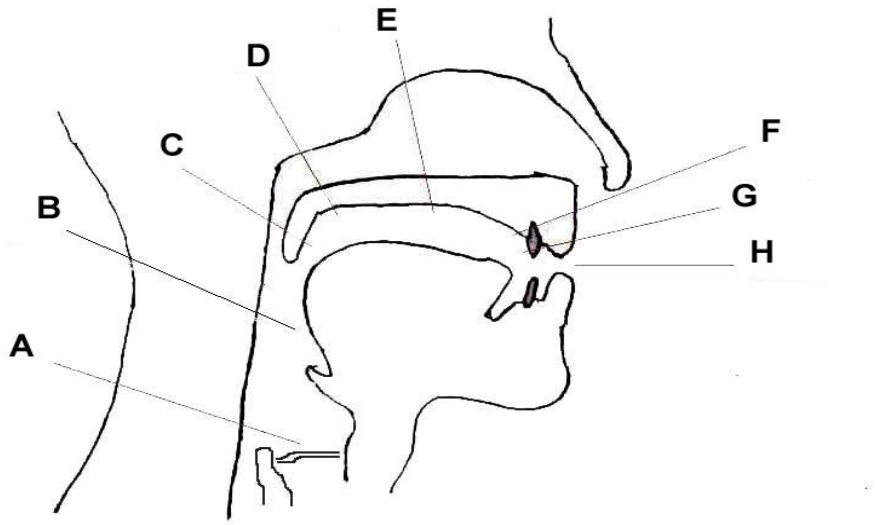
Alternative Air Flow

Nasal – Complete blockage of air out the mouth; air freely flows out the nose (Ex: *m*, *n*, *ng*)

Lateral – Complete blockage of air by the center of the tongue; air flows out the sides of the tongue (Ex: l)

Movement of the Tongue

Flap – Very short complete blockage of air, but doesn't cause any pressure buildup or release burst (Ex: American English pronunciation of t and d between vowels)



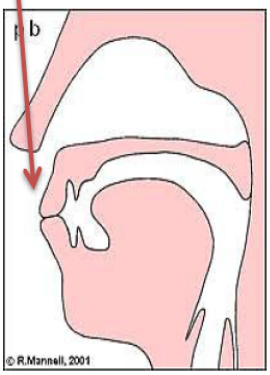
A: Glottis, B: Pharynx and Epiglottis, C: Uvula, D: Velum,

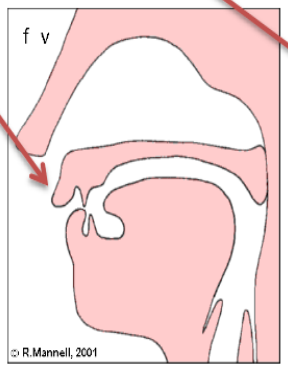
E: Palate, F: Alveolar Ridge, G: Teeth, H: Lips

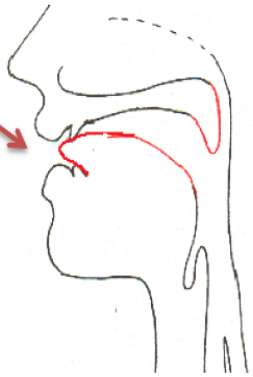
http://pediaa.com/difference-between-articulation-and-phonology/

PLACE of Articulation

Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
p	f	th				

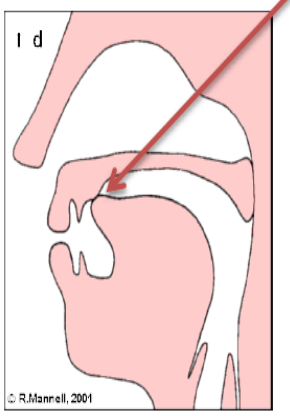


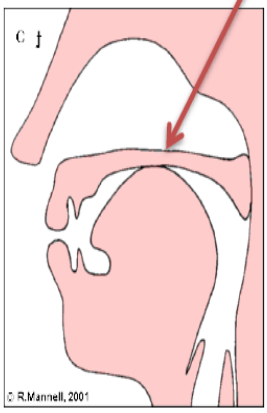


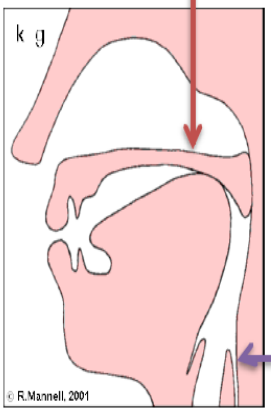


PLACE of Articulation

Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
			t	sh	k	uh-oh







Review of Consonants

b	buy	f	five
d	die	ɵ	thigh
g	guy	s	sigh
p	pie	ʃ	shy
t	tie	h	high
k	kite	v	vie
w	why	ð	thy
j or y	yikes	z	Zion
l	lie	ʒ	vision
r	rye	tʃ	chime
m	my	dʒ	jive
n	nigh		
ŋ	ring		

Which symbol corresponds to the first sound of each of the following words?

ʃ	shrink
w	wink
dʒ	jinx
ɵ	think
tʃ	chink
s	sink
f	fink
m	mink
j	yank

Review of Consonants

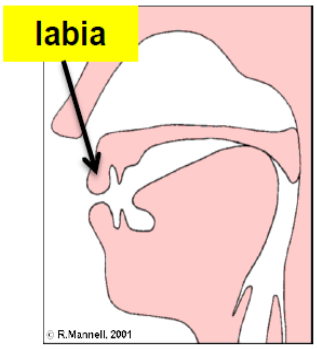
b	buy	f	five
d	die	ɵ	thigh
g	guy	s	sigh
p	pie	ʃ	shy
t	tie	h	high
k	kite	v	vie
w	why	ð	thy
j or y	yikes	z	Zion
l	lie	ʒ	vision
r	rye	tʃ	chime
m	my	dʒ	jive
n	nigh		
ŋ	ring		

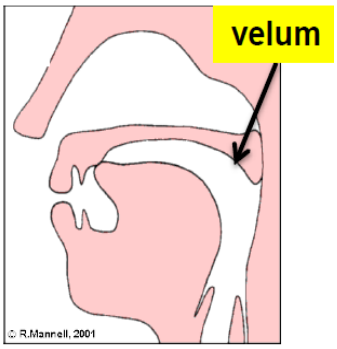
Which symbol corresponds to the last sound of each of the following words?

bathe	ð
mirage	ʒ
wish	ʃ
age	dʒ
witch	tʃ
long	ŋ
is	z
bath	ɵ
clique	k

MANNER of Articulation

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiceless	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ cat	
voiced	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ gas	





Match each pair of phonemes (sounds) with the correct image.

MANNER of Articulation

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiceless	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ cat	
voiced	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ gas	

Place your fingertips on your throat. Then make the sound /p/. Do not say the name of the letter.

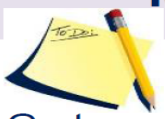
Without taking your fingertips from your throat, make the sound /b/.

Do the same with /t/ and /d/ as well as /k/ and /g/.

Could you feel your vocal cords vibrating when you said /b/ but NOT when you said /p/, /d/ but not /t/ and /g/ but not /k/?

Most English consonants have a voiced and voiceless articulation. The difference is both in sound AND meaning (ex. *pole vs. bowl*).

MANNER of Articulation: VOICING



Go to page 67 in your textbook to complete the following activity.

1. **Make a list of rhyming words for each pair of voiced/voiceless consonants.**

   example: /p/ /b/ pit, bit
   /f/ /v/ fan, van

2. **Go back to your completed list and add words in which the contrast occurs at the beginning (initial) and end (final) of each word.**

   example: pit, bit rip, rib
   fan, van leaf, leave

ANSWER: You should have underlined the following pairs with are minimally contrastive:

buy/ pie	fuss / fuzz	lip / lib	sue / zoo
tan / Dan	gum / come	cheap / jeep	puck / pug
half / halve		veal / feel	

MANNER of Articulation: STOPS

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiceless	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ cat	
voiced	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ gas	

Manner of articulation mostly concerns air flow from the lungs up through the vocal tract.

Air can either be briefly **obstructed** or allowed to **continue** to flow.

The lips and tongue play a major role in stopping air flow.

All six phonemes in the chart above are **STOPS**. A sound that is produced when both lips obstruct the air flow is called a **bilabial stop**.

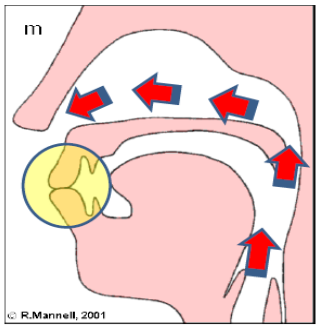
What would we call a sound that is produced when the tongue stops the airflow at the alveolar ridge?

an alveolar stop

MANNER of Articulation: NASAL STOPS

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiceless	**/p/** *pole*			**/t/** *two*		**/k/** cat	
voiced	**/b/** *bowl*			**/d/** *dew*		**/g/** gas	
Nasal voiced	**/m/** *me*			**/n/** *no*		**/ŋ/** *ink*	

The three highlighted phonemes in the chart above are **nasals**.



When you make the sound /m/, is the air flow stopped or does it continue?

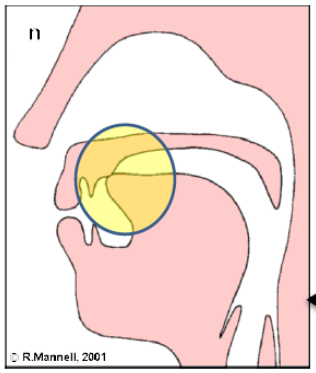
The airflow IS stopped at the lips (although it is allowed to continue to flow through the **nasal cavity**), so /m/ and all the nasals are **stops**.

MANNER of Articulation: NASAL STOPS

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiceless	**/p/** *pole*			**/t/** *two*		**/k/** cat	
voiced	**/b/** *bowl*			**/d/** *dew*		**/g/** gas	
Nasal voiced	**/m/** *me*			**/n/** *no*		**/ŋ/** *ink*	

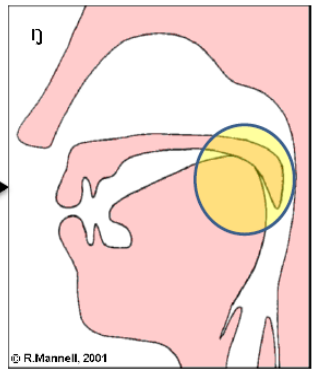
Notice that /n/ and /ŋ/ are also nasal stops.

Where is the air obstructed in the image to the left? To the right?



Which phoneme is a velar nasal stop? →

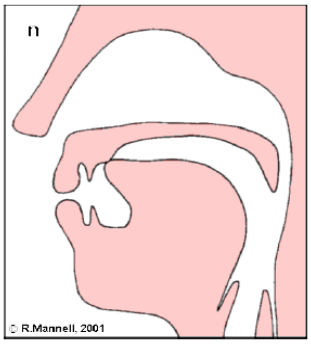
Which is an ← alveolar nasal stop?



MANNER of Articulation: NASAL STOPS

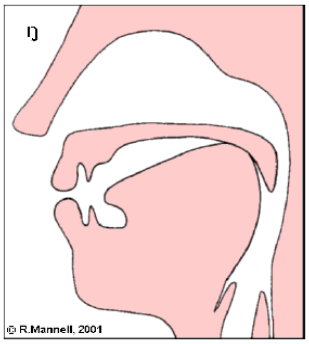
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiceless	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ cat	
voiced	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ gas	
Nasal voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	

Do you notice anything else about nasal stops?



They are all voiced.

There are
no voiceless nasals.



MANNER of Articulation: FRICATIVES

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ cat	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ gas	
Nasal Voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/□/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless							
Voiced							

Place the following phonemes in the correct boxes in the chart above. *Try it first without your textbook.*

/z/ zoo	/h/ have	/ʒ/ vision
/ɵ/ thick	/v/ vote	/ð/ the
/s/ so	/f/ fun	/ʃ/ shoe

MANNER of Articulation: FRICATIVES

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ *cat*	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ *gas*	
Nasal Voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ *fun*	/ɵ/ *thick*	/s/ *so*	/ʃ/ *shoe*		/h/ *have*
Voiced		/v/ *vote*	/ð/ *the*	/z/ *zoo*	/ʒ/ *vision*		

Place the following phonemes in the correct boxes in the chart above. *Try it first without your textbook.*

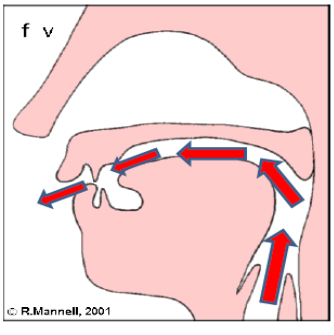
/z/ zoo
/ɵ/ thick
/s/ so
/h/ have
/v/ vote
/f/ fun
/ʒ/ vision
/ð/ the
/ʃ/ shoe

MANNER of Articulation: FRICATIVES

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ *cat*	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ *gas*	
Nasal Voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ *fun*	/ɵ/ *thick*	/s/ *so*	/ʃ/ *shoe*		/h/ *have*
Voiced		/v/ *vote*	/ð/ *the*	/z/ *zoo*	/ʒ/ *vision*		

When producing the interdental fricative /f/, is the air flow stopped or allowed to continue?

It continues, but turbulence is created when the top teeth come into contact with the bottom lip. Notice the sound: f-f-f-f-ricative!

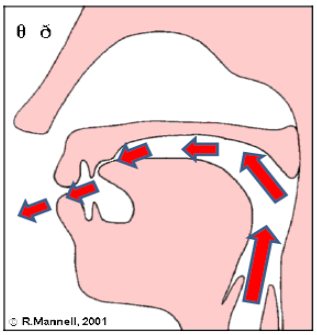


MANNER of Articulation: FRICATIVES

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ *cat*	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ *gas*	
Nasal Voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ *fun*	/ɵ/ *thick*	/s/ *so*	/ʃ/ *shoe*		/h/ *have*
Voiced		/v/ *vote*	/ð/ *the*	/z/ *zoo*	/ʒ/ *vision*		

All fricatives are characterized by noisy turbulence at the place of articulation.

Notice that some new symbols have been introduced. Practice writing them on a piece of paper.



MANNER of Articulation: AFFRICATES

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ cat	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ gas	
Nasal voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ fun	/ɵ/ thick	/s/ so	/ʃ/ shoe		/h/ have
voiced		/v/ vote	/ð/ the	/z/ zoo	/ʒ/ vision		
Affricate voiceless				/tʃ/ watch			
voiced				/dʒ/ joy			

What is the first thing you notice about the affricates?

They are made up of **two sounds**: a stop + a continuant

MANNER of Articulation: GLIDES

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ *cat*	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ *gas*	
Nasal voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ *fun*	/ɵ/ *thick*	/s/ *so*	/ʃ/ *shoe*		/h/ *have*
voiced		/v/ *vote*	/ð/ *the*	/z/ *zoo*	/ʒ/ *vision*		
Affricate voiceless				/tʃ/ *watch*			
voiced				/dʒ/ *joy*			
Glide voiced	/w/ *why*					/j/ *yes*	

Glides are also called semi-vowels. Can you guess why?

MANNER of Articulation: GLIDES

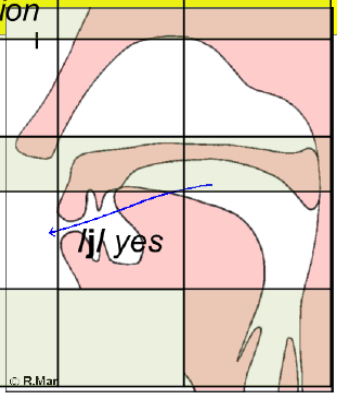
	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ *cat*	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ *gas*	
Nasal voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ *fun*	/ɵ/ *thick*	/s/ *so*	/ʃ/ *shoe*		/h/ *have*
voiced		/v/ *vote*	/ð/ *the*	/z/ *zoo*	/ʒ/ *vision*		
Affricate voiceless				/tʃ/ *watch*			
voiced				/dʒ/ *joy*			
Glide voiced	/w/ *why*					/j/ *yes*	

They have the quality of vowels but function as consonants.

MANNER of Articulation: LIQUIDS

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ *cat*	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ *gas*	
Nasal voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ *fun*	/θ/ *thick*	/s/ *so*	/ʃ/ *shoe*		/h/ *have*
voiced		/v/ *vote*	/ð/ the	/z/ *zoo*	/ʒ/ *vision*		
Affricate voiceless				/tʃ/ *watch*			
voiced				/dʒ/ *joy*			
Glide voiced	/w/ *why*					/j/ *yes*	
Liquid voiced				/l/ *love* /r/ *rot*			

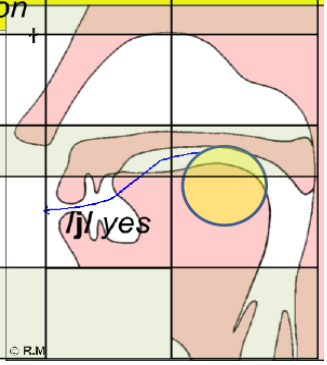
The liquid /l/ in English has two pronunciations: one "light" and one "dark." The light version can be heard in words such as "light" and "laugh." Notice the low position of the root of the tongue in the image below.



MANNER of Articulation: LIQUIDS

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ *cat*	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ *gas*	
Nasal voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ *fun*	/θ/ *thick*	/s/ *so*	/ʃ/ *shoe*		/h/ *have*
voiced		/v/ *vote*	/ð/ the	/z/ *zoo*	/ʒ/ *vision*		
Affricate voiceless				/tʃ/ *watch*			
voiced				/dʒ/ *joy*			
Glide voiced	/w/ *why*					/j/ *yes*	
Liquid voiced				/l/ *love* /r/ *rot*			

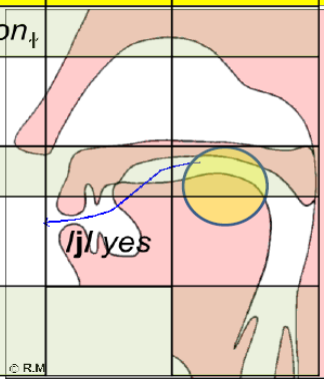
Now say the word "full." Where is the root of the tongue? The tip of the tongue is in the same place, but the back of the tongue has risen almost to the velum. This is the dark /l/ and is written as /□/.



MANNER of Articulation: LIQUIDS

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop voiced	/p/ *pole*			/t/ *two*		/k/ *cat*	
voiceless	/b/ *bowl*			/d/ *dew*		/g/ *gas*	
Nasal voiced	/m/ *me*			/n/ *no*		/ŋ/ *ink*	
Fricative voiceless		/f/ *fun*	/ɵ/ *thick*	/s/ *so*	/ʃ/ *shoe*		/h/ *have*
voiced		/v/ *vote*	/ð/ *the*	/z/ *zoo*	/ʒ/ *vision*		
Affricate voiceless				/tʃ/ *watch*			
voiced				/dʒ/ *joy*			
Glide voiced	/w/ *why*					/j/ *yes*	
Liquid voiced				/l/ *love* /r/ *rot*			

The English /r/ is similar to the dark /l/ in that the root of the tongue rises to but does not touch the velum, and the tongue is flat and low.



http://esolinhighered.org

Lesson 32: Stress Patterns

1. Word stress

Stress and its opposite — unstress — are very important aspects of English pronunciation. Getting the stress wrong can seriously damage your chances of being understood.

Words have their own stress pattern; for example, water, cricket and justice are stressed on the first syllable whereas abroad, enough and today are stressed on the second. A stressed syllable in a word is usually noticeable by being slightly louder, longer and higher in pitch than the syllables next to it.

Stress and unstress

Unstressed syllables tend to be pronounced less loudly and with a more 'relaxed' manner; vowel sounds are typically 'weak'. Check this out: try saying the words water and justice with the stress on the wrong syllable. What happens to the previously stressed syllables?

The unstressed syllables become weaker, ie shorter, spoken more quickly and with less well-defined (or even altered sounds), eg /wɒˈt3:/, /ʤəs ˈti:s/.

Word stress is important because when it is wrong, words sound very strange or even incomprehensible. Would anyone understand you saying secretary?

Sometimes wrong stress changes one word: into another: desert—dessert. Or it can change the class of a word: import (v) — import (n)

Marking stress

There are a variety of ways of marking stress in a written text and it's important to do this for students.

Which of the following do you personally find clearest?

formation	'window	unhappy	impostor
magaZlNE	ca ssette	**wat**erfall	delightful

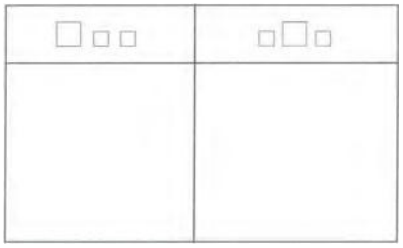
Finding stressed syllables

Mark the stressed syllable in the following words using the method you find the clearest.

photograph	photographer	telescope	telescopic	chemical
computer	forest	dictionary	comfortable	reception

Sorting stress patterns

Put the words into the correct columns.



interview computer revision innocent
completely important suitable example
recorder universe opposite

The kinds of tasks given in this section are also very useful for your students to work with. As with work on the sounds of English, awareness itself is an essential starting point, and it is worth devising tasks and activities that assist this.

Words and sentence stress are very important in English. Consider the many ways you can say the following sentences to express different nuances of meaning.

- He doesn't like yoghurt.
- I'll be the judge of that.
- We don't live in Chicago because of the weather.
- (What's on TV tonight?) I thought we were going out.
- (What are we doing tonight?) I thought we were going out.

Putting stress on particular parts of sentences can be used to show where new or important information is in a sentence. As we will see, there are some general rules for assigning stress, but for learners of English it is a good policy to learn appropriate stress when individual words are learned. Word stress can be discussed separately for function words, which are usually not stressed, and content words, which usually have stress, especially if there is more than one syllable.

2. Function word stress

Most function words such as articles, modal verbs, pronouns and prepositions have only one syllable (e.g. the, can, do, my, him, on, as). These function words are very frequent (constituting about half of the words we produce), but they are not stressed. When these function words are produced in sentences their vowel is normally pronounced as /b/. A number of these unstressed English function words have more than one pronunciation. These are sometimes called 'strong' and 'weak' (or 'reduced') forms. When the words stand on their own, they have strong forms but when they are placed with other words in sentences or phrases, they have weak forms,

Example:

Word	Strong form	Weak form	Example
as	æz	əz	əzgʊdəzðɪs
but	bʌt	bət	bətðætsnɒtɔːl
and	ænd	ən	juːənmiː
of	ɒv	əv	ðəbestəvɔːl
than	ðæn	ðən	betəðəntɒmz
you	juː	jə	djənəʊ
does	dʌz	dəz	wɒdəzʃɪwɒnt
from	frɒm	frəm	ɪtsfrəmsuː
at	æt	ət	lʊkətmiː
his	hɪz	əz	hiːzɒnəzəʊn

Other function words which have unstressed weak forms include: he, her, him, do, did, some, for, them, am, are, is, was, has, had, have, can, shall, will, would, must, an, the, to, what. Some function words have more than one weak form, e.g. him /im/, əm/.

The following high frequency verb + to combinations also have strong and weak pronunciations:

	Strong form	Weak form
going to	gəʊɪŋ tuː	gənə
got to	gɒt tuː	gətə, gədə
has to	hæz tuː	həstə
have to	hæv tuː	əftə
ought to	ɔːt tuː	ɔːtə
used to	juːst tuː	juːstə
want to	wɒnt tuː	wɒnə

There is sometimes an important difference in meaning between strong and weak forms, e.g.

- I'm going to be sick. /aimgʌnbiːsik/ (prediction)
- I'm going to school. ……. (destination)
- What have we got to take? ……. (necessity)
- What have we got to drink? ……... (availability)

I'm going to be sick.	/aɪmgʌnəbiːsɪk/	(prediction)
I'm going to school.	/aɪmgəʊɪŋtəskʊl/	(destination)
What have we got to take?	/wɒtəvwiːgɒtəteɪk/	(necessity)
What have we got to drink?	/wɒtəvwiːgɒttuːdrɪŋk/	(availability)

3. Content word stress

In English, one or more syllables in a content word are normally stressed. If there is more than one stressed syllable, one gets stronger stress than the other(s). This is called primary stress (marked ˈ). Other stressed syllables in a word may then get secondary stress (marked ˌ), while remaining syllables are 'unstressed'. For example:

- ˈant
- ˈinsect
- reˈmove
- ˈenergy
- ˌtranspor'tation
- ˌmagˈnificently

In this book, the stress mark is placed before the stressed syllable. In some dictionaries, the mark is placed above the stressed syllable. In others, it is placed after the stressed syllable. For learners of English, the major difficulty with stress in content words with more than one syllable is selecting which syllable or syllables to stress. In French, the last syllable in each word is usually stressed. In Czech, the first syllable of a word is usually stressed. English word stress is much more complex. A number of general points can be listed to show something of the complexity that learners are faced with but, although factors such as the following influence stress assignment, few can be described as hard and fast 'rules'. By learning correct stress for individual words, learners may be best expected to inductively and unconsciously work out the 'rules' for themselves. Stress assignment can be influenced by:

1. Whether or not the word has derivational affixes. Compare, for example:

   ˈpolitics po ˈlitical ˌpoli ˈtician

2. The word class of the word. Compare these nouns, adjectives and verbs:
   - con duct (noun) con duct (verb)
   - object (noun) object (verb)
   - record (noun) record (verb)
   - estimate (noun) esti mate (verb)
   - separate (adjective) sepa rate (verb)
   - insult (noun) insult (verb)

Typically, the noun (or adjective) has stress on the first syllable, and the verb has stress on the last syllable.

3. Whether the word is of Germanic origin or is from Latin or Greek. Germanic words tend to have primary stress on the first syllable of the root, and this is not affected by affixation,

   Example:
   - ˈholy big
   - ˈholiness ˈbigger un
   - ˈholy ˈbiggest

Words of Latin or Greek origin do not necessarily have the primary stress on the first syllable. Polysyllabic words tend to have their primary stress on the antepenultimate syllable or, less often, on the penultimate syllable, e.g.

- ˈorigin o ˈriginate origi ˈnality
- ˈstandard ˈstandardize standardis ˈation

4. The number of syllables in the word. With two-syllable verbs, adjectives and adverbs, if the second syllable contains a long vowel or diphthong, or if it ends with a consonant cluster, then the stress is typically on the second syllable, e.g.

- re′ply, a′ttract, bel′ieve, a′live. If there is a short vowel in the final syllable, or the word ends with a vowel or a single consonant, then the first syllable typically has primary stress, e.g.
- ′open, ′level, ′lovely.

  With two-syllable nouns, stress usually falls on the second syllable unless the second syllable contains a short vowel, e.g.
- De′sign ′father i′dea ′dollar ba′lloon ′table

With content words of more than two syllables, the rules are more complex. If a verb ends with a short vowel or a single consonant, then that syllable is unstressed, and the primary stress falls on the preceding syllable (the penultimate syllable). Otherwise, the stress falls on the final syllable,

Example:

- de′termine, rede′sign.

With nouns, if the last syllable contains a short vowel it is unstressed. If the second to last syllable (the penultimate syllable) contains a long vowel or diphthong or a consonant cluster, then the primary stress falls on that penultimate syllable, but if it also contains a short vowel then the preceding syllable receives primary stress, e.g.

- ′intellect, -quantifi′cation, ′customary.

There is thus a tendency for stress in polysyllabic words to fall on syllables containing a long vowel, or diphthong. Some words have two potential locations for primary stress, e.g. - ′contra′diction, e′xamin′ation, ′four′teen, but these are not necessarily exactly equal. Some words have different stress in different regional varieties, e.g. compare the pronunciation of laboratory, inquiry and primarily in British and US English.

UK	US
la′boratory	′laboratory
in′quiry	′inquiry
′primarily	pri′marily

Much more complicated rules, expressed in terms of the ‘quality’ of the vowels (tense or lax) and the types of suffix, have been proposed in current phonological theory. From the language teacher’s viewpoint, however, most learners will learn stress for individual words by imitation, not theory. Some rough rules which may help learners are:

- In about 80 per cent of words with more than one syllable, it is the first syllable that receives the primary stress, e.g.

′father, ′any, ′gathering, ′excellently, ′water, ′woman, ′table, ′apple. This applies especially to high frequency nouns and adjectives.

- In words with a prefix, there is a strong tendency for the second (or third) syllable to receive primary stress, e.g.
  deˈvise, reˈnew, unˈdo, underˈstand, inˈvite, conˈclude.
- Suffixes are rarely stressed, e.g.
  ˈkindness, ˈbaker, obˈsessive, aˈtomic, proˈpensity, ˈpacify.
- English compounds typically have stress on the first word, e.g.
  ˈlawnmower, aˈlarm clock, ˈgrandmother, ˈnewspaper, ˈwindow cleaner, ˈwashing machine, ˈcoffee mug, ˈbaking powder. But note exceptions such as: electric ˈblanket, and ˈapple cake and apple ˈpie.

4. Sentence stress and rhythm

As we have seen, when content words are spoken on their own, they usually have one syllable with primary stress, and sometimes in longer words there are also other syllables with secondary stress. In connected discourse, a fairly regular 'beat' or rhythm occurs in sentences.

1. ˈFred will ˈpaint these ˈhouses.
2. ˈFred can ˈfix most meˈchanical eˈquipment .

In Sentences 1 and 2, syllables with stress are followed by syllables without strong stress. In Sentence 1, each syllable with stress alternates with one without. In Sentence 2 there are one, two or three unstressed syllables between stressed syllables. English is sometimes described as a stress-timed language in which there is approximately the same time interval between stressed syllables. If there are several unstressed syllables in sequence, they have to be spoken more rapidly to 'fit' into the rhythmic time interval.

Stress timing is not a rigid process and research has shown that time intervals between stressed syllables are not as regular as theory suggests. Some words are stressed for emphasis (such as to deny something, e.g. I told him this wasn't mine). At times, hesitations or choice of particular words affect any 'regular' rhythm. For language learners whose first language is not stress timed, learning English sentence rhythm can be quite a problem, however. In **syllable-timed** (or **'mora-timed**') languages such as French, Japanese, or Mandarin Chinese, all unstressed syllables occur at fairly regular time intervals so that the time between syllables which might be regarded as stressed varies according to how many syllables there are. Learners of English who are unfamiliar with stress timing may seem to give each English syllable equal emphasis, and therefore seem to speak jerkily. Such stress patterns are nevertheless common in some varieties of English, e.g. Singapore English. One important point about English sentence stress is that, although each individual content word in a sentence may have one syllable with primary stress when we pronounce the word on its own, when we pronounce the sentence as a whole, one content word tends to get a fuller stress than the others and all the other stressed syllables are reduced, and some

'stressed' syllables are not in fact stressed. The strongest stress (or **nuclear stress**) is normally near the end of the sentence, e.g.

3. I ˈnever beˈlieve what I ˈread in ˈnewsˌpapers.
4. I ˌnever beˌlieve what I ˌread in ˈnewspapers.

In Sentence 3, the primary and secondary stress have been marked for each word individually. In Sentence 4, the primary sentence stress is marked as occurring on ˈnews, and all other stress has thus been reduced (from primary to secondary or from secondary to unstressed).

It is not uncommon for sentences to have more than one nuclear stress, especially when they consist of more than one clause, e.g.

When I get ˈhome, I'll have a ˈshower.

In English, the nuclear stress typically comes near the end of a sentence. The reason for this may be because new (unpredictable) information often comes at the end of a sentence. Extra stress for new information helps protect this information from being masked by irrelevant environmental 'noise'. In Sentence 4 above, it could be argued that newspapers is not entirely predictable. It could be replaced by books, magazines, etc., and it is appropriate that it gets the strongest sentence stress to help ensure that the intended word is heard by listeners.

Task 1.20

A Mark the primary stress on each of the following words. The second member of each pair is related in meaning to the first, and consists of the first word + suffix.

B. List the suffixes that alter the stress pattern and those that do not alter the stress.

1. accept, acceptance	16. apply, …….
2. amuse, ……	17. atmosphere, ……..……..
3. convenient, ……	18. effort, …….
4. social, …….....	19. entertain, ……
5. cultivate, …….....	20. ceremony, …….
6. economy, ……...	21. familiar, ……
7. mathematics, ……	22. history, ……..
8. profit, …….....	23. incident, ……..……
9. sympathy, …….	24. character, ……..…..
10. accurate, …….	25. perfect, ……..…….
11. active, ……	26. continent, ……...
12. alter, ……	27. industry, ……
13. approximate, ……..	28. theory, ……
14. attract, …….....	29. politics, ……..…
15. aware, ……..…….	30. responsible, ……

Task 1.21

Mark sentence stress in the following sentences. Several answers are possible, depending on the intended meaning.

1. The weather has been absolutely terrible.

2. He was very lucky not to have been hurt.

3. Shall we go to a movie after we get home from work?

4. No-one seemed to know where we could get help.

5. The result of the election was quite unexpected.

5. Intonation

As we saw in Section 1.6.1, variations in stress, pausing and pitch are part of the prosodic aspects of English. The use of rising or falling levels of pitch (known as tone) is very important for expressing meaning. Consider how many ways we can say the following words or phrases. Work with a fluent speaker of English, if necessary, to see how many different ways you can say them. What does each way mean? Work out a context in which they might be used with close friends, new acquaintances, or people who don't know each other.

Yes/ No.

Hello.

Hurry up.

Where do you think you're going?

Sam doesn't like beer.

I like Mexican food and beer.

Most languages are pronounced with changes of tone that can change the meaning of utterances. Many languages (e.g. Zulu, Yoruba, Thai, Mandarin Chinese) associate tone with individual words. In English, however, tone is usually associated with groups of words called tone units, which speakers consider are units of information. The syllable with the strongest stress in a tone unit often contains important information, such as the answer elicited by a question, e.g.

Where are you going?

Back to ˈFred's house.

In English, the most important changes of pitch are those that are associated with a stressed syllable (the nuclear syllable) and continue over a subsequent group of words, if there are any, in the same tone unit. This produces a kind of tone called an intonation pattern. Brazil (1997) described intonation in terms of three major processes.

1. **Prominence**: We highlight a particular syllable of a tone unit by such processes as lengthening a vowel or changing volume in order to focus on the words that carry the most information. Compare these two exchanges:

   Will you be ˈhome this evening? ˈOnly after eight p.m.

   Shall I ring you this ˈevening? Try me after ˈseven p.m.

2. **Key:** We can adjust the level of pitch of tone units to change meaning, as, for example, to express contradiction:

   ↑ You were there. No, I ↑wasn't.

3. **Tone:** We can focus on a prominent syllable through a rapid raising or lowering of pitch. The most frequently used intonation patterns are falling, rising, and falling-rising.

Graeme, K. (2003) Structure and Meaning in English

Lesson 33: Connected Speech

Recently however, there has been a shift of focus towards the other systems operating within phonology, which may be more important in terms of overall intelligibility.

- What connected speech is
- How this affects native and non-native speakers
- Aspects of connected speech
- Working on weak forms
- Conclusion

a. What connected speech is

"English people speak so fast" is a complaint I often hear from my students, and often from those at an advanced level, where ignorance of the vocabulary used is not the reason for their lack of comprehension.

When students see a spoken sentence in its written form, they have no trouble comprehending. Why is this?

The reason, it seems, is that speech is a continuous stream of sounds, without clear-cut borderlines between each word. In spoken discourse, we adapt our pronunciation to our audience and articulate with maximal economy of movement rather than maximal clarity. Thus, certain words are lost, and certain phonemes linked together as we attempt to get our message across.

b. How this affects native and non-native speakers

As native speakers, we have various devices for dealing with indistinct utterances caused by connected speech. We take account of the context; we assume we hear words with which we are familiar within that context.

In real-life interaction, phonetically ambiguous pairs like " a new display" / " a nudist play", are rarely a problem as we are actively making predictions about which syntactic forms and lexical items are likely to occur in a given situation.

Non-native speakers, however, are rarely able to predict which lexical item may or may not appear in a particular situation. They tend to depend almost solely on the sounds which they hear. Learners whose instruction has focused heavily on accuracy suffer a "devastating diminutions of phonetic information at the segmental level when they encounter normal speech." (Brown 1990.)

c. Aspects of connected speech

So what is it that we do when stringing words together that causes so many problems for students?

- **Weak Forms**

  There are a large number of words in English which can have a "full" form and a "weak" form. This is because English is a stressed timed language, and in trying to make the intervals between stressed syllables equal, to give the phrase rhythm, we tend to swallow non-essential words. Thus, conjunctions, pronouns, prepositions, auxiliaries and articles are often lost, causing comprehension problems for students, particularly for those whose language is syllable timed.

Some examples of words which have weak forms are;

+ And

- fish and chips (fish´n chips)

- a chair and a table (a chair ´n a table)

+ Can

- She can speak Spanish better than I can (The first "can" is the weak form, the second the full form.)

+ Of

- A pint of beer

- That´s the last of the wine!

+ Have

- Have you finished? (weak) Yes, I have. (full)

+ Should

- Well, you should have told me. (Both "should" and "have" are weak here)

The relevance of certain features of connected speech to students' needs is often debated. However, this is not the case with weak forms. Learners must come to not only recognize and cope with the weak forms they hear, but also to use them themselves when speaking English. If they do not their language will sound unnatural and over formalized, with too many stressed forms making it difficult for the listener to identify the points of focus. This, the degree to which connected speech contributes towards "naturalness" or "intelligibility", is a useful starting point from which to measure the value to students of the different features of connected speech.

d. Working on weak forms

Here are some ways in which we can attempt to help our students with weak forms.

- **How many words do you hear?**

Play a short dialogue, or a group of sentences, and ask students to listen and write down the number of words they hear. Go over each phrase to check whether they could identify all the words and then to see if they can accurately produce what they heard. Contrast the weak or natural version with the full version, pointing out that the full version is often more difficult to pronounce.

- **Unnatural speech**

Activities built around "unnatural speech" are an enjoyable way of working on weak forms and rhythm. To obtain "unnatural speech", record someone reading a sentence as if it were just a list of words. A good way of doing this is to put the words onto flash cards, and to reveal one at a time, so the reader gives each word its full pronunciation.

When you have a few sentences, play them several times to the students, who should then work in pairs to try to make the speech more natural sounding. They can then either use graphics to show the points they would change, or take turns reading out their different versions, or record themselves using a more natural pronunciation. Conduct a general feedback session at the end of the activity, discussing reasons for the changes the groups have made.

- **Integrating**

Integrate pronunciation into vocabulary work, practicing, for example, the weak form in phrases with "of" (a loaf of bread, a cup of coffee, a can of coke).

- Integrate weak forms into grammar work. If practicing "going to" for example, the teacher can write on the board examples such as:

+ Go on holiday

+ Earn more money

+ Buy a car

- Ask different students to read these phrases as a sentence with "going to". Listen for and highlight the weak form of "to" before the consonant sounds, and the "full" form of "to" with the linking "w" sound before the vowel.

Features of connected speech

As a brief overview, there is a strong tendency in English to simplify and link words together in the stream of speech, in order to help the language flow rhythmically. Some of the most common features:

Assimilation

This is when the sound at the end of one-word changes to make it easier to say the next word.

Example:

- ‘ten boys’ sounds like ‘ tem boys’ (the /n/ sound changes to the bilabial /m/ to make it easier to transition to the also bilabial /b/)

Incidentally bilabial just means two lips together, which is a good example of the kind of jargon that puts people off!

Catenation

This is when the last consonant of the first word is joined to the first vowel of the next word. This is very common in English, and can be very confusing for students.

Example:

- ‘an apple’ sounds like ‘a napple’ (Teacher, what is a napple?)

Elision

Elision means that you lose a sound in the middle of a consonant cluster, sometimes from the middle of a word.

Example:

- ‘sandwich’ becomes ‘sanwich’. Or from the end of a word.

Example:

- ‘fish and chips’ ‘fishnchips’

Intrusion

This is when an extra sound ‘intrudes’. There are three sounds that often do this /r/ /j/ and /w/

Example:

- ‘go on’ sounds like ‘gowon’
- I agree sounds like ‘aiyagree’
- Law and order sounds like ‘lawrunorder’

If you want to discover more about features of connected speech- and I think it’s fascinating stuff, there’s a list of useful books at the end of the post, but now let’s look at some activities to help raise awareness and encourage more natural sounding speech.

Connected speech activities

I remember reading somewhere that there are three ways to deal with pronunciation in the classroom: integrating it into other activities, dealing with it discretely, and completely ignoring it. Let’s assume we aren’t going to do the latter, and look at the other two approaches.

Integrated activities

I strongly believe that students should be made aware of the basics of connected speech right from the start. I don’t mean that you should be teaching your beginners exactly what catenation is, but you can certainly show them how words link together and what happens to sounds in the stream of speech. You don’t have to be an expert, and you don’t even need to know very much about the technical aspects; you just need to listen to yourself very carefully and notice what is happening in your mouth as you speak.

Drilling and using the board

At lower levels, we tend to teach quite a lot of functional chunks, such as ‘What’s your name?’ Phonetically that could be transcribed as /wɔ:tsjəneɪm/. However, this is likely to confuse (terrify) the students. Instead, using the board, you can just show the students how the words link by using arrows, and write the schwa /ə/over the top of ‘your’. Alternatively, you can use your

fingers to show how the three words (separate fingers) meld into one long sound (push fingers together). And model and drill the phrase as it is said naturally.

If students struggle with longer phrases, try the technique of back-chaining, starting from the last sound and working up to the whole sound bit by bit. For example, with 'Where do you come from?' you drill 'frum' 'kumfrum' 'dz-kumfrum' 'where-dz-kumfrum' I have no idea why this works- but it does.

Using recording scripts

Where new language has been recorded (or by recording it yourself), ask students to first look at the chunk of language written down and try saying it a few times. Then play the recording several times and ask them to write down what they hear, however they want to spell it. Use the two written forms to elicit the differences (such as the use of the schwa) and then drill the more natural pronunciation. You could of course just say the phrase for them, but it can be hard to keep repeating something exactly the same way.

Make it part of presenting new language

Whenever you are dealing with new language, you need to be thinking about the meaning, the form AND the pronunciation. So if you're teaching 'Have you ever + past participle', make sure you're teaching it as something like /əvju:w'evə/ not 'Have… you… ever…' You don't need to explain that the first /h/ is elided or that there's an intrusive /w/- just provide a good model.

Incidentally, I say 'something like' because individual ways of connecting and simplifying speech do vary a bit.

Be aware of the difficulties connected speech may cause with listening

If students struggle to understand something in a recording, or that you say, be aware that they may actually know all the words, just not recognize them in the stream of speech. A great example of this is the student who asked me what 'festival' meant. I went into an explanation, giving examples of different festivals…but teacher, he said, why do you always say it at the beginning of the lesson? (I was saying First of all…).

If students don't understand a phrase, see if they do understand it written down and then take the opportunity to highlight the differences between the written and spoken forms.

Discrete activities

As well as teaching connected speech as you go along, it is also worth doing some discrete activities for the purpose of awareness-raising.

- A good activity to start learners thinking about connected speech and weak forms is to dictate just part of some phrases. For example: 'uvbin'. After students have written these down as

best, they can (this should be a light-hearted activity), you dictate the full phrase, in this case 'I've been to Paris.'.

- After doing a listening activity, try doing a dictation where you handout the recording script, with chunks of 2-3 words missing. These should include some aspects of connected speech. Students have to complete the gaps, which will help to develop their decoding skills.

In English, it is common to **join** the sounds at the **end of a word** with the sounds at the **beginning of the next word**. It is commonly referred to as **linking sounds**, **joining sounds** or **connected speech**. This can be confusing, especially since the words sound different than when they are pronounced on their own, compared to when they are used in a sentence.

When words are pronounced in a sentence together it would **not be natural** to make the same pause between each word, therefore some words link together and form **new sounds**. This gives the sentences a **rhythm**, or what some refer to as a **beat**. **Function** words and **content** words also give the sentence **rhythm** as well, and are discussed in another lesson. There are different types of linking, so this can be a difficult subject to learn. It is best to study with a native English speaker or advanced teacher.

There are many different ways to link sounds together. The main forms are:

- Consonant to Vowel
- Vowel to Vowel
- Consonant to Consonant
- Intrusion or Adding Sounds
- Elision or Omitting Sounds
- Geminates or Double Sounds
- Blending Sounds
- Assimilation or Changing Sounds

The three main classifications are the first three, consonant to vowel, vowel to vowel, and consonant to consonant linking. These main classifications have parts of some of the other classifications as well. With each of these, there can be **new sounds** formed depending on which combination of **consonant** and **vowel sounds** are being combined. Sounds can be **omitted** and **blended** together depending on the combination of beginning and ending sounds.

It is important to understand that it is the **sound**, and **not the spelling** that matters. Here are a few examples:

- I **have** to go. (**Have** ends in **e**, but has the consonant **sound v**.)
- He is **twenty**-one. (**Twenty** ends in **y**, but has the vowel **sound e**.)
- I have an **advantage** over him. (**Advantage** ends in an **e**, but has the consonant **sound j**.)
- **Please** come here. (**Please** ends in an **e**, but has the consonant **sound z**.)

That is a basic understanding of the difference between the **sound**, and how the word is **written**. Here are basic explanations for the **three main categories** for **linking**, or what we call **connected speech**.

a. Linking Consonant to Vowel

When the first word **ends** with a consonant sound and the second word **starts** with a vowel sound, the **consonant sound** is typically moved **forward** to the next word. Here are a few examples of linking consonant to vowel sounds in connected speech:

- Turn off your phone. Tur **noff** your phone.
- He should stop it. He should sta **pit**.
- I will read a book. I will ree **da** book.
- Bring it and a towel. Bring it an **da** towel.

b. Linking Vowel to Vowel

When the first word **ends** with a vowel sound and the second word **starts** with a vowel sound, they usually form either a **/w/** or a **/y/**sound. Here are a few examples of linking vowel to vowel sounds in connected speech. The first ones are with the **added /w/ sound**and the last ones are with the **added /y/ sound**:

- Who is your favorite actor? Who **wis** your favorite actor?
- Do all of them. Do **wall** of them.
- He does it all too often. He does it all too **wof** ten.
- What happened in the end? What happened in the **yend**?
- Why am I the last one? Why **yam** I the last one?
- He asked for you. He **yasked** for you.

Note that in the examples above there are **other words** that can be **linked together** in the sentences. The examples focus on the two main **vowel** to **vowel** linking sounds. Also note that the **/w/ sound** is usually formed if the **lips are rounded** at the end of the first word. Lastly, the **/y/ sound** is usually formed if the **lips are wide** at the end of the first word.

c. Linking Consonant to Consonant

When the first word **ends** with a consonant sound and the second word **starts** with a consonant sound, there are various sounds that are made based on the **different combinations**. When linking consonant to consonant sounds that **sound the same** or **similar**, **hold**the middle sound as one **main sound**. The sound forms a **bridge** between the two words. When linking consonant to consonant sounds that **have different sounds**, they **blend** together, instead of bridging together the words with one main sound. They can also **form** a completely **different sound**. Here are just a few examples of connected speech for consonant to consonant sounds:

- We had the best time last night! We had the bes**tt**ime last night! (Same sounds)
- I had a good day today. I had a guh**dd**ay today. (Same sounds)

- Sit down and listen. Si**dd**own and listen. (Similar sounds)

- This might work. Thi**sm**ight work. (Different sounds, blending sounds)
- That was a tough one. That was a ta**fwone** (Different sounds, forming a new sound)
- Good night beautiful. Goo**dn**ight beautiful. (Different sounds, forming a new sound)

d. Assimilation or Changing Sounds

Assimilation is when sounds are **merged** together to form a completely **new**, or **blended sound**. This is common in consonant to consonant linking, where the consonants have **different sounds**. This is **Unlike** consonant to consonant with the **same sounds**, that **share**, or **bridge** the sound. The most common examples are the **/t/** or **/d/** sounds followed by the **/j/** sound. When these sounds are blended they form either a **/ch/** or a **/j/** sound. There are other combinations as well, but again, these are the most common. Keep in mind that assimilation can be either **partial** or **full** assimilation.

Here are a few examples:

- Did you meet her? Di**j**ew meet her?
- She hit you in the arm. She hi**ch**ew in the arm.
- Tim is the best man. Jack is the bes**sm**an..
- Jenny is a good girl. Jenny is a goo**gg**irl.
- Can I borrow ten bucks? Can I borrow te**mb**ucks?

e. Intrusion or Adding Sounds

Intrusion happens when the speaker places an **additional sound** between two different sounds. The most common sounds that are added are the **/r/**, **/j/** and **/w/** sounds. Typically these are the easiest to hear and understand. Here are a few examples of **intrusion in connected speech** with the **/r/**, **/j/** and **/w/** sounds:

- The people from the media are here. The people from the media**r**are here.
- There needs to be law and order. There needs to be law**r**and order.
- I agree with her. I**j**agree with her.
- Did he ask her out? Did he**j**ask her out?
- Go on home now. Go**w**on home now.
- She needs to eat. She needs to**w**eat.

f. Elision or Omitting Sounds

When a sound is **removed** from a word, it is referred to as **elision**. The reason this happens is due to native English speakers **weakening sounds** in a word for **ease** and **efficiency**. This is common with the **/t/**, **/d/** and **/h/** sounds. Here are a few examples of **elision in connected speech** with the **/t/**, **/d/** and **/h/** sounds:

- Tina must be pregnant. Tina mus be pregnant.
- I need to tell him. I need to tell um.
- It is just you and me. It is just you an me.
- She just kept going. She just kep going.

- He bought her a diamond ring. He bought her a diamon ring.

g. Geminates or Double Consonant Sounds

When the first word ends with and the second word begins with the **same** or **similar consonant** sound, it **geminates**. This causes the speaker to **hold** the sound for a long period, before **releasing it**. The exception to this is **j**(/**ʤ**/) sound and **ch**(/**ʧ**/) sound. The best example of this is orange juice. Do not hold the sound, produce it twice just like it sounds, **orange juice**. Here are some examples of **connected speech** with **double consonant** sounds:

- Look at the dark clouds in the sky. Look at the dar**kk**louds in the sky.
- You must talk to your brother. You mus**tt**alk to your brother.
- It was a fast trip. It was a fas**tt**rip.
- He had a bad day. He had a ba**dd**ay.

h. Blending Sounds

Blending creates a **smooth transition** from the **end** of one sound to the **beginning** of the next sound between **two words**. This is **common** between two **continuous consonant** sounds but can also occur between consonant and vowel sounds as well. Here are a few examples of blending sounds in connected speech:

- I want this many. I want thi**sm**any.
- He loves his mom. He loves hi**sm**om.
- Do you want this apple? Do you want thi**sa**pple?
- I need to study this month. I need to study thi**sm**onth.

This is necessarily a very brief and somewhat simplistic overview. For more information and ideas, you could try:

Sound Foundations- Adrian Underhill- Macmillan

Pronunciation- Dalton and Seidlhofer- OUP

Pronunciation Games- Mark Hancock-CUP

Sharon Noseley-Kallandzhs' DELTA Phonology_Assignment_and_Lesson_Plan

Sharon Noseley-Kallandzhs' powerpoint on features of connected speech

https://elt-resourceful.com/2012/10/24/helping-students-with-connected-speech/

https://video.search.yahoo.com/yhs/search?fr=yhs-aztec-default&hsimp=yhs-default&hspart=aztec&p=Connected+Speech#id=

Lesson 34: Syntax and Morphology

Difference Between Morphology and Syntax

Main Difference – Morphology vs Syntax

Linguistics is the study of language and its structure. Morphology and syntax are two major subdisciplines in the field of linguistics. Other subdisciplines of linguistics include phonetics, phonology, semantics, and pragmatics. Syntax is the study of the formation of sentences and morphology is the study of the formation of words. The final aim of both these fields is to study how meaning is produced in language.

The **main difference** between morphology and syntax is that **morphology studies how words are formed whereas syntax studies how sentences are formed.** In this article, we'll look at these fields in more detail.

This article covers,

1. What is Morphology
2. Types of Morphemes
2. What is Syntax
3. Difference Between Morphology and Syntax

What is Morphology?

Morphology is another important subdiscipline of linguistics. Morphology studies the structure of words. It specifically examines how words are formed by putting together morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest grammatical and meaningful unit of a language. Different languages have different morphemes and different rules about the formation of words.

Types of Morphemes

Morphemes can be divided into two basic categories called free morphemes and bound morphemes.

- **A free morpheme** is a meaningful unit that can stand alone as a word. In other words, it is a word made up of only one morpheme.

Examples: *mat, trust, slow, cat, old, fast, bring, man*

- **A bound morpheme** is a morpheme that cannot stand alone; it is always bound to another morpheme. Thus, a bound morpheme has no meaning on its own.

Example: *slowly, talked, unthankful, blackish*

- Bound morphemes attached to the front of a word are called prefixes (distaste, untrue, etc.) and bound morphemes attached to the back of a word are called suffixes (valuable, sexual, etc.).

- Bound Morphemes can be divided further into two categories called **derivational** and **inflectional morphemes.**

a. D**erivational morpheme**s are morphemes that are added to the base form of a word to create a new word.

Example 1:

- *able* ⇒ *ability*

  (adjective) → *(noun)*
- *Send* ⇒ *Sender*

  (verb) → *(noun)*

Example 2:

- *Use* ⇒ *Misuse*
- *Stable* ⇒ *Unstable*

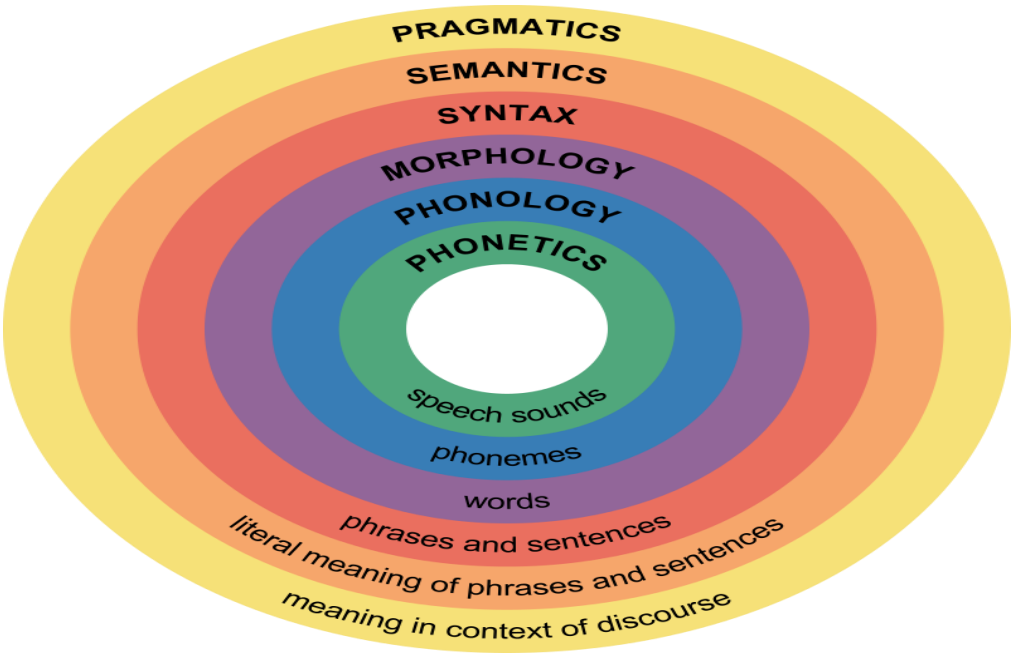
  (Meaning is totally changed.)

As seen from these examples, adding a derivational morpheme will change either the meaning or the class of the word.

b. **Inflectional morphemes** are a type of bound morphemes that do not cause a change in the meaning or word class: they serve as grammatical markers and indicate some grammatical information about a word.

Examples:

- *Laughed* – *Past Tense*
- *cats* – *Plural*
- *Swimming* – Progressive



What is Syntax?

……
……
……
……

For example, the sentences in the English language often formed by following a subject with a verb and the direct object. It is the positions of these words that convey the subject-object relationship. Look at the following sentences.

- *The cat ate the mouse.*
- *The mouse ate the cat.*

These two sentences convey two different meanings although they contain the exact same words. It is the word order of the sentences that affect the meaning of these two sentences.

The parts of a language are divided into different syntactic categories. Most sentences can be divided into two sections called subject and predicate. These two parts are also made of different words. Syntactical classes of words are known as parts of speech.

S= Sentence, NP= Noun Phrase, VP= Verb Phrase, D= Determiner, N= Noun, V= Verb

Difference Between Morphology and Syntax

Morphology	**Syntax**
- Morphology studies the structure of words. -	- Syntax studies the structure of sentences.
- ……..	- ……..
- ……...	- ……...
- ……...	- ……...

http://pediaa.com/difference-between-morphology-and-syntax/

The difference between syntax and morphology is that syntax deals with the structure of sentences and morphology deals with the structure of words. In any language, rules exist that guide the way that words are put together. These are the rules of syntax. Morphology is the study of how words are formed and understood within a language. Both syntax and morphology are related to how meaning is produced with language.

Syntax is a concept that governs the structure of sentences. The order in which words are put together has a bearing on the meaning of a sentence as a whole. Syntax rules must be followed in order for a sentence to be grammatically correct and to make sense to speakers of a language. It is what dictates things such as the order of the subject and verb, how adjectives and adverbs are used.

Morphology and Syntax

Language is comprised of sounds, words, phrases and sentences. At all levels, language is rule-based. At the sound level, *phonology* refers to the rules of the sound system and the rules of sound combination. At the word level, *morphology* refers to the structure and construction of words. Morphology skills require an understanding and use of the appropriate structure of a word, such as word roots, prefixes, and affixes (called morphemes). Strong knowledge of grammatical morphemes, such as use of *–ing* for a present progressive verb, /s/ to indicate a plural form and correct use of verb tense, is necessary in order to have well developed morphology skills. *Syntax* refers to the rules of word order and word combinations in order to form phrases and sentences.

Solid syntactic skills require an understanding and use of correct word order and organization in phrases and sentences and also the ability to use increasingly complex sentences as language develops.

Children with morphology and syntactic deficits experience difficulty learning and using the rules that govern word formation (morphemes) and phrase/sentence formation (syntactic structures). At the word level, these children may not correctly use plural forms or verb tenses. At the phrase or sentence level, children with syntactic deficits might use incorrect word order, leave out words, or use a limited number of complex sentences, such as those that contain prepositional clauses. Children with disorders of motor speech control are likely to have concomitant difficulties with morphology related to impaired speech control. For example, a child with a motor speech disorder may not be able to produce /s/ and /z/ and therefore does not mark plural forms. Disorganized and/or immature language in phrases and sentences is also seen frequently in children with motor speech disorders, as words may be omitted or sentences simplified due to difficulty with speech production. At Children's Speech and Language Services, therapists will assess a child's skills of morphology and syntax and develop a treatment plan tailored to the needs of the child. Children will work on developing an understanding and use of age appropriate morphemes and syntactic structures during interactive therapy activities. For children with co-occurring disorders of motor speech control, target words and phrases are developed to both improve motor speech control and improve the use of grammatical morphemes and syntax.

How does difficulty with morphology and syntax present in a child?

A child with morphology and syntax deficits may:

- Demonstrate inconsistent or incorrect word order when speaking
- Use a limited number of grammatical markers (e.g. *–ing, a, the,* possessive *'s, be* verbs)
- Have difficulty understanding and using past, present and future verb tenses
- Show limited understanding and use of plural forms
- Struggle with story retell tasks

Lesson 35: The Noun and Adjectives Phrases

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: noun phrases – Participant's Worksheet 1

Exercise 1

Which of the following are noun phrases?

Tick those which you're sure about, and put a question mark for those you're not sure about.

The		many times	
I		both well-known industrial scientists	
the pyramids of Egypt		is available	
team		he	
this week		London	
on Friday		a top notch high-class Victorian dining room	
the man who ate gold		the elderly	
is bad for you		no smoking	
few and far between		neither boy	
once upon a time		plastic	
the men in the blue shirts			

Exercise 2

Choose the most accurate definition of a noun phrase:

a. a word or set of words that has a noun as its head and that can act as the subject, object or complement of a clause.
b. words which denote classes and categories of things.
c. the part of a sentence which precedes a main verb.

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: noun phrases – Participant's Worksheet 2

Look at the examples. Then work with a partner to break down the noun phrases from. **Participant's Worksheet 1 in the same way.**

	Pre-modification	**Head**	**Post-modification**
1	The	girl	who I saw
2		Sarah	
3		potatoes	
4	Chicken	risotto	
5	Their carefully-laid	plans	
6	Everybody's	dream	
7	Hand-made and freshly-baked	croissants	
8	Computer-designed print	materials	
9	A	gentleman	wearing a hat
10		People in their	twenties
11			
12			
13			
14			
15			
16			
17			
18			
19			
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22			
23			

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: nouns and adjectives – Participant's Worksheet 1

Exercise 1

Underline the nouns and circle the adjectives in this extract from a review of a laptop computer.

The unusual design stretches to the keyboard location, which sits smack in the center of the chassis with a lot of vacant space above it. As a result, the palm rest is very small, leading to your hands sitting on the desk or hovering as you type. There are no touchpad buttons below the touchpad - they're located on each side instead, which takes some getting accustomed to.

The keyboard is excellent, with a design reminiscent of Sony's previous-generation VAIO laptops. The centers are raised, with a slight dip around the edges that makes it a bit easier to type. The keys are well attached and very comfortable to type on, providing a good travel, although it's not the quietest board during use.

Instead of an Intel Atom processor, you'll find a CULV Intel Pentium chip running at 1.3GHz. With a dual-core chip, and backed by 3072MB of memory, it offers far better performance than you'll find in similarly priced netbooks, with the ability to multi-task without too much lag. A battery life of around 3 and a half hours is reasonable, although those looking for all-day use will be disappointed.

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: nouns and adjectives – Participant's Worksheet 2

Exercise 1

Find examples in the review of as many of the following as possible (you will not find examples for all of them.)

Type of noun	**Examples from the text**
1 typical noun endings	……..
2 uncountable nouns	……..
3 concrete nouns	……..
4 abstract nouns	…….
5 collective nouns	…….
6 proper nouns	…….
7 countable nouns	……
8 compound nouns	……
9 regular plurals	……

Exercise 2

Find examples in the review of as many of the following types of adjectives as possible.

Type of adjective	**Examples from the text**
1. an adjective used attributively	…….
2. an adjective used predicatively	…….
3. a gradable adjective	……..
4. a comparative adjective	…….
5. an adjective made from a participle	…….
6. a superlative adjective	……..
7. an ungradable adjective	…….
8. an adjective with a dependent preposition	…….
9. an adjective suffix	……..
10. an adjective prefix	…….
11. a compound adjective	…….
12. an irregular adjective	……..

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: nouns and adjectives – Participant's Worksheet 3

Look at these two examples of lower intermediate (B1) student writing. What problems with nouns and adjectives do they show? Discuss your answers.

A:

Hello, Granmother very nice, now you have a money, with there you can to visit. You can buy a good camra, and you can go on holiday with my friends, you can too save a money. What you like? i like to shopping and buy a new clothes evry week, buy camra is good idea, i like go beach in holiday, take foto, have nice time with my friends. Tell me your decition! i wait your answer, see you soon Yours friend, Love

B:

one year ago, i travelled with my family to muzo, boyaca i was very happy and we travelled in car, we have not never been in that place, so first we went to the center of the town, we took a lot of pictures and in the afternoon, we parted to find a hotel but a weird thing happened to us, we were driving and driving and never arrived to any place, we were like catched in the time, i was so scared, i praid a lot, suddenly appeared on the way a farmer who gave us an amulet and we could escape from this time capsule. finally we arrived to a hotel and had a great holidays in family, we forgot this episode and begin a new life with a great mistery's story to tell.

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: nouns and adjectives – Sample Task

A teacher is studying a text on aspects of noun phrases in preparation for working on this area in class. For questions 1-7, read the article about a school in India.

A short walk from the park rises a massive grey Gothic tower	Line 1
on which is painted a coat of arms and the slogan	Line 2
'LUCET ET ARDET'. This is the St Alfonso's	Line 3
Boys' High School and Junior College, established 1958,	Line 4
one of the oldest educational establishments in the state	Line 5
of Kanataka. The Jesuit-run school is Kittur's most famous,	Line 6
and many of its alumni have gone on to the Indian	Line 7
Institute of Technology, the Karnataka State Regional	Line 8
Engineering College, and other prestigious universities	Line 9
in India and abroad.	Line 10

Read the questions and choose the line A, B or C which answers the questions.

1. Which line contains a demonstrative pronoun?

A.2 B. 3 C. 6

2. Which line contains a relative pronoun?

A. 2 B. 5 C. 9

3. Which line contains a superlative adjective?

A 1 B. 6 C. 9

4. Which line contains a quantifier?

A. 1 B. 5 C. 7

5. 6. Which line contains a noun with two typical noun endings?

A.2 B. 5 C. 7

6. 7. Which line contains a possessive adjective?

A. 3 B. 4 C.

7 7. Which line contains a proper noun?

A.1 B.3 C. 5

Acknowledgements

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Pocket Lint

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Lesson 36: The Verbs Phrases and Adverbs

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: adverbials – Participant's Worksheet 1

Exercise 1

Which of these words and phrases can be adverbials? Tick (√) them.

lovingly	in a hurry	lonely	as soon as possible	
every week	Monday	only	really	very
a lot	with some reservations	in front of	often	
in the garden	there	London	two cupful	
with great care	after I get to work			

Exercise 2

Look at these words again and decide what the difference is between an adverb and an adverbial. Are these correct definitions of an adverbial?

a. any word, phrase or clause that functions like an adverb (Cambridge Grammar of English (CUP) p.539)
b. 'Indicates the time, place, manner, degree, frequency, duration, viewpoint etc. of an event, action or process' (Cambridge Grammar of English (CUP) p.539) c. a word which describes or gives more information about a verb, adjective, adverb or phrase (Cambridge Advanced Learners' Dictionary (CUP 2005) p.19)

Exercise 3

Put the adverbs into the correct category below. Supply at least two examples for any category not covered by the adverbs you listed.

Categories	**Examples**
Manner	……..
Frequency	……..
Time	……..
Place	……..
Relative time	……..
Degree	……..
Quantity	……..
Focusing	……..
Attitude markers	……..

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: adverbials – Participant's Worksheet 2

Find and underline the adverbs in this narrative of a tennis match. Which of the categories on Participant's Worksheet 1 do they belong to?

Both men have played better but the tension was there from the start yesterday as they traded early breaks. Nadal was striking the ball the more sweetly and every time he got the chance, he pummeled the Federer backhand with viciously top-spun forehands of the kind only he can hit. A backhand in the net gave Nadal a second break to lead 4-3 and, though Federer had four chances to break back at 5-4, Nadal held on to take the opening set.

When Nadal broke in the opening game of the second set, it looked as if he would run away with it but Federer became more aggressive and broke back immediately. Nadal unleashed four brilliant backhands to break again on his way to a 4-2 lead but a resilient and improving Federer broke back to level at 4-4, with his drop shot increasingly effective.

Twice Nadal held serve to stay in the set and, though Federer led 4-2 in the tiebreak, Nadal would not be bowed and won four straight points to lead 6-4.

Federer saved one match point with a brilliant forehand winner but Nadal snatched victory when a horrible bounce off the line took the ball beyond the racket of the Swiss.

(Rafael Nadal beats Roger Federer to win Madrid Masters; The Guardian, Monday 17 May 2010)

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: adverbials – Sample Task

A teacher is doing a quiz to check his own knowledge of types of adverbs in preparation for teaching them to a class.

Match the adverbs as used in the sentences with the types of adverbs listed A-H. There is one extra option which you do not need to use.

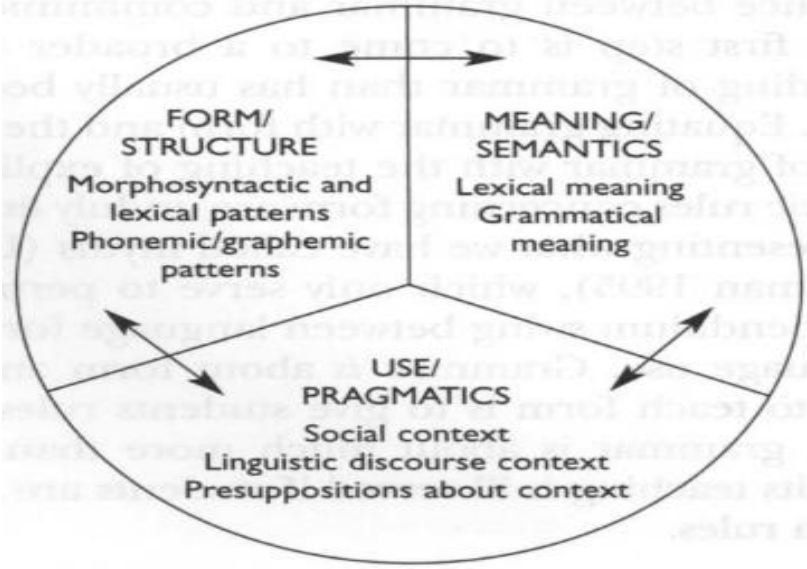
Types of adverbs	**Sentences**
a. Manner b. Frequency c. Place d. Relative time e. Degree f. Quantity g. Focusing h. Attitude markers	1. That maths test was really difficult. 2. The train goes direct to Paris. 3. Luckily, I found it on my way to work. 4. This fruit is lovely, especially the strawberries. 5. He told me a bit about what happened to him. 6. Their staff are generally helpful and friendly. 7. I keep seeing that strange sign everywhere.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Lesson 37: The Form, Meaning and Use of Structural Patterns

A Three-Dimensional Grammar Framework

Since our goal is to achieve a better fit between grammar and communication, it is not helpful to think of grammar as a discrete set of meaningless, decontextualized, static structures. Nor is it helpful to think of grammar solely as prescriptive rules about linguistic form, such as injunctions against splitting infinitives or ending sentences with prepositions. Grammatical structures not only have (morphosyntactic) form, they are also used to express meaning (semantics) in context appropriate use (pragmatics). In order to guide us in constructing an approach to teaching grammar that strives to meet this definition, it would be helpful to have a frame of reference. Our framework takes the form of a pie chart. Its shape helps us to make salient that in dealing with the complexity of grammar, three dimensions must concern us: structure or form, semantics or meaning, and the pragmatic conditions governing use. Moreover, as they are wedges of a single pie, we note further that the dimensions are not hierarchically arranged as many traditional characterizations of



linguistic strata depict. Finally, the arrows connecting one wedge of the pie with another illustrate the interconnectedness of the three dimensions; thus, a change in any one wedge will have repercussions for the other two.

In the wedge of our pie having to do with structure, we have those overt lexical and morphological forms that tell us how a particular grammar structure is constructed and how it is sequenced with other structures in a sentence or text. With certain structures, it is also important to note the phonemic/ graphemic patterns (see the discussion of possessives and phrasal verbs below for examples). In the semantic wedge, we deal with what a grammar structure means. Note that the meaning can be lexical (a dictionary definition for a preposition like down, for instance) or it can be grammatical (e.g., the conditional states both a condition and outcome or result). It is very difficult to arrive at a definition of pragmatics distinct from semantics, and thus we are sympathetic to Levinson's (1983) suggestion that pragmatics deals with all aspects of meaning not

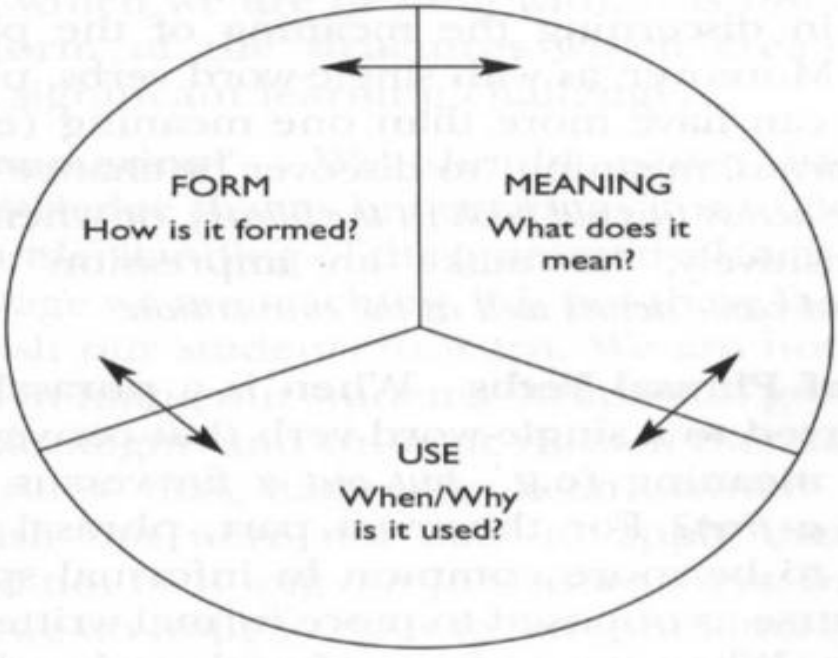
dealt with by semantic theory! Since this definition is too broad for our purposes here, however, we will limit pragmatics to mean "the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a language" (Levinson 1983, p. 9). We will leave the term context broad enough though, so that context can be social (i.e., a context created by interlocutors, their relationship to one another, the setting), or it can be a linguistic discourse context (i.e., the language that precedes or follows a particular structure in the discourse or how a particular genre or register of discourse affects the use of a structure), or context can even mean the presuppositions one has about the context. The influence of pragmatics may be ascertained by asking two questions:

1. When or why does a speaker/writer choose a particular grammar structure over another that could express the same meaning or accomplish the same purpose? For example, what factors in the social context might explain a paradigmatic choice such as why a speaker chooses a yes-no question rather than an imperative to serve as a request for information (e.g., Do you have the time? versus Please tell me the time)?

2. When or why does a speaker/writer vary the form of a particular linguistic structure?

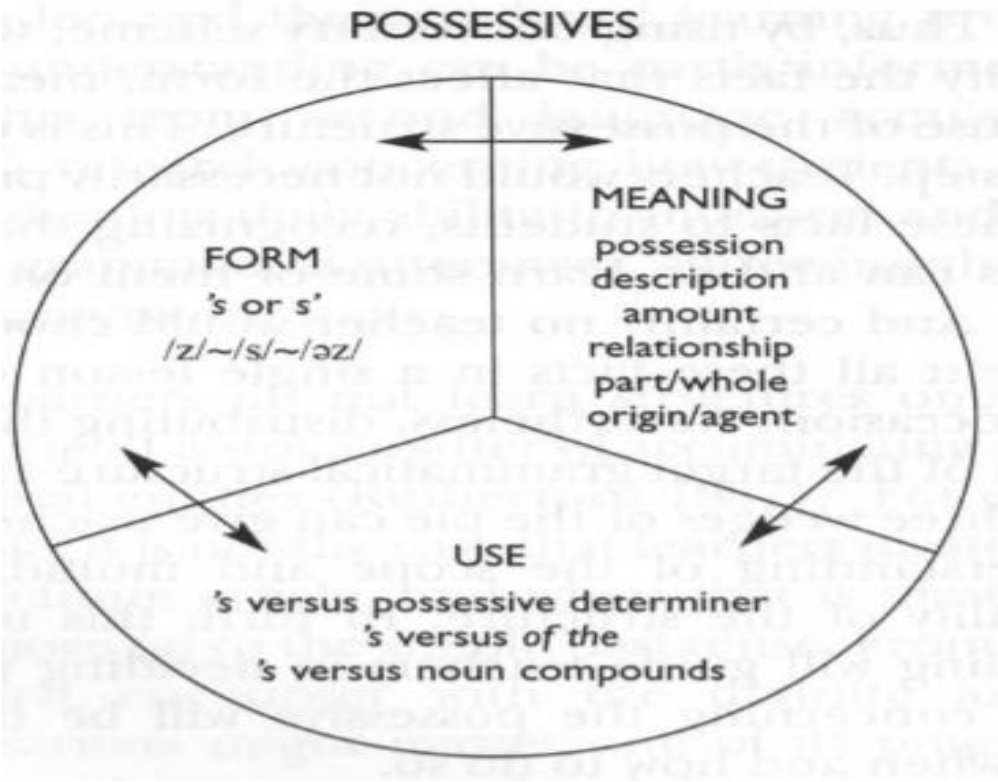
For instance, what linguistic discourse factors would result in a syntagmatic choice such as the indirect object being placed before the direct object to create jenny gave Hank a brand-new comb versus jenny gave a brand-new comb to Hank?

Despite the permeable boundaries between the dimensions, we have found it useful to view grammar from these three perspectives. We trust that the utility of this approach will become clearer as we proceed. A teacher of grammar might begin by asking the questions posed in the three wedges of our pie (for the sake of simplicity, labeled form, meaning, and use) for any given grammar point



A common structure to be taught at a high-beginning level of English proficiency is the 's possessive form. If we analyze this possessive form as answers to our questions, we would fill in the wedges as below (analysis based on Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999).

Form of Possessive. This way of forming possessives in English requires inflecting regular singular nouns and irregular plural nouns not ending in s with 's or by adding an apostrophe after



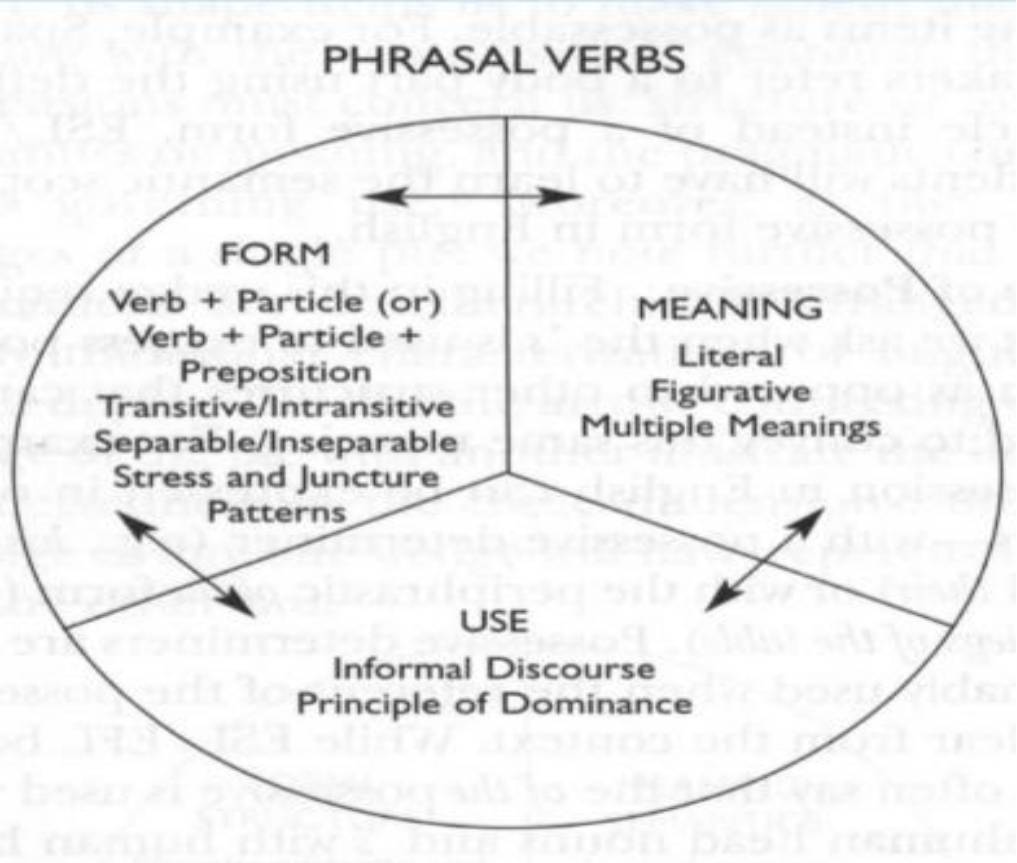
the s' ending of regular plural nouns and singular nouns ending in the sound /s/. This form of the possessive has three allomorphs: /z/, /s/, and /az/, which are phonetically conditioned: /z/ is used when it occurs after voiced consonants and vowels, /s/ following voiceless consonants, and /az/ occurs after sibilants.

Meaning of Possessive. Besides possession, the possessive or genitive form can indicate description (a debtor's prison), amount (a month's holiday), relationship (Jack's wife), part/whole (my brother's hand), and origin/agent (Shakespeare's tragedies). Also, although all languages have a way of signaling possession, they do not all regard the same items as possessable. For example, Spanish speakers refer to a body part using the definite article instead of a possessive form. ESL/EFL students will have to learn the semantic scope of the possessive form in English.

Use of Possessive Filling in this wedge requires that we ask when the 's is used to express possession as opposed to other structures that can be used to convey this same meaning. For example, possession in English can be expressed in other ways-with a possessive determiner (e.g., his, her, and their) or with the periphrastic of the form (e.g., the legs of the table). Possessive determiners are presumably used when the referent of the possessor is clear from the context. While ESL/EFL books will often say that the of the possessive is used with nonhuman head nouns and 's with human head nouns, we are aware of certain conditions where this rule does not apply. For example, native speakers often prefer to use the 's even with inanimate head nouns if the head nouns are performing some action (e.g., the train's arrival was delayed).4 Finally, students will

have to learn to distinguish contexts in which a noun compound (table leg) is more appropriate than either the 's form or the of the form.

Thus, by using our ternary scheme, we can classify the facts that affect the form, meaning, and use of the possessive structure. This is only a first step. Teachers would not necessarily present all these facts to students, recognizing that students can and do learn some of them on their own. And certainly, no teacher would choose to present all these facts in a single lesson or on one occasion. Nevertheless, distributing the features of the target grammatical structure among the three wedges of the pie can give teachers an understanding of the scope and multidimensionality of the structure.



In turn, this understanding will guide teachers in deciding which facts concerning the possessive will be taught and when and how to do so. Before continuing to explore these decisions, however, it might be worthwhile to apply our approach to another grammar structure. Let us analyze phrasal verbs this time. By considering the three questions posed earlier, we can state the following about phrasal verbs (analysis based upon Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999).

Form of Phrasal Verbs Phrasal verbs are two-part verbs comprising a verb and a particle (e.g., to look up). Sometimes, they can be constructed with three parts in that a preposition can follow the particle (e.g., to keep up with). As with all other verbs, phrasal verbs are either transitive or intransitive. A distinctive feature of phrasal verbs is that for many of them the particle can be separated from its verb by an intervening object (e.g., Alicia looked the word up in the dictionary).

Phrasal verbs also have distinctive stress and juncture patterns, which distinguish them from verb plus preposition combinations:

- Alicia looked up#the word.
- Alicia walked#up the street.

Meaning of Phrasal Verbs There are literal phrasal verbs, such as to hang up, where if one knows the meaning of the verb or the particle or both, it is not difficult to figure out the meaning of the verb-particle combination. Unfortunately, for the ESL/EFL student there are far more instances of figurative phrasal verbs (e.g., to run into, meaning "meet by chance") where a knowledge of the meaning of the verb and of the particle is of little help in discerning the meaning of the phrasal verb. Moreover, as with single-word verbs, phrasal verbs can have more than one meaning (e.g., to come across, meaning "to discover by chance" as in I came across this old book in the library, or when used intransitively, "to make an impression" as in Richard came across well at the convention.

Use of Phrasal Verbs When is a phrasal verb preferred to a single-word verb that conveys the same meaning (e.g., put out a fire versus extinguish a fire)? For the most part, phrasal verbs seem to be more common in informal spoken discourse as opposed to more formal written discourse. When is one form of a phrasal verb preferred to another; i.e., when should the particle be separated from its verb (e.g., put out afire versus put afire out)? Erteschik-Shir's (1979) principle of dominance seems to work well to define the circumstances favoring particle movement: If a noun phrase (NP) object is dominant (i.e., a long, elaborate NP representing new information), it is likely to occur after the particle; if the direct object is short, old information (e.g., a pronoun), it would naturally occur before the particle.

Identifying the Challenge Again, we would like to underscore the fact that it would not be reasonable for the ESL/EFL teacher to present all of this information to students at once. The framework does, however, help to organize the facts. Furthermore, by doing this, teachers can more easily identify where the learning challenge (s) will lie for their students. Identifying the challenging dimension (s) is a key step which should be taken prior to any pedagogical treatment.

All three dimensions will have to be mastered by the learner (although not necessarily consciously). For phrasal verbs, it is the meaning dimension which ESL/EFL students struggle with most. It is often the fact that there is no systematic way of learning to associate the verb and the particle. Adding to the students' woes, new phrasal verbs are constantly being coined. By recognizing where students will likely struggle, an important clue is given the teacher as to where to focus work on phrasal verbs. We will amplify this point later. For now, however, it is worth noting that although it is grammar structures which we are dealing with, it is not always the form of the structures which creates the most significant learning challenge.

"Grammaring" We should pause here to acknowledge that as important as it is to develop our understanding of the grammatical facts of the language we are teaching, it is not these facts that we wish our students to learn. We are not interested in filling our students' heads with grammatical paradigms and syntactic rules. If they knew all the rules that had ever been written about English but were not able to apply them, we would not be doing our jobs as teachers. Instead, what we do hope to do is to have students be able to use grammatical structures accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately. In other words, grammar teaching is not so much knowledge transmission as it is skill development. In fact, it is better to think of teaching "grammaring" (Larsen-Freeman 1997; 2001), rather than "grammar." By thinking of grammar as a skill to be mastered, rather than a set of rules to be memorized, we will be helping ESL/EFL students go a long way toward the goal of being able to accurately convey meaning in the manner they deem appropriate.

The Learning Process

However important and necessary it is for teachers to have a comprehensive knowledge of their subject matter, it is equally important for them to understand their students' learning process. This understanding can be partly informed by insights from second language acquisition (SLA) research concerning how students naturally develop their ability to interpret and produce grammatical utterances.

Three insights are germane to our topic:

1. Learners do not learn structures one at a time. It is not a matter of accumulating structural entities (Rutherford 1987). For example, it is not the case that learners master the definite article, and when that is mastered, move on to the simple past tense. From their first encounter with the definite article, learners might master one of its pragmatic functions-e.g., to signal the uniqueness of the following noun. But even if they are able to do this appropriately, it is not likely that they will always produce the definite article when needed because learners typically take a long time before they are able to do this consistently. Thus, learning is a gradual process involving the mapping of form, meaning, and use; structures do not spring forth in learners' interlanguage fully developed and error-free.
2. Even when learners appear to have mastered a particular structure, it is not uncommon to find backsliding occurring with the introduction of new forms to the learners' interlanguage. For example, the learner who has finally mastered the third person singular marker on present-tense verbs is likely to overgeneralize the rule and apply it to newly emerging modal verbs, thus producing errors such as She cans speak Spanish. Teachers should not despair, therefore, at regressive behavior on the part of their students. Well-formedness is usually restored once the new additions have been incorporated and the system self organizes or restructures.

3. Second language learners rely on the knowledge and the experience they have. If they are beginners, they will rely on their LI as a source of hypotheses about how the L2 works; when

they are more advanced, they will rely increasingly on the L2. In understanding this, the teacher realizes that there is no need to teach everything about a structure to a group of students; rather, the teacher can build upon what the students already know. It also follows that the challenging dimension for a given grammatical structure will shift from class to class depending on the students' L1 backgrounds and level of L2 proficiency. Successful teaching involves identifying the relevant challenge for a particular group of students.

To these three observations, we will add a fourth one that is not to our knowledge treated in the SLA research literature, but rather one based upon our observations and supported by learning theorists (e.g., Gagne and Medsker 1996).

4. Different learning processes are responsible for different aspects of language. Indeed, given that language is as complicated as it is, one would not expect the learning process to be any simpler. It is clearly an oversimplification to treat all grammar learning as resulting from habit formation or from rule formation. Being aware that different learning processes contribute to SLA suggests a need for the teaching process to respect the differences. How the nature of the language challenge and the learning process affect teaching decisions is the issue to which we turn next.

The Teaching Process

Consistent with the way we are conceiving grammar, teaching grammar means enabling language students to use linguistic forms accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately. In this section we discuss various teaching strategies that can be employed to meet this goal. In keeping with language form approaches, traditional grammar teaching has employed a structural syllabus and lessons composed of three phases: presentation, practice, and production (or communication), often referred to as "the PPP" approach. As we saw earlier, underlying this approach is the assumption that one systematically builds towards communication.

One option is simply to bring to students ' attention, or to promote their noticing of, some feature of a grammatical structure. For example, if a student makes an error and the teacher decides to respond to it, then the teacher might recast or reformulate what the student has said or written incorrectly in a more accurate, meaningful, or appropriate manner. For instance, if it is an error of form, the teacher would recast the student's production accurately.

STUDENT: This is Juan notebook.

TEACHER: Oh. That is Juan 's notebook. (Perceiving the error to be the form of the possessive)

If meaning is the problem, the teacher would recast what the student has said in a meaningful way.

STUDENT: I need to look at the word in the dictionary.

TEACHER: You need to look up the word in the dictionary. (Perceiving the phrasal verb look up to be a better form for what the student means to say)

And if use is the problem, the teacher would recast what the student has said in a more appropriate manner:

STUDENT: I arise at six in the morning.

TEACHER: OK. You get up at six in the morning. (Perceiving that a phrasal verb would be more appropriate to convey the student's intended meaning)

A more proactive way to promote students' noticing a particular grammatical structure is to highlight it in a text in some fashion. Enhancing the input (Sharwood Smith 1993) might be an especially effective way to focus students' attention on grammar structures that operate at the discourse level of language, such as articles or verb tenses. By boldfacing all the normally in salient articles in a given passage, for instance, the students' attention could be drawn to them.

Form

From what we know of skill acquisition theory (e.g., Anderson and Fincham 1994), fluency or proletarianization of declarative knowledge (e.g., knowledge of a grammar rule or pattern) requires practice in which students use the target language point meaningfully while keeping the declarative knowledge in working memory (DeKeyser 1998). It is important to emphasize meaningful practice of form for several reasons. First of all, meaningless mechanical drills, such as repetition drills, commonly associated with behaviorist approaches to learning, do not engage the learner in the target behavior of conveying meaning through language. Furthermore, because students are not engaged in target behavior, the inert knowledge problem (Whitehead 1929) is likely to materialize.

Inert knowledge is knowledge that can be recalled when students are specifically asked to do so but is not available for spontaneous use, in, say, problem solving, even when the knowledge is relevant to the problem at hand. Knowledge remains inert when it is not available for transfer from the classroom context to the outside world. We know that when the psychological conditions of learning and application are matched what has been learned is more likely to be transferred (e.g., Blaxton 1989). Thus, rules and forms learned in isolated meaningless drills may be harder to retrieve in the context of communicative interaction (Segalowitz and Gatbonton 1994). Finally, student motivation is likely to be enhanced if students are able to interact in a way that is meaningful to them. Then, too, they are likely to be more attentive if they are saying something meaningful. Identifying the type of learning involved helps us to think about the desirable characteristics of any practice activity. For instance, for declarative knowledge to be proceduralized a great deal of meaningful practice would be required. Further, students would have to receive feedback on the accuracy with which they produced the target form. They would

have to be restricted to using just the particular target form; in other words, structural diversity would not be permitted.6 Finally, for proceduralization to occur, it would seem important to concentrate on only one or two forms at a time, although, of course, the target form could be introduced in contrast to forms that the student already controls. Let us take an example and see how these characteristics are applied. If our students show us that they are struggling with the inversion of the subject and operator in yes-no questions, it would be clear that their immediate learning challenge is linguistic form. We will need to design or select an activity that encourages meaningful practice of the pattern, not verbatim repetition. We want the students to concentrate on producing only yes-no questions. A game like Twenty Questions would appear to meet the criteria. Students get to ask 20 yes-no questions about an object or person in an attempt to guess the identity; hence, they receive abundant practice in forming the questions, and the questions they produce are meaningful. The teacher would work with each student to enable him or her to produce the pattern accurately, perhaps providing an explicit rule, perhaps not. An example of a game that would work on the form of the English possessive comes from Kealey and Inness (1997). Students are given a family portrait in which the child's face is missing. They are also given clues as to what the child looks like, e.g., the child has the mother's eyebrows or the father's chin. A person from each small group into which the students are divided comes to the front of the room, takes a clue, memorizes it, and brings it back to his or her group so that the feature in the clue can be drawn. This continues until the child, a composite of his mother and father, is fully drawn. In sum, certain games are good devices for practicing grammar points where the challenge resides in the formal dimension. While not an activity in and of itself, another useful device for working on the formal dimension is the use of cuisenaire rods. The rods are ideal for focusing student attention on some syntactic property under scrutiny. One example that comes to mind is an adaptation of Stevick's (1980) Islamabad technique. Practicing the form of OS7 relative clauses, students might be asked to use the rods to construct a view of some spot in their hometown. The students would be encouraged to use OS relative clauses where appropriate (e.g., There is a fountain that is located in the center of my town; Around the fountain there are many people who sell fruits, vegetables, and flowers, etc.).

One final example of a type of useful activity for working on the formal dimension is a problem-solving activity. The problem to be solved could be most anything, but if we are dealing with the formal dimension, then we would want it to conform to the characteristics described above.

An example might be an information-gap activity where the students are given a class information sheet with certain items missing (see bottom of this page). Students could circulate asking one another Wh-questions (e.g., What is Beatriz's major? How old is Werner?) in order to complete the chart. Another example might be a sentence-unscrambling task. This is a useful problem-solving activity when the challenge is getting students to produce correct word order, such as when the objective is to have students use auxiliary verbs in the proper sequence. It is

important to take note that there is nothing inherent in the three examples we have provided (games, use of rods, problem-solving activities) which make them useful for addressing the formal dimension; i.e., we could easily use rods to work on some aspects of the meaning or use dimensions. What is significant to remember is that the activity should be structured in such a way that it is compatible with the characteristics presented earlier.

Meaning

If the teacher has decided that the challenge of a particular structure lies in the semantic dimension, then a different sort of practice activity should be planned. It would seem that meaning would call for some sort of associative learning (N. Ellis 1998), where students have opportunities

Name	**Age**	**Country**	**Language**	**Major**	**Hobby**
Beatriz	18	Bolivia	Spanish	Dentistry	……..
Mohammed	19	Algeria	……..	Accounting	Going to the movies
Jean Claude	……..	France	French	……...	Painting
……...	18	Brazil	……...	Education	Hiking
Warner	17	…….	Swiss German	Business	……..

to associate the form and the meaning of the particular target structure. It has been our experience that repetition is not needed to the same extent as it is when teaching some aspect of the formal dimension. Sometimes a single pairing of form and meaning suffices. Due to memory constraints, it seems prudent to restrict the number of new items being practiced at any one time to between two and six (Asher 1996). The students would receive feedback on their ability to demonstrate that they had acquired the form meaning bond. Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988) mention that when dealing with the semantic dimension, realia and pictures are very useful. Thus, for example, if the teacher has decided to work on the semantics of comparative forms in English to support some communicative task or content, he or she might show students pairs of pictures and work with them to make comparisons using the form that reflects the relation depicted (e.g., as as, more than, less than). Actions, too, can make meaning salient. The initial challenge for ESL/EFL students grappling with prepositions is to associate the "core" meaning with each. Thus, prior to having students work on direction-giving tasks using maps (Walk to the corner. Turn right at the corner.

The cinema is near the corner, next to the bank.), a good strategy might be to work with students on having them make an association between a preposition and its meaning in locating objects in space. One way of doing this is to conduct a Total Physical Response sequence where students act out a series of commands along with the teacher, involving the placement of objects in various parts of the room; e.g., Put the book next to the desk, Put the pen on the book, walk to

the door, Stand near the door, etc. Once students appear to have made the connection between form and meaning, the teacher can assess their ability to discriminate one form-meaning bond from another by having them carry out commands on their own and by issuing novel commands-e.g., Put the pen on the desk-and assessing their ability to comply. We said earlier that a persistent challenge for students' learning phrasal verbs was the fact that the meaning is often not detectable from combining the meaning of the verb with the meaning of the particle. Sometimes teachers have had their students play Concentration, a version of the game in which the students have to associate a phrasal verb written on one card with its definition written on another card. Another example of an activity that would address this semantic challenge is an operation (Nelson and Winters 1993). In an operation, a series of separate actions are performed to accomplish some task. The teacher might issue commands, or mime the actions with the students as she or he describes them.

I want to call up my friend. First, I look up the phone number Then I write it down. I pick up the receiver and punch in the number. The number is busy. I hang up and decide to call back later.

By practicing this operation several times, the students can learn to associate the form and meaning of certain phrasal verbs (call up, look up, pick up, etc.). If students are given an operation with which to associate phrasal verbs, recall at a later time will likely be enhanced. To determine if students can distinguish among the various phrasal verbs, students might be given phrasal verbs out of sequence and asked to mime the appropriate action. Feedback on their ability to match form and meaning can be given.

Use

When use is the challenge, it is because students have shown that they are having a hard time selecting the right structure or form for a particular context. Working on use will involve students learning that there are options to be exercised and that they must select from among them the one which best suits a given context. Thus, relevant practice activities will provide students with an opportunity to choose from two or more forms the one most suitable for the context and how they wish to position themselves (e.g., in a cooperative way, a polite way, an assertive way, etc.). Students would receive feedback on the appropriateness of their choice. In some cases, their choice might involve selecting between two options (e.g., when to use the passive versus the active voice). Other times, their choice would be from among an array of options (e.g., which modal verb to use when giving advice to a boss); hence, the number of forms being worked on at one time would be at least two, but could involve many more. Role plays work well when dealing with use because the teacher can systematically manipulate social variables (e.g., increase or decrease the social distance between interlocutors) to have students practice how changes in the social variables affect the choice of form. For example, if students have shown that they do not know how to use modals to give advice, they might be asked to role-play having a "dilemma." In this role play, one person

has a problem; (e.g., the keys to the car have been lost. The car is locked and the person wants to get in.) Students are asked to use modal verbs to give advice to the person with the problem; e.g.,

You might try breaking the window, you could try calling the police. The teacher could next alter a salient feature of the context, thus creating a new social context in which a different modal verb would be more appropriate. For example, the teacher might ask, "What if it were a young child that had this dilemma?" A more appropriate form and content for the advice, then, might be You had better wait for your mother to come! On another occasion, students might be asked to play the role of an advice columnist. They are to write a column and give advice to a classmate who is having a particular problem. Having students work with the same structure in writing and in speaking activities can highlight differences between written and oral grammars (Carter and McCarthy 1995). Role plays are useful for highlighting other structural choices as well. Often, we find that it is neither the form nor the meaning of the English tenses that presents the greatest long-term challenge to ESL/EFL students; rather it is when/why to use one tense and not the other. In other words, it is the pragmatic usage of the tenses that is the major obstacle to their mastery. Giving students practice with situations in which a contrast between two tenses is likely to arise may sensitize students to the usage differences. For instance, a notorious problem for ESL/EFL students is to know when to use the present perfect versus when to use the past tense. A situation where a contrast between them would occur might be a job interview. In such a context, the perfect of experience is likely to be invoked (e.g., Have you ever done any computer programming?). An elaboration to an affirmative answer is likely to contain the past tense (e.g., Yes, I have. I once worked on ... or simply, Yes. When I worked at ...). Students can take turns roleplaying the interviewer and interviewee. As was mentioned earlier, it is not only the social context that will be involved in the choice of which forms to use, but also it is often the linguistic discourse context that will make a difference. Thus, it is very important to consider teaching discourse grammar (Celce-Murcia 1991a; Hughes and McCarthy 1998). Such is the case with the passive voice. Its use is not particularly sensitive to social factors; i.e., whether one is using the active or passive voice does not necessarily depend upon with whom one is conversing. What usually does cause students considerable difficulty with the passive voice, however, is determining when to use it. The fact that the agent of an action is defocused motivates the use of the passive. Furthermore, if the agent has already been established in the linguistic discourse, it would likely not even be mentioned in subsequent discourse. Thus, most passive sentences are agentless. Challenges of this nature call for text generation or text-manipulation-type exercises. As the passive is used more often in written than in spoken English, teachers might give their students a text-completion exercise in which the first few lines of the text are provided. For example, from the first few lines in the following text, it should be clear to the students that the theme of discourse is on the "issues," not the agents (i.e., participants), at the town meeting.

Town meetings were held throughout New England yesterday. Many issues were discussed, although the big one for most citizens was the issue of growth. Many changes have been made recently. For example, .. .

Students then are asked to complete the text using the appropriate voice. As not all the sentences should be in the passive voice, students will be making choices, in keeping with a characteristic of practice activities designed to work on the use dimension. The teacher will give feedback to the students on the appropriateness of their choices. Before leaving our discussion of the passive voice, it would be useful to illustrate why we feel that identifying the challenging dimension is a worthwhile step to take before teaching any grammar structure. When we are clear where the challenge lies, the challenge can shape our lessons. For instance, as we stated earlier, it has been our experience that the greatest long-term challenge for students working on the passive voice is for them to figure out when to use the passive. Keeping this in mind will help us avoid a common practice of ESL/EFL teachers, which is to introduce the passive as a transformed version of the active (e.g., "Switch the subject with the direct object . . ."). Presenting the passive in this way is misleading because it gives the impression that the passive is simply a variant of the active.

Moreover, it suggests that most passive sentences contain agents. What we know in fact to be the case is that one voice is not a variant of the other, but rather the two are in complementary distribution, with their foci completely different. We also know that relatively few passive sentences contain explicit agents. Thus, from the first, the passive should be taught as a distinct structure which occurs in a different context from the active. (See Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999, for several examples of how to do this.) It should be noted that the pie chart, the observations about learning, and the characteristics of practice activities enumerated here may not significantly alter the way grammar is taught today. Indeed, many of the activities recommended here are currently being used. What these tools do offer, how-ever, is a principled means for dealing with grammar. They should help teachers to make clear decisions they teach grammar. They should help teachers to design effective activities or to choose from among those in a textbook without assuming that just because a textbook activity deals with the target structure, it necessarily addresses the particular learning challenge that their students are experiencing. This brings us to the close of our discussion on how to design practice activities for grammar points.

Providing Feedback

Providing learners with feedback, negative evidence which they can use to correct their misapprehensions about some aspect of the target language, is an essential function of language teaching. Even such indirect feedback as asking a learner for clarification of something he or she as said may be helpful (Schachter 1986). It has always been a controversial function, however (Larsen-Freeman 1991). There are, for instance, those who would proscribe it, believing that a teacher's intervention will inhibit students from freely expressing themselves or that there is little evidence demonstrating that learners make use of the feedback they have been given-there is little

immediate "uptake" of the correct form. While there are clearly times that such intervention can be intrusive and therefore unwarranted (e.g., in the middle of a small-group communicative activity), at other times focused feedback is highly desirable. Further, immediate uptake cannot be the sole criterion of its usefulness. Negative evidence gives students the feedback they need to reject or modify their hypotheses about how the target language is formed or functions. Students understand this, which explains why they often deliberately seek feedback. The same pie chart that we used when identifying the learning challenge and creating practice activities can also be a useful aid in diagnosing errors. When an error is committed by a student, a teacher can mentally hold it up to the pie chart to determine if it is an error in form, meaning, or use. Of course, sometimes the cause of an error is ambiguous. Still, the pie chart does provide a frame of reference, and if the diagnosis is accurate, the remedy may be more effective. More than once we have observed a teacher give an explanation of linguistic form to a student, when consulting the pie chart would have suggested that the student's confusion lay with the area of use instead. As for how the feedback is to be provided, we have already mentioned several useful options recasting, for instance. Getting students to self-correct is another (see Lyster and Ranta 1997). Giving students an explicit rule is a third. Some teachers like to collect their students' errors, identify the prototypical ones, and then deal with them collectively in class in an anonymous fashion. Which of these options is exercised will depend on the teacher's style, the proficiency of the students, the nature of the error, and in which part of the lesson the error has been committed? None of these have to be used exclusively, of course. For instance, Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) offer a graduated 12-point scale ranging from implicit to explicit strategies, beginning with student identification of errors in their own writing, moving to where the teacher isolates the error area and inquires if there is anything wrong in a particular sentence, to where the teacher provides examples of the correct pattern when other forms of help fail to lead to a self-correction on the part of the student.

RELATED PEDAGOGICAL ISSUES

Sequencing

Earlier we noted that grammar structures are not acquired one at a time through a process of "agglutination" (Rutherford 1987). Rather, different aspects of form, meaning, and use of a given structure may be acquired at different stages of L2 development. This observation confirms the need for recycling-i.e., working on one dimension of a form and then returning to the form from time to time as the need arises. To some extent this will occur naturally, as the same structures are likely to be encountered in different communicative tasks and content areas. However, it is also the case that not all linguistic structures that students need to learn will be available in the language that occurs in the classroom. Therefore, it will be necessary for the teacher to "fill in the gaps," i.e., to introduce structures that don't naturally arise in classroom discourse (Spada and Light Bown 1993). For this reason, teachers might think in terms of a grammar checklist, rather than a grammatical sequence. By this, I mean that it would be a teacher's responsibility to see that students

learn certain grammatical items by the end of a given course or period of time, but not by following a prescribed sequence. Many structures would arise naturally in the course of working on tasks and content and would be dealt with then. Other structures might be introduced as the teacher determined that the students were ready to learn them. Rather than adhering to a linear progression, the choice of sequence would be left up to the teacher and would depend on the teacher's assessment of the students' developmental readiness to learn. Many teachers, of course, have little control over the content or sequence of what they work on. They must adhere to prescribed syllabi or textbooks, although even in such a situation, it may be possible for teachers not to follow a sequence rigidly. But for those teachers who have more flexibility, research on acquisition orders is germane. Some SLA research has shown that learners progress through a series of predictable stages in their acquisition of particular linguistic forms. One explanation for the order rests on the complexity of the speech-processing strategies required. Thus, all structures processable by a particular strategy or cluster of strategies should be acquired at roughly the same developmental stage. This approach has been shown to account for certain acquisition orders in ESL (Pienemann and Johnston 1987). Despite these findings and their potential implications for grammatical structure sequencing, there has been no definitive acquisition order established, and thus teachers are still left to their own resources for judgments on how to proceed. We should also note that even if an acquisition order were to be fully specified for English, there might be justification for preempting the acquisition order when students' communicative needs were not being met and when, therefore, certain structures would need to be taught, at least formulaically. Furthermore, Light Bown (1998) has suggested that even if students are asked to work on structures before they are ready to acquire them, such effort may not be in vain because such instruction might prime subsequent noticing on the part of the students, thereby accelerating acquisition when they are indeed ready.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Think of a language teaching approach which tends to favor language use over language form. How could the approach incorporate more language form? Now think of an approach that favors language form over language use. How could a focus on language use be integrated?

2. Analyze restrictive relative clauses in terms of the three dimensions of the pie chart. What has been the most challenging dimension for the students with whom you have worked?

3. Design practice activities for dealing with the pragmatics of the following:

   a. falling versus rising intonation in tag questions
   b. indirect object alternation
   c. presence or absence of existential there

Teaching%20Grammar_Why%20Form%20Meaning%20and%20Use.pdf

Lesson 38: Clauses

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: Types of clauses – Participant's Worksheet 1

Exercise 1

Underline the conjunctions in these sentences.

1. Ben watched TV while his brother played football.

2. Jim worked in a supermarket and Lisa studied at a college.

3. Although it was pouring with rain, they decided to go swimming.

4. You can come with me or you might prefer to go alone.

5. After they had supper, they went out to the cinema.

6. They always lent me money provided I paid it back quickly.

7. I'd quite like to change jobs but my boss doesn't want me to leave.

8. He ran to the bus stop so that he could get there in time for the bus.

9. She decided not to buy a new lap-top as it was too expensive.

10. The air was so polluted that several residents fell ill.

Some of these conjunctions join two main clauses, i.e. sentences which are grammatically independent of each other. They are called coordinating conjunctions.

Others join a main clause and a subordinate clause into one sentence. They are called subordinating conjunctions.

Exercise 2

Look at the sentences in Exercise 1 and:

1. classify the conjunctions into coordinating or subordinating.

2. underline the main clauses.

3). complete these definitions of main and subordinate clauses:

a. Main clauses are sentences that can stand _____ because they make _____ sense by _____, and don't leave you wanting to _____ them.

b. Subordinate (dependent) clauses _____ stand alone because they _____ on a main clause to make complete sense.

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: Types of clauses – Participant's Worksheet 2

Exercise 1

Put these subordinating conjunctions into the right box below. N.B. Some words may go in more than one box.

as so that where as if as long as before although while in order that until because despite the fact that provided that since as though though if as soon as unless even though whereas so

Time	**Place**	**Reason**	**Manner**
……...	……...	……...	……...
……...	……...	……...	……...
……..	……..	……..	……..
……...	……...	……...	……...
Contrast	**Condition**	**Purpose**	**Result**
……...	……...	……...	……...
……...	……...	……...	……...
……..	……..	……..	……..
……...	……...	……...	……...

Exercise 2

What kinds of clauses are underlined in these sentences?

1. I don't know the person she is talking about.
2. Can you see the man who's talking on his phone?
3. I was born in Manchester, which is a town in the north of England.
4. The racquet that I'd really like to buy is just so expensive.
5. The prime minister, who is a friend of mine, is coming too.

What differences of form and meaning can you see between them?

……
……
……
……
……

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: Types of clauses – Participant's Worksheet 3

Exercise 1

Look through the numbered verbs in bold in an extract from an article about Wenlock and Mandeville, the UK's 2012 Olympic mascots. Underline the verbs in bold which give you information specifically about the time when something happens or about their subject.

With a metallic finish, a single large eye made out of a camera lens, a London taxi light on their heads and the Olympic rings 1) **represented as** friendship bracelets on their wrists, they 2) **resemble** characters dreamed up for a Pixar animation.

The pair are based on a short story by children's author Michael Morpurgo that 3) **tells** how they were fashioned from droplets of the steel used to build the Olympic stadium. They will be crucial in 4) **raising** funds and spreading messages about the Games.

Wenlock, named after the Shropshire town of Much Wenlock that 5) **helped** inspire Pierre de Coubertin 6) **to launch the** modern Olympics, and Mandeville, inspired by the Buckinghamshire town of Stoke Mandeville, where the Paralympics 7) **were** founded, will become very familiar in the next two years. The chairman of the London organising committee of the Olympic Gams Lord Coe, said the mascots were aimed squarely at children and designed with the digital age in mind. He said they had the most positive reaction in workshops 8) **to road test** them.

The pair were introduced in an animated film that 9) **followed their** story from the Bolton steelworks where the frame of the Olympic stadium was made. They 10) **will** become a range of up to 30 cuddly toys, 11) **including** versions based on celebrities and sports stars, as well as adorning badges, T-shirts, mugs and more.

Exercise 2

Look at this paragraph from the extract, and find examples of each of the following:

a. a main clause

b. a subordinate clause

c. a finite verb d. a non-finite verb

"The pair are based on a short story by children's author Michael Morpurgo that tells how they were fashioned from droplets of the steel used to build the Olympic stadium. They will be crucial in raising funds and spreading messages about the Games."

Exercise 3

Match these phrases from the paragraph with the types of phrases they are. You will need to use most types of phrases more than once, but there is no example of one of the phrase types listed.

1. The pair
2. used to build the Olympic stadium
3. were fashioned
4. by children's author Michael Morpurgo
5. will be
6. about the Games
7. in raising funds
8. messages
9. the Games

A. Noun phrase
B. Verb phrase
C. Adjective phrase
D. Adverb phrase
E. Prepositional phrase

TKT: KAL Part 3 Grammar: Types of clauses – Sample Task

Match the underlined clauses with the clause types listed A–I.

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

Clause types

A. defining relative

B. non-defining relative

C. contrast

D. reason

E. condition

F. purpose

G. time

H. non-finite

I. main

Clauses

1 While there is no strong evidence, there is strong suspicion in this case.

2 They didn't move until their friends had disappeared.

3 As it was such a hot, dry summer, the authorities banned the use of barbeques.

4 I'd rather buy a computer that has a built-in camera.

5 Their house, which is just by a river, frequently floods.

6 I'll stay in my job providing I keep learning new things.

7 They gave up using their car so that they could save on petrol.

8 Walking along the river, they bumped into some friends.

Write your answers here!

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**

Lesson 39: Features of Common Written and Spoken Text Types

Good language teaching goes beyond words. Language teachers expose their students to spoken and written texts right from the start of their learning. Spoken texts include oral stories, interviews, dialogues, monologues (e.g. a welcome to country speech, a presentation to the class), phone conversations, discussions, role plays, or any other piece of spoken language.

When people are speaking to each other, their interaction is made up of series of utterances, for example questions and replies, comments and suggestions, requests and responses. Written texts include stories, comic strips, instructions, recipes, PowerPoint presentations, emails, text messages on mobile phones, newsletters, posters, scripts for plays and performances, factual texts and explanations, or any other piece of written language. When people are writing to/for each other, their interaction may be made up of series of sentences, paragraphs and connected ideas.

What are text types?

There are many different types of spoken and written texts There may be different text types in languages. Text types in English include narrative, recount, biography, report, explanations, reports, interview, description, procedure, news report, resume/CV, menu, party invitation, photo captions and labels. Each of these has typical ways of being structured and is associated with particular types of vocabulary and grammatical features. To take one example, procedural texts are a linked series of instructions. These include a range of activities such as recipes, how to make boomerangs, how to catch fish. What these activities all have in common is that they are generally based on a list of required items (what you need) and a set of steps to follow (what you do). So they provide a chance to teach the vocabulary related to the activity as well as the command form of verbs.

When you read an advertisement, an email from a friend or a research article for your degree, for example, the kinds of words, phrases, grammatical patterns, writing styles and structures you encounter are very different in each case. In other words, different types of texts contain different features. Being able to recognize these various text types and their distinct features has a number of advantages. Some of these are listed below.

1. **It helps you understand the purpose of the text.**
    - The purpose of an advertisement, for example, is to persuade the reader to buy or do something.
    - The purpose of an email to a friend is often to inform.

- The purpose of a research article is to examine an issue fully, and to argue a particular point with the support of evidence.

2. Below are eight different text types and the purposes of those texts, but they are mixed up. Decide what the purpose of each text type is and drag it to the correct text type.
3. It helps you locate information you are searching for more easily, because you will be familiar with how different texts are structured.
4. It helps you develop a shared understanding about how to communicate effectively in different situations. This means that you will be able to construct similar texts yourself using appropriate formality and structure.

Tasks:

a. Match the items on the right to the items on the left.

1. Explanation 2. Narrative 3. Discussion 4. Argumentative (Exposition) 5. Report 6. Procedure (Instruction) 7. Recount 8. Descriptive	a. An article outlining the pros and cons of having a cochlear ear implant b. A biography c. A school textbook about volcanoes d. A fairy tale e. A summary of a teacher's teaching evaluations for the year f. A travel article g. A recipe h. A newspaper editorial

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**

b. Match the words in the box with the text.

a. Explanation	b. Narrative	c. Discussion	d. Argumentative (Exposition)
e. Report	f. Recount	g Descriptive	h. Procedure (Instruction)

1. Advertising has a great impact on children and therefore advertisements should be designed carefully so that children do not adopt inappropriate values.

2. The nervous system works through a complex network of neurons. These are the basic functioning cells of the nervous system and conduct electrical impulses between the central and peripheral nervous system.

3. To produce "foie gras" (which literally means "fatty liver"), workers ram pipes down male ducks' or geese's throats two or three times daily and pump as much as 4 pounds of grain and fat into the animals' stomachs, causing their livers to bloat to up to 10 times their normal size. Many birds have difficulty standing because of their engorged livers, and they may tear out their own feathers and cannibalize each other out of stress. (Source: www.peta.org)

4. So, he sat down, opened a drawer, took out of it a woman's photograph, gazed at it a few moments, and kissed it.

5. Swallowing air when eating is often done unconsciously and may cause frequent belching during or after meals. To avoid swallowing air, make sure you slow down when eating, try not to 'slurp' drinks, and avoid talking while chewing.

6. Yesterday I fell over while walking in the hills and went to see the doctor, who bandaged my knee and gave me a tetanus injection.

7. There are various ways to overcome deteriorating eyesight. One possible avenue is to undergo eye surgery. However, before making this decision, patients should consider several factors such as the cost of the surgery, their state of health and the associated risks.

8. Major programme requirements that were identified by the directors include the need for better tools to track and evaluate clients' performance over time.

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**

https://webapp.ln.edu.hk/ceal/elss/sites/default/files/exercise/cate/reading/Understanding%20Text%20Types/index.htm

Lesson 40: Coherence and Cohesion

Cohesion

Texts are said to display cohesion when different parts of the text are linked to each other through particular lexical and grammatical features or relationships to give unity to the text. Cohesion can thus contribute to coherence. Williams (1983) summarized the different kinds of cohesive relations in texts, based on the work of Halliday & Hasan (1976) (see Figure 8.1). Cohesion in texts is achieved mainly through lexical and grammatical means. We will briefly examine these in turn.

Lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion is achieved through the selection of vocabulary.

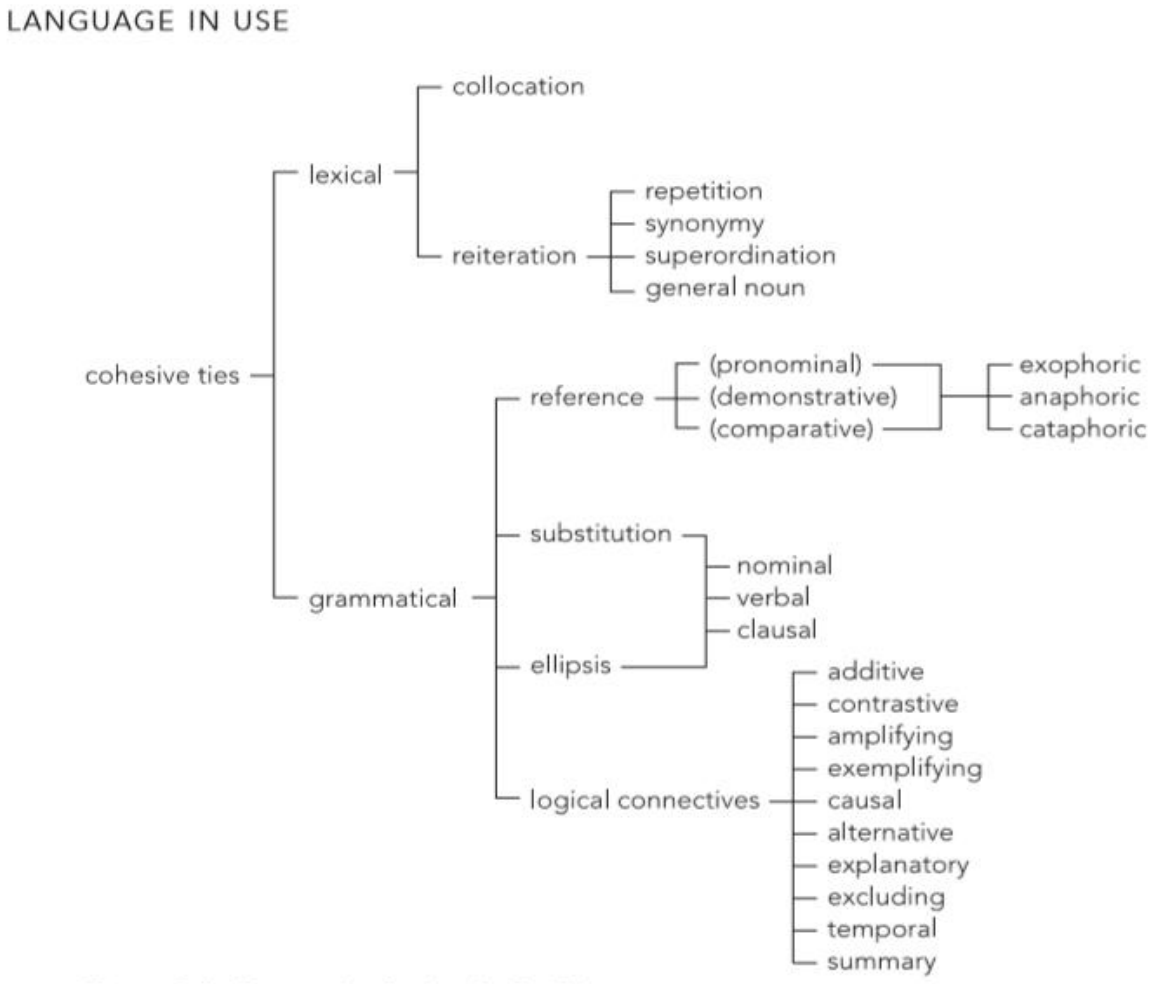


Figure 8.1 Types of cohesion in English

Collocation

As we saw in Chapter 2, particular words can become associated with or regularly found in the company of certain other words. Cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items regularly occurring together is called collocation. Collocates can be words that belong to the same area of meaning, or words that are frequently used in the same contexts, e.g. weather forecast, full moon, heavy rain. In a trial, if the jury cannot agree on a verdict then we say there is a hung jury and the judge may order a retrial. There has been an increasing tendency for such outcomes in criminal cases.

Reiteration

Halliday & Hasan identified four types: repetition, synonymy, super ordination, use of general nouns.

1. **Repetition**

Examples:

- After heavy rain the river often floods these houses.
- However, last May, in spite of continuous rain for 20 hours, the river stayed within its banks.

2. Synonymy: use of words of a similar meaning

Example:

- At 6 p.m. I rang a taxi, but because of the traffic the cab arrived late and I missed my flight.

3. Super ordination (use of general class words). Hyponymy involves the use of subordinates

Examples:

- This car is the best vehicle for a family of six. (Vehicle is a superordinate of car.

  Car is a hyponym of vehicle.)
- If I ever buy a dog, it won't be a terrier. (Terrier is a hyponym of dog.)

4. Use of general nouns –

Examples:

person, people, man, woman for human nouns; thing, object for inanimate, concrete countable nouns; stuff for inanimate, concrete uncountable nouns; place for locations, etc.,

Examples:

- Can you tell me where to stay in Los Angeles? I've never been to the place. What's that stuff? Henry seems convinced there's money in dairy farming. I don't know what gave him that idea.

Grammatical cohesion

Cohesion is also achieved through several kinds of grammatical processes. These include:

1. **Reference**

   There are three main types of reference, involving pronouns, demonstratives and comparatives.

a. Pronouns such as it, they, some, many,

Example:

When the first simple flower bloomed on some raw upland late in the Dinosaur Age, it was wind pollinated, just like its early pine-cone relatives. It was a very inconspicuous

flower because the use of color or smell to attract birds and insects to achieve the transportation of pollen had not yet evolved.

b. Demonstratives

Deictic words such as this, that, those and other determiners such as the, each, another,

Examples:

I saw a man and a child come out of the house. The man was carrying the child.

Both kids got sick again. That was more than I could cope with. You might not believe this, but I've never been to London.

c. Comparatives

Examples:

Why don't you use the ladder? You'll find it easier to reach the top shelf.

Cohesive reference can point back to previously mentioned items. This is called **anaphora** (e.g. The man left the house. **He** . . .). Cohesive reference can also point to forthcoming items. This is called **cataphora** (e.g. Those of you who have **one**, take out your dictionary). **Exophoric** reference points outside the text (and may include 'knowledge of the world'), e.g. in **Our Prime Minister** opened the conference, the specific referent depends on who says it, and in which country. The use of exophoric reference sometimes includes pointing, e.g. Why don't you buy that one over there? In conversation with people in our speech community, we often assume 'knowledge of the world' from outside the text, e.g. Who do you think will win the World Cup? assumes that the listener knows which sport is being referred to because there are 'World Cup' events for several sports.

2. Substitution and ellipsis

Related to the grammatical cohesive ties of 'reference' is the phenomenon of **substitution**, where a word or words can substitute for a noun phrase, verb phrase or clause. **Ellipsis**, as we saw in Chapter 7, is the process by which noun phrases, verb phrases or clauses are deleted (or 'understood' when they are absent).

a. Nominal substitution replaces a noun or noun phrase,

Example:

- I've ordered a black coffee. Do you want the same?

b. Verbal substitution replaces a verb with a 'pro-form',

Example:

- Paul likes muffins. Sara does too.

c. Clausal substitution uses a pro-form to replace a clause,

Example:

- I went to the exhibition and so did Fred.
- I went to the pictures, and Jane did too.
- Has he fixed the window? I (don't) think so. If not, I'll ring him again.

d. Nominal ellipsis omits a noun or noun phrase,

Example:

- They saw three spectators collapse. And then another [ ].
- Which celery did you get? This was the freshest [ ].

e. Verbal ellipsis omits a verb,

Example:

- Is the government going to survive? – It may [ ].

f. Clausal ellipsis omits a clause,

Example:

Who was on the phone? – Fred [ ].

Apposition is a kind of special case of substitution which can contribute to cohesion and coherence, e.g. This national park surrounds Menindee and Cawndilla Lakes, the saucer-shaped overflow lakes of the park's eastern boundary, the Darling River. In this example, the saucer-shaped lakes of the park's eastern boundary is in apposition to Menindee and Cawndilla Lakes; the Darling River is in opposition to the park's eastern boundary.

Apposition helps flesh out meaning by repeating a previously stated item in another form.

3. Logical connectives

Grammatical cohesion in texts is also achieved by various logical connectives which show the relationship between sentences, help us keep track of time sequences, summarize a series of items, and so on.

This table shows some of the most common logical connectives. They can be words, phrases or clauses**.** Many are conjunctions, but some are adverbials. Several of them can indicate more than one relationship, and some of the relationships overlap. Nevertheless, texts are made more cohesive because of them, as Text 8.2 illustrates. The connectives are in bold type.

B**asic conjunction relationships**

Relationship	**Examples of logical connectives**
1. ……..	and, furthermore, besides, also, in addition, similarly
2. ……..	but, although, despite, yet, however, still, on the other hand, nevertheless
3. ……..	to be more specific, thus, therefore, consists of, can be divided into
4. ……..	for example, such as, thus, for instance
5. ……..	because, since, thus, as a result, so that, in order to, so, consequently
6. ……..	or, nor, alternatively, on the other hand

7. ……..	in other words, that is to say, I mean, namely
8. ……..	instead, rather than, on the contrary
9……	initially, when, before, after, subsequently, while, then, firstly, finally, in the first place, still, followed by, later, continued
10. ……	ultimately, in conclusion, to sum up, in short, in a word, to put it briefly, that is

Text 8.2

Making ships go faster just as the railways had to increase the speed of express trains in order to compete successfully with the airlines, so must ocean liners travel faster if they are to regain the traffic they have lost. In their constant search for higher speeds at sea, marine engineers are designing ever more powerful and efficient engines. **But** the fastest ocean-going liner is still many times slower than the average aircraft. **This** is certainly true of travel between Europe and America. The fastest ships take days to make a journey across the Atlantic which an aircraft can complete in a matter of hours. The friction between a ship's hull and the water through which it is travelling must always act as a brake on the conventional ship's speed. Friction between water and the hull creates what is called drag or resistance. Drag becomes greater the bigger the ship. It can be reduced by careful streamlining of the hull and putting more power into the propellers that drive it. **Nevertheless,** streamlining and greater power do not completely solve the problem. The only solution is to lift as much of the ship as possible out of the water. **One of the earliest** attempts to put that solution into practice was the stepped hull used for high-speed motorboats. The boat then travels with only the step below the stern in contact with the water. You can see this in action when a speedboat cuts through the water with its bow high in the air. It achieves high speed because only a small part of the boat's hull is in contact with the water to create resistance. **The next** leap forward in the ever-increasing search for high speed on the water was to lift the hull right out of the water supported on skis. With a hydrofoil boat, water resistance is cut to a minimum and the chief source of drag or opposition to the movement of the hull comes from the air.

Paragraphing is another way in which written texts are given texture, with 'topic sentences' often heading a paragraph, followed by elaboration within the same paragraph.

Discussion topic

Name the cohesive relationships that are represented by the underlined words in Text 8.3. Locate the other part of the cohesive link. Find one example of ellipsis in the text.

Text 8.3

Lichens

Lichens are not like any other plants. Each one is a partnership between fungus and a green alga. The fungus and alga form a team. The fungus protects the alga so that it can live in more exposed sunny places. And, like all green plants, the algal cells make their own food in sunlight. They share what they make with the fungus. Lichens are very slow growing. Most grow only a few millimetres a year. In fine, sunny weather, they dry out and stop growing altogether. But they are very good at soaking up water. This may come from rain, fog, sea-spray, or even from dew. It allows them to grow in places where other plants could never survive.

Text 8.4

What I have lived for

Three passions, simple but overwhelmingly strong, have governed my life: the longing for love, the search for knowledge, and unbearable pity for the suffering of mankind. These passions, like great winds, have blown me hither and thither, in a wayward course, over a deep ocean of anguish, reaching to the very verge of despair.

I have sought love, first, because it brings ecstasy – ecstasy so great that I would often have sacrificed all the rest of life for a few hours of this joy. I have sought it, next, because it relieves loneliness – that terrible loneliness in which one shivering consciousness looks over the rim of the world into the cold unfathomable lifeless abyss. I have sought it, finally, because in the union of love I have seen, in a mystic miniature, the prefiguring vision of the heaven that saints and poets

have imagined. This is what I sought and, though it might seem too good for human life, this is what – at last – I have found.

With equal passion I have sought knowledge. I have wished to understand the hearts of men. I have wished to know why the stars shine. And I have tried to apprehend the Pythagorean power by which number holds sway above the flux. A little of this, but not much, I have achieved.

Love and knowledge, so far as they were possible, led upward towards the heavens. But always pity brought me back to earth. Echoes of cries of pain reverberate in my heart. Children in famine, victims tortured by oppressors, helpless old people a burden to their sons, and the whole world of loneliness, poverty, and pain make a mockery of what human life should be. I long to alleviate this evil, but I cannot, and I too suffer.

This has been my life. I have found it worth living, and would gladly live it again if the chance were offered me.

The Prologue to Autobiography by Bertrand Russell, 1872–1970

Discussion topic

Identify examples of cohesion in Text 8.4 and classify them according to the categories of cohesion described in Figure 8.1.

Text 8.5

The monarch butterfly

The life of a monarch butterfly (Danaus plexippus) begins on the underside of a milkwood leaf when an adult female deposit a tiny egg. After 3 to 12 days a striped caterpillar emerges and immediately starts feeding on the plant. Within two weeks the larva has increased its original weight by over 2,000 times. The larva sheds its skin five times as it grows. The final shedding occurs when the fully developed caterpillar has stopped eating and found a sheltered place to settle, such as a tree limb or twig. Here, before shedding its final larval skin, the larva produces a fibre to weave into a dense mat of silk to reveal the pupa. This fragile blue-green pouch, studded with gold spots that control colour in the developing wings, turns transparent in about two weeks, exposing the features of a grown butterfly. Cracks then spread across the chrysalis wall and the adult insect appears after pumping body fluid into its limp, fleshy wings. The adult insect on its perch is now ready to fly away to produce a new generation. The metamorphosis from egg to adult has taken about five weeks.

Task 8.1

In Text 8.5 identify possible lexical and grammatical cohesive links. Draw lines between them (e.g. caterpillar – larva; weaves – silk).

Cohesion and Coherence

A well-organized paper uses techniques to build cohesion and coherence between and within paragraphs to guide the reader through the paper by connecting ideas, building details, and strengthening the argument. Although transitions are the most obvious way to display the relationship between ideas, consider some of the following techniques and their examples:

Repetition of key terms/concepts/phrases

Repeating key terms/concepts/phrases will help readers follow the main threads of the paper. The key terms/concepts/phrases strengthen the organization and make the paper easier to follow, no matter how complex the material. Inhabiting the space between the personal and the global can be quite difficult for any writer, yet Myung Mi Kim does it in her book Commons. Fragments mix with complete sentences and her voice mingles with collage text while silence and space surrounds

it all. The spaces between lines and around the edges of the pages invite the reader into her text to discover and explore the multiple readings and meanings.

Synonyms

Using synonyms is similar to repeating key terms/concepts/phrases, except with more diversity in word choice. They not only help hold the paper together, but they also add variety to the paper.

She interrogates the diagrams extensively; however, she does not address the other visual images, specifically the photographs, with as much attention. The pictures comprise the majority of the visual images in Dictee, yet she glosses over them in a couple of sentences.

Sentence Patterns

Repeating and/or using parallel sentence structures can help readers digest complicated ideas and follow the progression of ideas.

Sterne embodies the tension between fact and fiction by complicating the biography and/or autobiography. Cha embodies this tension as well in her "autobiography."

Pronouns

Using pronouns, he, she, it, they, those, this, these, can be useful when referring back to something previously mentioned in the paper. However, take care to include a referent if necessary, for clarity.

He involves his students in framing the conversation that takes place in the classroom. This framing is based on the idea of reading and writing as conversation

Familiar information first, new information last

Presenting familiar terms or information first allows the ideas to build and makes it easier for the reader to follow. It helps lay the foundation for more complex or new ideas. While the Eighteenth Century is known for its rich Augustan tradition and its novels of sensibility and the gothic, writers did experiment with the blossoming form of the novel.

Coherence means the connection of ideas at the idea level, and cohesion means the connection of ideas at the sentence level. Basically, coherence refers to the "rhetorical" aspects of your writing, which include developing and supporting your argument (e.g. thesis statement development), synthesizing and integrating readings, organizing and clarifying ideas. The **cohesion** of writing focuses on the "grammatical" aspects of writing.

One of the practical tools that can help improve the coherence of your writing is to use a **concept map**. The concept map is also known as "**reverse outline**" since you make an outline of your paper after you have finished the main ideas of your paper. Write down the main idea of

each paragraph—which is called a topic sentence—on a blank piece of paper. Check to see if the **topic sentences** are connected to the thesis statement of your paper or if you have strayed from your main argument. As you repeat this process, it will help you become more aware of how to develop your argument coherently and how to organize your ideas effectively. Here is a concept map template you can use.

Cohesion is also a very important aspect of academic writing, because it immediately affects the tone of your writing. Although some instructors may say that you will not lose points because of grammatical errors in your paper, you may lose points if the tone of your writing is sloppy or too casual (a diary-type of writing or choppy sentences will make the tone of your writing too casual for academic writing). But cohesive writing does not mean just "grammatically correct" sentences; cohesive writing refers to the connection of your ideas both at the sentence level and at the paragraph level.

Here are some **examples** that illustrate the importance of connecting your ideas more effectively in writing.

The hotel is famous. It is one of the most well-known hotels in the country. The latest international dancing competition was held at the hotel. The hotel spent a lot of money to advertise the event.

Because the hotel wanted to gain international reputation. But not many people attended the event. *(The connection of ideas is not very good.)*

The hotel, which is one of the most well-known hotels in this region, wanted to promote its image around the world by hosting the latest international dancing competition. Although the event was widely advertised, not many people participated in the competition. *(The connection of ideas is better than in the first example.)*

The latest international dancing competition was held at the hotel, which is one of the most well-known hotels in this region. The hotel spent a lot of money on advertising the event since it wanted to enhance its international reputation; however, it failed to attract many people. *(The connection of ideas is better than in the first example.)*

Created by Young-Kyung Min, PhD ykmin@uwb.edu

Cohesion vs Coherence

Cohesion and coherence are linguistic qualities that are desirable in a text and as such considered important for all students trying to master a language. It is not just the awareness of these qualities but also their use in a text that makes for an important skill for students learning a language. There are many who think that cohesion and coherence are synonyms and can be used interchangeably.

However, this is not the case, and there are subtle differences despite similarities that will be talked about in this article.

Cohesion

All language tools, which are used to provide links and help in connecting one part of the sentence, are important in achieving cohesion in the text. It is difficult to define cohesion but one can visualize it as small sentences adding up to make for a meaningful text as is the case with many different pieces fitting together to make for a jigsaw puzzle. For a writer, it is better to start with text that the reader is already familiar with to make a piece cohesive. This can also be done with the last few words in a sentence setting up the next few words at the start of the next sentence.

In short, the links that stick different sentences and make the text meaningful can be thought of as cohesion in the text. Establishing connections between sentences, sections, and even paragraphs using synonyms, verb tenses, time references etc. is what brings cohesion in a text. Cohesion can be thought of as glue sticking different parts of furniture so that it takes the shape the writer wants it to give.

Coherence

Coherence is a quality of a piece of text that makes it meaningful in the minds of the readers. We find a person incoherent if he is under the influence of alcohol and not able to speak out in terms of meaningful sentences. When the text begins to make sense on the whole, it is said to be coherent. If the readers can follow and understand a text easily, it obviously has coherence. Rather than the text appearing linked together perfectly, it is the overall impression of the text that appears to be smooth and clear.

What is the difference between Cohesion and Coherence?

- If different sentences in a text are linked properly, it is said to be cohesive.
- ……...……
- ……..…….
- ……..…..

Lesson 41: Features of Spoken Discourse

Definition of Discourse

Discourse is any written or spoken communication. Discourse can also be described as the expression of thought through language. While discourse can refer to the smallest act of communication, the analysis can be quite complex. Several scholars in many different disciplines have theorized about the different types and functions of discourse.

The word discourse comes from the Latin word *discursus*, which means "running to and fro." The definition of discourse thus comes from this physical act of transferring information "to and fro," the way a runner might.

Types of Discourse

While every act of communication can count as an example of discourse, some scholars have broken discourse down into four primary types: argument, narration, description, and exposition. Many acts of communicate include more than one of these types in quick succession.

- **Argument**: A form of communication meant to convince an audience that the writer or speaker is correct, using evidence and reason.
- **Narration:** This form of communication tells a story, often with emotion and empathy involved.
- **Description:** A form of communication that relies on the five senses to help the audience visualize something.
- **Exposition:** Exposition is used to inform the audience of something with relatively neutral language, i.e., it's not meant to persuade or evoke emotion.

Other literary scholars have divided types of discourse into three categories: expressive, poetic, and transactional.

- **Expressive:** Expressive discourse comprises those acts of literary writing that is creative, yet non-fiction. This could include memoirs, letters, or online blogs.
- **Poetic:** Poetic discourse comprises creative, fictional writing. Poetic discourse includes novels, poems, and drama. These types of work often prioritize emotion, imagery, theme, and character development, as well as the use of literary devices like metaphor and symbolism.
- **Transactional:** Transactional discourse is used to propel something into action, such as advertising motivating a customer to buy, or showing a customer how to use a product via a manual. This type of discourse generally does not rely so much on literary devices.

Common Examples of Discourse

Let us look at some examples of the different types of discourse from everyday life:

> When you buy a box of Ritz crackers, on the back of the box, they have all these suggestions as to what to put on top of the Ritz. "Try it with turkey and cheese. Try it with peanut butter." But I like crackers man, that's why I bought it, 'cause I like crackers! I don't see a suggestion to put a Ritz on top of a Ritz. I didn't buy them because they're little edible plates! You've got no faith in the product itself.

Mitch Hedberg

Jokes are examples of discourse like all other communication; here, Mitch Hedberg is mainly using narration to tell a funny idea.

> In a sense we've come to our nation's capital to cash a check. When the architects of our republic wrote the magnificent words of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, they were signing a promissory note to which every American was to fall heir. This note was a promise that all men, yes, black men as well as white men, would be guaranteed the "unalienable Rights" of "Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness." It is obvious today that America has defaulted on this promissory note, insofar as her citizens of color are concerned. Instead of honoring this sacred obligation, America has given the Negro people a bad check, a check which has come back marked "insufficient funds."

"I Have a Dream" speech, Martin Luther King, Jr.

In this speech, Martin Luther King, Jr. blended different types of discourse, such as narration and argument.

Significance of Discourse in Literature

Discourse of any type is one of the most important elements of human behavior and formation. Countless studies have been done on the way the brain shapes thoughts into words and, indeed, the way that communication shapes the brain. Many studies have specifically targeted the way that speakers of different languages understand concepts differently. Thus, the creation and dispersion of discourse is of the utmost importance to the perpetuation of the human race. Literature is one of the primary ways of maintaining a record of discourse and creating new ways of understanding the world. By reading texts from other cultures and other time periods, we are better able to understand the way in which the authors of those texts thought. Indeed, reading literature from our own ostensible cultures can better highlight the ways in which we think and interact. Since each piece of literature ever created is an example of discourse, our understanding of discourse is vital to our understanding of literature.

Examples of Discourse in Literature

Example 1

MACBETH: She should have died here after;
There would have been a time for such a word.
— To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,
Creeps in this petty pace from day to day,
To the last syllable of recorded time;
And all our yesterdays have lighted fools
The way to dusty death. Out, out, brief candle!
Life's but a walking shadow, a poor player
That struts and frets his hour upon the stage
And then is heard no more. It is a tale
Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury
Signifying nothing.

(*Macbeth* by William Shakespeare)

In this beautiful and haunting soliloquy from William Shakespeare's tragedy *Macbeth,* the character of Macbeth is lamenting the death of his wife, Lady Macbeth. Shakespeare uses many different literary devices in this poetic discourse example, such as repetition in "To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow," as well as imagery and metaphor. The function of this passage is primarily to make the audience feel strong emotion, even catharsis, as Macbeth thinks about what could have been.

Example 2

The Sun never shined on a cause of greater worth. 'Tis not the affair of a City, a County, a Province, or a Kingdom; but of a Continent — of at least one-eighth part of the habitable Globe. 'Tis not the concern of a day, a year, or an age; posterity are virtually involved in the contest, and will be more or less affected even to the end of time, by the proceedings now. Now is the seed-time of Continental union, faith and honour. The least fracture now will be like a name engraved with the point of a pin on the tender rind of a young oak; the wound would enlarge with the tree, and posterity read in it full grown characters.

("Common Sense" by Thomas Paine)

Thomas Paine's "Common Sense" is an excellent example of transactional discourse. In his essay, Paine lays out the reasons that the American colonies should rebel against Great Britain. Paine relies mostly on the discourse of argument, but also calls on the emotions of his readers in this passage by asking them to think of how much territory is at stake. Paine uses literary devices such as imagery and simile as well in invoking the image of the colonies as a young oak,

Example 3

> In the meantime, things are getting more and more wonderful here. I think, Kitty, that true love may be developing in the Annex. All those jokes about marrying Peter if we stayed here long enough weren't so silly after all. Not that I'm thinking of marrying him, mind you. I don't even know what he'll be like when he grows up. Or if we'll even love each other enough to get married.

(*The Diary of Anne Frank* by Anne Frank)

Anne Frank's diary is one of the most famous examples of expressive discourse. Anne Frank was in hiding during World War II for many years in an Annex in Amsterdam, and spent her time recording her emotions and thoughts in her diary, which she named Kitty. We can see that the entries are non-fiction—that is, she truly lived them—but they are creative and expressive all the same.

Test Your Knowledge of Discourse

1. Which of the following statements is the best discourse definition?

A. Running back and forth between something.

B. Any act of spoken or written communication.

C. A heated discussion.

2. If a text is used primarily to compel a reader to action, which type of discourse would this be?

A. Transactional

B. Expressive

C. Poetic

3. Consider the opening paragraph of George Orwell's novel 1984:

> It was a bright cold day in April, and the clocks were striking thirteen. Winston Smith, his chin nuzzled into his breast in an effort to escape the vile wind, slipped quickly through the glass doors of Victory Mansions, though not quickly enough to prevent a swirl of gritty dust from entering along with him

Which of the types of discourse is present here?

A. Argument

B. Exposition

C. Description

Discourse, Spoken and Written language and Sentences and Utterances

Discourse is one of the four systems of language, the others being vocabulary, grammar and phonology. Discourse has various definitions but one way of thinking about it is as any piece of extended language, written or spoken, that has unity and meaning and purpose. One possible way of understanding 'extended' is as language that is more than one sentence.

Example

Something as short as two phrases in a conversation or as long as an entire extended essay are both examples of discourse and both show various features of discourse.

In the classroom

Areas of written and spoken discourse looked at in language classrooms include various features of cohesion and coherence, discourse markers, paralinguistic features (body language), conventions and ways of taking turns.

Further links:

https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/speaking-aids

https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/context-developing-activities

Differences between spoken language and written language

Spoken language	**Written language**
1. Spoken language is the primary form of linguistic communication.	1. Written language is the secondary medium of communication.
2. Spoken language is audible and temporary. a. Utterance b. Conventional analysis	2. Written language is visible, written or printed and hence more permanent than spoken language.
3. Spoken language takes place in context of situation and so it is supported by extra-linguistic elements including all in the surrounding.	3. Written words can be examined outside their original context.
4. Spoken language is primarily interactional.	4. Written language is primarily transactional.
5. Spoken language is not usually packed with information.	5. Written language is usually packed with facts.

6. A speaker's voice, rhythm, intonation etc. are necessary features for the understanding of the speech.	6. Punctuation, word and sentence order are important for understanding of a written text.
7. Spoken language has a loose syntactic structure.	7. Written language is usually richly organized.
8. In spoken language, the use of more than two premodifying adjective is rare.	8. Written language has heavily premodified noun phrases.
9. The spoken language incorporates a lot of vocabulary, such as-'a lot of', things, nice, sort of..	9. This device is not taken in written language, partly to avoid monotony, and to make language formal, stable.
10. The speaker may suffer the disadvantage of exposing his/her own feelings, emotions.	10. The writer can easily manipulate words and expression in a way.

Sentence and Utterance

Sentence and utterance are of fundamental importance to both semantics and pragmatics. A sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within a theory of grammar, while an utterance is the issuance of a sentence, a sentence-analogue, or sentence-fragment, in an actual context. Empirically, the relation between an utterance and a corresponding sentence may be quite obscure (e.g. the utterance may be elliptical, or contain sentence-fragments or 'false-starts'), but it is customary to think of an utterance as the pairing of a sentence and a context, namely the context in which the sentence was uttered.

Difference between Sentences and Utterances

In pragmatics, sentences, and utterances are interpreted as two different types of units hiving varied purposes, structures and effects as presented in the table below:

Sentences	**Utterances**
1. Sentences are written, usually formal and isolated from the context.	1. Utterances are spoken, largely informal and related to the context.
2. A sentence contains complete sense.	2. ……
3. Sentences manifest the lexico-grammatical rules for the purpose of demonstration or display.	3. …… ……
4. A sentence ends with full stroke.	4. ……
5. A sentence may be decontextualized.	5……

6. A sentence is not accompanied by voice qualities or supra-segmental.	6. An Utterance is accompanied by both voice qualities and supra-segmental.
7. A sentence is not supported by body language.	7. An Utterance is supported by body language.
8. A sentence has tensed verb (finite verb). For example: It *is a (Verb)*beautiful day.	8. ……
9. A sentence does not have repetitions of words or phrases.	9. ……
10. A sentence has capitalization and may have mechanics.	10. ……
11. A sentence is usually studied in semantics and syntax.	11. ……
12. A sentence is a unit of analysis whose meaning or signification is established by paradigmatic association with other sentences.	12. ……
13. Example: He is travelling there by train.	13. Example: He, the boy's travelling there, to Dhaka by train....

http://www.literarydevices.com/discourse/

Lesson 42: Semantic and Pragmatic Meaning

Key Difference: Semantics and Pragmatics are branches of Linguistics. Semantics deals with the study of meaning of word without the context. On the other hand, Pragmatics understands the language meaning but keeping the context in mind.

The word Semantics is derived from the Greek word semantikos meaning to show or give signs. Semantics is the study of meaning. It covers a lot of study areas related to language. Semantics help in getting a sense of meaning in context to speakers, writers, readers of learners. It also helps in known that how the meanings got change over a period of time.

William Frawley defines linguistic semantics as "the study of literal, decontextualized, grammatical meaning". Semantics is concerned with the conceptual meaning related to words. Semantics does not focus on the context, rather it deals with the meaning according to grammar and vocabulary. The focus is only on the general rules used for a language.

Pragmatics is a different discipline in linguistics from Semantics. Semantics is all about question of meaning, whereas Pragmatics is all about questions of use. It deals with that aspect of meaning which is dependent on the context. Semantics deals with the study of what signs denote. On the other hand, Pragmatics deals with the relation of signs to their users and interpreters.

Pragmatics makes uses of three major communication skills like using language, changing language and following rules.

Using language in context to different purposes like for greeting one uses words like “hello”. Changing language is all about the change in language which is based on the needs of a listener or situation. For example- the way one tells an instruction to a child than to an elderly person. Following rules is about the rules of conversations or in storytelling like one rephrases if the listener is not able to grasp the orator.

Semantics is limited to the relation of words to which they refer, whereas pragmatics covers the study of relationships between words, the interlocutors and also the context.

Comparison between Semantics and Pragmatics:

	Semantics	**Pragmatics**
Definition	Semantics is a term which is derived from the Greek word seme meaning sigh. Semantics is another important field related to theoretical linguistics. It is all about studying the meaning of linguistic expressions.	Pragmatics understands the language meaning but keeping the context in mind.

Focus	Meaning	Language Use
Scope	Narrow as it deals with only meaning	Broad as it deals with aspects beyond text
Meaning of an utterance	Context independent	Context dependent
Governed by	General rules	Principles
Domain	Grammar	Rhetoric
Example	Semantics deals with the conditions under which the proposition expressed by a sentence is true. These are known as truth-conditions. ‘The red cup is on the table’ is True if and only if the red cup is really on the table.	The sentence ‘It is very cold’ by the speaker may mean that temperature is low (semantic approach), or some other explanation. A Pragmatic may also like to consider that may be the speaker wants to switch on the blower and used the statement “it is very cold” as an associated sentence.
A typical question	Is an utterance true?	Is the utterance appropriate in a given situation?

Semantic vs. Pragmatic: Examples and How to Tell the Difference

Help With English Grammar & Vocabulary / By Courtney Crass / Homework Help & Study Guides. When learning the English language, understanding the differences between semantic and pragmatic meaning can be a valuable tool to maximize your linguistic ability. Although both are terms used in relation to the meanings of words, their usage is drastically different.

What Is Semantics?

……

……

The field of semantics focuses on three basic things: “the relations of words to the objects denoted by them, the relations of words to the interpreters of them, and, in symbolic logic, the formal relations of signs to one another (syntax)” [1]. Semantics is just the meaning that the grammar and vocabulary impart, it does not account for any implied meaning.

Semantics is a discipline in linguistics that analyses the meaning of words in the language. It only deals with text and analyses the meaning of words and how they are used to form meaningful contexts. The study of semantics does not take context into consideration; it is only concerned with grammar and vocabulary and conceptual meaning of a word. The meaning of a sentence remains constant whenever a certain expression is uttered. Thus, it can be said that

semantics only analyses what that particular expression mean in a very general sense. Semantics has a narrow scope since it only deals with meaning.

Pragmatic Word Usage

Pragmatic meaning looks at the same words and grammar used semantically, except within context. In each situation, the various listeners in the conversation define the ultimate meaning of the words, based on other clues that lend subtext to the meaning.

For example, if you were told to, "Crack the window," and the room was a little stuffy, and the speaker had just said prior to this that they were feeling a little warm, then you would know, pragmatically, that the speaker would like you to open the window a 'crack' or just a little.

What is Pragmatics?

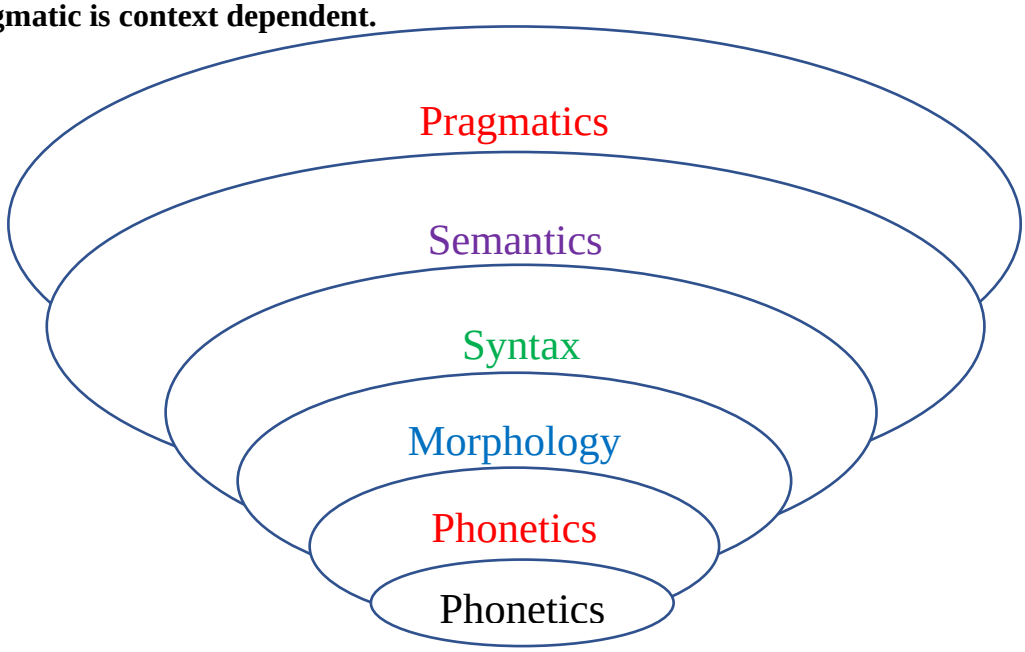
……

…….

Instead of examining what the expression means, this field studies what the speaker means in using a certain word or expression. They consider different factors surrounding the utterance such as the speaker's intended meaning, contextual factors, and listener's inferences in order to interpret the utterance. In simple words, pragmatics deal with what is implied in an utterance.

Key Difference – Semantics vs Pragmatics

Although both semantics and pragmatics are two branches of linguistics that are related to the meaning of language, there is a major difference between the two. Knowing the difference between semantics and pragmatics can help clear the misunderstandings and miscommunication in language. Semantics is involved with the meaning of words without considering the context whereas pragmatics analyses the meaning in relation to the relevant context. Thus, the **key difference** between semantics and pragmatics is the fact that **semantics is context independent whereas pragmatic is context dependent.**



Example:

I'm so hungry I could eat a horse.

If we examine this utterance semantically, we'd only be concerned with the conceptual meaning, grammar, vocabulary, and the literal meaning.

However, if we are to examine this utterance in pragmatics, we'd also examine the context and what the speaker is trying to imply from this utterance. Is the speaker really going to eat a horse? Or is he trying to imply that he is extremely hungry? Is the speaker making a general comment? Or is he asking for food by this comment? Then we'd understand that the meaning of this sentence cannot be taken in a literal sense.

What is the difference between Semantics and Pragmatics?

Definition:

Semantics is a branch of linguistics concerned with the meaning of morphemes, words, phrases and sentences and their relation.

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics concerned with the use of language in different contexts and the ways in which people produce and comprehend meanings through language.

Lesson 43: What Can Teachers Do to Promote Learning?

A. Teacher Strategies to Promote Learning

Here are some teacher strategies that research indicates can be very effective in helping struggling learners to successfully master new academic skills:

1. Instructional Match

Ensure that students are being taught at the optimal instructional level, one that challenges them but provides enough success to keep these students confident and invested in learning.

2. Scaffolding

Provide 'scaffolding' support (individual instructional modifications) to students as necessary to help them to master a new task or keep up with more advanced learners. Examples of scaffolding strategies include reducing the number of problems assigned to a student, permitting the student to use technological aids (e.g., word processing software which predicts student word selection to reduce keyboarding), and using cooperative learning groups that pool the group's knowledge to complete assignments.

3. Step-by-Step Strategies

For complex, conceptually difficult, or multi-step academic operations, break these operations down into simple steps. Teach students to use the steps. When students are just acquiring a skill, you may want to create a poster or handout for students to refer to that lists the main steps of strategies that they are to use.

4. Modeling & Demonstration

Model and demonstrate explicit strategies to students for learning academic material or completing assignments. Have them use these strategies under supervision until you are sure that students understand and can correctly use them.

5. Performance Feedback

Make sure that students who are mastering new academic skills have frequent opportunities to try these skills out with immediate corrective feedback and encouragement. Prompt guidance and feedback will prevent students from accidentally 'learning' how to perform a skill incorrectly!

6. Opportunities to Drill & Practice to Strengthen Fragile Skills

As students become more proficient in their new skills and can work independently, give them lots of opportunities to drill and practice to strengthen the skills. Whenever possible, make student practice sessions interesting by using game-like activities; coming up with real-world, applied assignments; or incorporating themes or topics that the student finds interesting.

7. Student 'Talk-Through' Activities

When students appear to have successfully learned a skill, set up activities for them to complete and ask the students to 'talk' you through the activity (i.e., announce each step that they are taking, describe their problem-solving strategies aloud, describe any road-blocks that they run into and tell you how they will go about solving them, etc.).

8. Periodic Review

Once students have mastered a particular academic skill, the instructor will quickly move them on to a more advanced learning objective. However, the teacher should make sure that students retain previously mastered academic skills by periodically having them review that material. Periodic review is often overlooked but is a powerful method for keeping students' academic skills sharp.

9. Progress Monitoring

Teachers can verify that students are making appropriate learning progress only when they are able to measure that progress on a regular basis. The instructor may want to consider information from several assessment approaches to monitor student progress: e.g., curriculum-based assessment, accuracy and completeness of student assignments, student 'talk-through' demonstrations of problem-solving, etc.

B. Specific strategies for developing the optimal classroom climate and culture.

There is a direct relationship between the kind of learning environment teachers create in their classrooms and student achievement. Here are 10 specific strategies for developing the optimal classroom climate and culture.

1. Address Student Needs

Remember that students, like adults, have not only physical needs but also important psychological needs for security and order, love and belonging, personal power and competence, freedom and novelty, and fun. Students are driven to meet all of these needs all the time, not just two or three of them. When teachers intentionally address these needs in the classroom, students are happier to be there, behavior incidents occur far less frequently, and student engagement and learning increases.

2. Create a Sense of Order

All students need structure and want to know that their teacher not only knows his content area, but also knows how to manage his classroom. It is the teacher’s responsibility to provide clear behavioral and academic expectations right from the beginning—students should know what is expected of them all the time. Another important way to create a sense of order is by teaching students’ effective procedures for the many practical tasks that are performed in the classroom.

For example, teach students how to:

- Enter the classroom and become immediately engaged in a learning activity
- Distribute and collect materials
- Find out about missed assignments due to absence and how to make them up
- Get the teacher's attention without disrupting the class
- Arrange their desks quickly and quietly for various purposes: in rows facing the front for direct instruction, in pairs for collaborative learning, in groups of four for cooperative learning, and in a large circle for class discussions

3. Greet Students at the Door Every Day

As students enter your classroom, greet each one at the door. Explain that you want students to make eye contact with you, give you a verbal greeting, and—depending on the age of the students—a high five, fist bump, or handshake. This way, every student has had positive human contact at least once that day. It also shows students that you care about them as individuals. If a student was disruptive or uncooperative the day before, it gives you an opportunity to check in, explain your "every day is a clean slate" philosophy, and express optimism for that class ("Let's have a great day today").

4. Let Students Get to Know You

Students come in to the classroom with preconceived perceptions of teachers. Sometimes it's good, sometimes it can be an obstacle. I wanted my students to perceive me as a trustworthy, three-dimensional human being rather than as the two-dimensional perception of an "English teacher" that they may already have. Since the only way to impact people's perceptions is to provide them with new information or new experiences, I would give students a quiz about me during the first week of school. (Of course, it didn't count.) I'd have them take out a piece of paper, number it from 1 to 10, and answer questions about me.

Things like: Do I have children of my own? Where did I grow up? What is something I value? What is something I do for fun? What other jobs have I had besides teaching?

After the quiz, we would go over the answers as a class while I shared a slideshow of pictures of my children, my hometown, and representations of things that are important to me, like family, education, a strong work ethic, fairness, and so on. (I would even get a laugh out of some of their answers.) Students enjoy learning about their teachers, and the quiz gave me an opportunity to share who I am, what I value, and what experiences I bring to teaching.

If the "first week quiz" isn't something you're comfortable with, think of other ways you can share with your students:

- Who you are
- What you stand for
- What you will do for students and what you won't do for them
- What you will ask of your students and what you won't ask of them

5. Get to Know Your Students

The more you know about your students' cultures, interests, extracurricular activities, personalities, learning styles, goals, and mindsets, the better you can reach them and teach them. Some ways of getting to know your students:

- Educate yourself about their cultures
- Talk to them
- Assign journal prompts and read and respond to them
- Attend extracurricular events
- Have students complete interest inventories or surveys
- Have students complete learning style and personality assessments
- Hold regular class meetings
- Play team-building games with students

6. Avoid Rewarding to Control

Over 50 years of research has shown that incentives, gold stars, stickers, monetary rewards, A's, and other bribes only serve to undermine students' intrinsic motivation, create relationship problems, and lead to students doing nothing without a promised reward. The human brain has its own rewards system. When students succeed at a challenging task, whether it's academic (a class presentation) or behavioral (getting through a class without blurting out), their brains get a shot of endorphins. Instead of devaluing their successes with stickers or tokens, talk to students about how it feels to achieve proficiency and praise the effort, strategies, and processes that led them to those successes. Then talk about what they learned this time that will help them achieve their next successes.

7. Avoid Judging

When students feel like they are being judged, pigeonholed, and/or labeled, they distrust the person judging them. It's hard not to judge a student who just sits there doing no schoolwork after you've done everything you can to motivate her. It's easy to see how we might call such students lazy. And it's easy to label the student who is constantly provoking and threatening peers as a bully. But judging and labeling students is not only a way of shirking our responsibility to teach them ("There's nothing I can do with Jonny. He's simply incorrigible."), but it also completely avoids the underlying problem. Instead of judging students, be curious. Ask why. (Where is this fear or hostility coming from?) Once you uncover the underlying reason for the behavior, that issue can be dealt with directly, avoiding all the time and energy it takes to cajole, coerce, and give consequences to students.

8. Employ Class-Building Games and Activities

It's important to develop positive relationships *with* your students; it's equally important to develop positive relationships *among* them. One of the best ways to break down the cliques

within a classroom and help shy or new students feel a sense of belonging is to engage students in *noncompetitive* games and cooperative learning structures. There are hundreds of resources online and in books that provide thousands of appropriate choices for your grade level. Another benefit of bringing play into the classroom is that it gives your students a very powerful reason to come to your class—it's fun.

9. **Be Vulnerable**

   Being vulnerable develops trust faster than any other approach. Admitting your mistakes shows that you are human and makes you more approachable. It also sends the message that it's okay to make mistakes in this classroom. That's how we learn. Vulnerability and public self-evaluation also help develop a growth mindset culture: We embrace mistakes rather than try to avoid them at all costs. We learn from those mistakes and grow. Make a simple mistake, like spilling a glass of water or misspelling a word on the board, and instead of making excuses, talk about how you're glad you made that mistake, because it taught you something.

10. **Celebrate Success**

    At first this may seem to contradict strategy six about avoiding rewards. It doesn't. A celebration is a spontaneous event meant to recognize an achievement. It is not hinted at or promised ahead of time like an "if-you-do-this-then-you-get-that" reward. Instead, you might set a class goal, such as the whole class achieving 80 percent or higher on an assessment. Chart students' progress on a wall chart (percentages, not individual names). After each assessment, discuss the strategies, processes, or study habits that students used to be successful and what they learned and might do to improve on the next assessment.

Once the class has achieved the goal, hold a celebration. It doesn't need to be a three-ring circus. Showing some funny or interesting (appropriate) online videos, bringing in cupcakes, or playing some noncompetitive games would suffice. The next time you set a class goal and students ask if you're going to celebrate again, tell them not necessarily. It really isn't about the cupcakes, it's about the effort and learning.

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https://www.interventioncentral.org/academic-interventions/general-academic/teacher-strategies-promote-learning

Lesson 44: What Makes a Person Want to Learn?

Motivation in Language Learning

What is motivation?

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

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

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

Key concepts

why were/are you motivated to learn English? List You reasons.

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

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

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

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

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

Key concepts and the language teaching classroom

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

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

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

Reflection

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

1. I have such big classes that it's impossible for me to try to motivate each learner.

2. I always put my learners' work up on the wall even if their English isn't very accurate.

3. You can give goals to 7-year olds but not to 17-year olds.

Discovery Activities

1. Look at these resources. Are any of them suitable for motivating your learners?

   http://www.eslpartyland.com/teachers/nov.music.htm

   http://www.english-zone.com

   htpp://www.jamiekeddie.com

   Beginner's Communication Games, Elementary Communication Games, Intermediate Communication Games by Us (Second edition) Elementary, by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell, 2010, Pre-intermediate & Intermediate by Stuart Redman 2003, Upper-intermediate by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell, Cambridge University Press, 2001, Advanced by Michael and Felicity O'Dell, Cambridge University Press 2002.

2. Watch a Video of another teacher teaching, and note how he/she motivates the learners.
3. Take one of you lesson plans a course book unit and look at where and how you could build in more motivation. Put your ideas in you Teacher Portfolio and/or share them with a colleague.
4. Underline two strategies in the table on pages 54-5 that you will try next week (or very soon)

TKT Practice task 9 (See page 245 for answers)

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

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

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

1. Promote learner autonomy.

A. Give learners advice on how to use study resources.

B. Go over the answers with the whole class.

C. Give learners a set of goals to choose from.

2. Familiarize learners with the target culture.

A. Explain that culture covers many kinds of activities.

B. Watch and discuss soap operas form and English-speaking country.

C. Show the class photos of you last holiday in London.

Lesson 45: Using Coursebooks

Choosing and using a coursebook

Introduction Choosing a coursebook is one of the most important selections which teachers can make. Teachers cannot influence their working lives in many ways. You cannot choose your teaching hours, your holiday periods, the classes you teach, the learners who are in those classes, or the classrooms you use, but you can choose your coursebook.

You select a coursebook for your learners and for yourself, so you first need to analyze your learners' needs and your own needs.

What do you want from a coursebook?

Teachers want different things from their coursebooks and they use them in different ways. Some teachers want a coursebook to provide everything. They want the teacher's book to tell us what to do, in which sequence to do each activity and how to assess the progress which our learners have made.

However, some teachers do not want the coursebook to control their lives. They want to be able to plan their own lessons or even their own syllabus. They want the coursebook to be a library of materials from which they can choose to be used in the ways they choose.

What can a good coursebook give the teacher?

A good coursebook can help teachers by providing:

- a clearly thought-out programme which is appropriately sequenced and structured to include progressive revision;
- a wider range of materials than an individual teacher may be able to collect;
- security;
- economy of preparation time;
- a source of practical ideas;
- work that the learners can do on their own so that the teacher does not need to be center stage all the time;
- a basis for homework if this is required;
- a basis for discussion and comparison with other teachers.

What do your learners need from a coursebook?

Learners want a coursebook to be colorful and interesting. They hope the coursebook will contain exciting games and activities. They hope the cassettes will contain exciting stories, amusing dialogues and entertaining songs and rhymes.

But what do the children need? We all know that children have short memories. They find it difficult to retain ideas and language from one lesson to the next. So, the children need a coursebook which becomes an accessible and understandable record of their work.

A good coursebook gives learners:

- a sense of progress, progression and purpose;
- a sense of security;
- scope for independent and autonomous learning;
- a reference for checking and revising.

The perfect coursebook

The Perfect Coursebook for every teacher and every class does not exist. When selecting a coursebook you always need to make a compromise.

There will be things which you don't like about any coursebook.

- How important are those things?
- Can you create materials to substitute those aspects?
- Has the coursebook got something missing?
- Can you find or create materials to fill that gap?

Remember that you work in a partnership with your coursebook. Never expect the coursebook to do everything for you. You will always need to personalize your teaching with your own personality.

What can you contribute to the coursebook?

As a teacher you have a collection of skills. There are some things which you may be very good at doing things:

- Are you a great artist who can draw all the pictures you need?
- Are you a musician who can play and sing any songs you need?
- Do you know hundreds of simple games for your learners to play?
- Do you have a good competence in English?
- It may not be enough to be a native speaker, you also need to be able to analyze and grade the language which you teach your learners.

How attractive is the design?

First impressions count, unfortunately some might say. If a coursebook looks cheap, tacky, unprofessional or dull, our learners might not respond positively to it. If the content is good, they might change their minds after using it for a while, but a coursebook that doesn't match what your students consider to be visually stimulating may prove to be a tough sell.

Length of Course.

How long is the course you are teaching? Coursebooks are designed to provide the teacher with enough material for a set number of hours. This can, of course, be extended by using supplementary materials, often provided online or in the form of a DVD-ROM. A common complaint of teachers and students is that coursebooks contain too much material and teachers have to rush through the units to ensure that students feel that they are covering all the essential material. This can be a serious problem as it can result in teachers going at the pace of the stronger students and leaving the weaker learners behind.

Supplementary Materials

Most coursebooks are accompanied by a workbook, classroom activities (usually found in the Teacher's book or DVD-ROM) and, increasingly, online practice materials. These materials are often ideal for homework but they should supplement the coursebook rather than provide new content. Remember that learners need to recycle and review materials to ensure they retain new language.

Methodology

Have a look at the Teacher's book. Does it clearly state the thinking behind the coursebook? What approach to learning does the book recommend? Does it match the teaching philosophy (often expressed in the promotional copy) at your school? Check that the approach proposed in the Teacher's book is reflected in the choice of activities found in the Student's book? Refer to the contents page.

Ease of using for students

Put yourself in the role of a student – or better, ask a student to test-run the book – and think about how easy or difficult it is to work your way around the book.

- Are the goals for each unit clear and appropriate?
- Are the topics clearly stated?
- Where are grammar explanations and how clear are they?
- Is there enough white space to prevent overwhelm?
- Where are the review activities?
- Are tape-scripts to listening texts found at the back?

Ease of use for teachers

Experienced teachers can generally navigate any coursebook. Inexperienced teachers may struggle if the Teacher's book is not well-designed. Are there some clever ideas for adapting or extending coursebook activities?

- Where are the answers?
- Do you understand any technical terms used?

Appropriate and relevant topics

- Are the topics likely to engage or bore your learners?
- Are the cultural references specific to English-speaking countries? If they are, they may not hold the interest of your learners.
- Are the images, in particular, the images of people, likely to appeal to your learners?

Syllabus

Have a look at the contents page. Is there good coverage of the 4 skills? What about grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation? Are there review activities at the end of each units? What about tests? Are there regular progress tests and an end-of-course test?

Coursebook materials are all the materials in a coursebook package that we use in the classroom to **present** and practice language, and to develop learners´ language **skills**. In one hand, a coursebook package includes:

- A student book, a teacher´s book and audio and video recordings. The **teachers´ book** includes the **tape-script, audio script** or **transcript.**
- A **workbook** or **activity book** which may have a CD-ROM, material for use with an interactive whiteboard or extra material in a website.

Teachers select teaching materials based on a "**needs** analysis" that is a study of learners´ level, language needs and interests, using questionnaires, interviews and **diagnostic tests**, so this information helps to build up a **class profile** knowing what learners have in common and how they differ from each other.

If the coursebook materials prepared for the teaching process are not sufficient for learners, teachers have to think on these choices:

- To replace the coursebook material with materials with the same focus/**aim** from another book or **resource.**
- To **adapt** the coursebook material that is change it in some way to make it suitable for the learners.

In conclusion, for making sure the correct understanding of the language, I will probably make and use the more attractive and interesting material for learners such as games, mime, pictures, realia, facial expressions and other updated resources.

Options for coursebook use

- Course books are very important teaching tool that supports teacher to clarify and simplify material and provide needed assistance.
- They are organized and carefully planned and provide the students assistance.
- The sequential presentation of information in an orderly manner, allows the teacher to present didactic and extra material in a balanced and sequential way and also provides a sequence of teaching procedures, that tells what and when to do it.

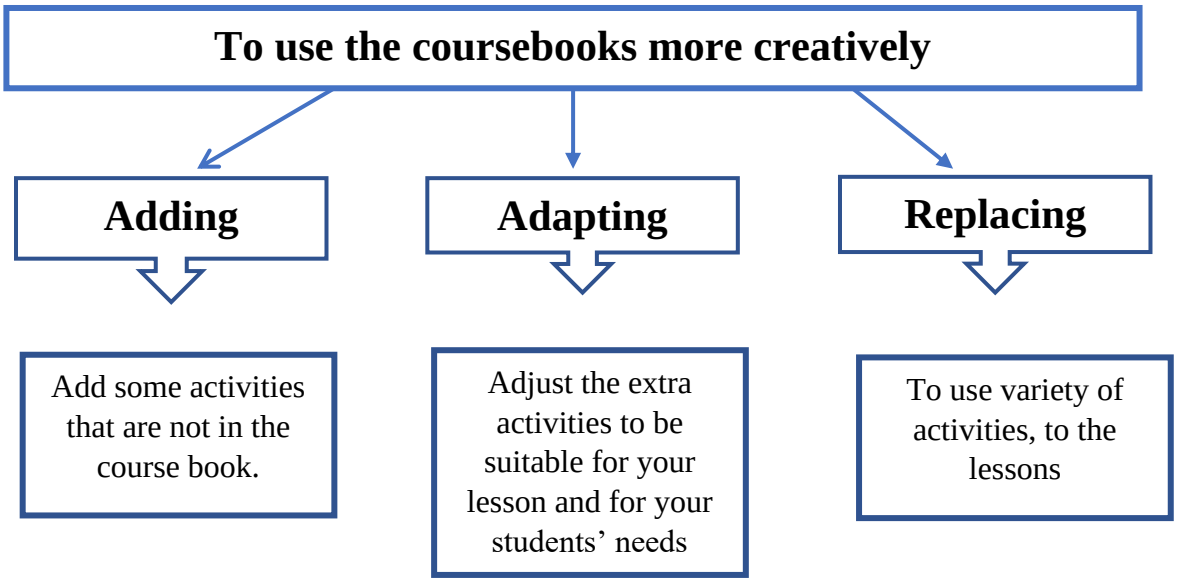
Options for coursebook use

- There are four alternatives to take in consideration, if we do not agree with a course book:
- Firstly, there is no problem if we omit lessons, teachers are evaluating all the time.
- Secondly, provide our own material, should be better than exercises from course book and also could be more interesting than exercises provided by mention course book.
- Thirdly, teachers could add activities and exercises, in order to have enthusiastic and interested activities, using and revising grammar and vocabulary according the topic they are working on.

The last alternative is for teacher to adapt what is on the course book, rewriting, redoing, reordering, replacing, reducing, etc. So, students and teacher can feel more comfortable using the course book in adequate way.

Adding, adapting and replacing

To use the coursebooks more creatively



Course books are probably the teacher's and the student's most valuable resource as they work together through the school curriculum. Course books are normally quite well organized and help us to progress step by step through everything the curriculum wants us to work on.

Adding, adapting and replacing

- Teacher will be able to address your students' needs in a more accurate, targeted way by having greater control over what materials you use with them and what activities you provide for them in your lessons for achieving a better developing in learning process.

Reason for (and against) coursebook use SOME ADVANTAGES

GOOD course books present:

- Well-structured syllabus
- Interesting content
- Consistent grammar
- Appropriate vocabulary and use of language
- Excellent reading and listening material

Reasons for (and against) coursebook use

- Because of the lack of time for teacher to plan, that takes the course book as an ideal option to prepare each class. Besides, there we can find teacher´s guide which is an excellent monitor for every lesson plan.
- Students feel comfortable with course books, they can see through the contents and be ready to the next topic.

ON THE OTHER HAND

- There is the risk that the course book becomes the ONLY material to work with. Both, students and teacher will feel locked in the book suggestions.
- Each class might develop a course book – centered approach causing lack of creativity.

ASPECTS TO TAKE INTO ACCOUNT

- The best thing teachers and students should do is taking the course book as a proposal for action without rejecting ideas from other sources.
- The course book might work as a primary source accompanied by multiply fonts of information.
- The teacher is the one who decides how and when the material is used and of course it must be employed according to the students´ progress.

Choosing coursebooks

Teachers have to make competent choice what books to employ.

- To carry it out, teacher should determine the pertinent course book analyzing the books under consideration through checklist of questions.
- Besides, teacher asks the learners´ point of view to take into account students´ needs and discuss with colleagues which benefit teacher come to a final decision.

Choosing coursebooks

- There are possible areas for consideration which are fundamental to take a precise decision such as: Price and availability, Add-ons and extras, Layout and design, Instructions, Methodology, Syllabus, Language skills, Topics, Cultural appropriacy, Teacher's guide

- So, when choosing books, these factors should be taken into consideration:
- Analyze it. Check areas like the list in the further chart.
- Pilot it. Use it in one or two classes and see the results.
- Consult other teachers.
- Consider opinion from students.

Conclusions

- In this chapter we have considered an important issue because it is decisive for the teaching-learning process to choose an appropriate course book.
- Initially, we have analyzed several options for adding, adapting and replacing and how important is the teacher´s creativeness in selecting these options apart from not to depend on merely the book content but assessing with extra resources for reinforcing lessons.
- It is very important to realize that a textbook is an aid, not a sacred text. Teachers should work out the best ways to use their books but they should never let the book use them. Course books must be at the service of teacher and learners, not their masters.
- Quite often teachers complain about course books that need supplementing. The truth is: all course books need supplementing. The point is just to decide how much and what kind of supplementing a course book requires, always according to the needs and characteristics of a particular learner or a group of learners.
- After that we have consider a range of elements before choosing an appropriate course book.
- With these guidelines, we as teachers will get the best of our selected book and students will be comfortable when working with an appropriate material on their hands.

Choosing coursebooks

Possible areas for consideration	**Possible questions for coursebook analysis**
Price and availability	Consider the students´ acquisition power
Add-ons and extras	Check amount if extra resources in comparison with other books
Layout and design	See the structure design and if it is easy to manage
Instructions	Check if language instructions and how independent could be its use
Methodology	Test the relation between study and activation. Analyze the steps from learning to production
Syllabus	Compare the objectives and learning goals with class levels
Language skills	Take a look of how the book covers each language skills

Topics	Take in consideration attractive issues for your students considering age and social context.
Cultural appropriacy	Customs, ethnicities, economic context should be taken in consideration which may be engaging at the teaching time.
Teacher's guide	Review the teacher´s guide and how easy to follow is

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Skimming and Scanning www2.elc.polyu.edu.hk/.../ Skimming and Scanning/index....

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http:/wilette.nttc.org

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