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International TEFL Training institute

COURSE MANUAL

120
HOUR
TESOL CERTIFICATION

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COURSE
MANUAL

Welcome to the iTTi TESOL Certification program. As we now have traveled beyond the millennial mile post, we can look back with some pride at the completed century's accumulation of knowledge about second language learning and teaching. Such was not always the case. The first forty years of the twentieth century saw little if any development of a field of language pedagogy. But by the middle of the century, language teachers witnessed the birth of a disciplined approach to second language learning and teaching: methodological frameworks were the subject of applied linguistic research on the nature of language learning and the successful acquisition of languages in classrooms. Yet, the nascent profession was hard put to come up with viable answers to questions about how to teach interactive skills in the classroom. By the 1970s, second language acquisition was establishing itself as a discipline in its own right, asserting its place not merely as an offshoot of linguistics or psychology. The resulting research of this adolescent profession was beginning to provide some profound observations about communicative language teaching. As the field gathered momentum, journals, professional organizations, university departments, and research studies grew with amazing speed.

By the last decade of the twentieth century, our storehouse of information about how to successfully teach foreign languages had attained a remarkable level of sophistication. Dozens of respected periodicals and hundreds of textbooks and anthologies currently offer

ample evidence that language teachers must be **technicians,** well versed in the pedagogical options available to meet the needs of various ages, purposes, proficiency levels, skills, and contexts of language learners around the globe.

Our TESOL course textbook synthesizes that accumulation of knowledge into a practical approach to teaching English as a second or foreign language. It's a textbook for prospective and new teachers who need to learn how to walk into a classroom and effectively accomplish communicative objectives. It primarily addresses the needs of those in teacher education programs who have never taught before, but it secondarily serves as a refresher course for those who have had some experience in the classroom. The book speaks both to those who are in English as a Second Language contexts (in English-speaking countries) and to those who are in English as a Foreign Language situations. And the book is designed to be read and studied and enjoyed by those with little or no previous work in linguistics, psychology, or second language acquisition.

For a significant part of the twentieth century, teacher education programs were expected to deliver a handful of different methods—relatively homogeneous sets of classroom practices that sprang from one particular theoretical perspective. Thus, the Audiolingual Method with its behavioristic underpinnings, was at one time touted as a method for all occasions. Or teachers would learn how to use the Silent Way, Community Language Learning or Suggestopedia—each with its own formula for success and its own theoretical bias. We have today graduated beyond such a restrictive concept. While we may still appropriately refer to classroom methodology, the various named methods are no longer at the center of our concern. Instead, our current—and more enlightened—foundations of language teaching are built on numerous principles of language learning and teaching about which we can be reasonably secure. Our textbook is designed to help teachers build a repertoire of classroom techniques that are firmly embedded in well-established principles of second language acquisition.

So you have decided to become a language teacher! Welcome to a profession that will guarantee you more than your fair share of challenges, growth, joy and fulfillment.

International TEFL Training Institute

TESOL COURSE
TEXTBOOK

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PART 2: LANGUAGE AWARENESS

Lesson Planning

Should we plan lessons?

There are various schools of thought on this issue. Some scholars suggest that lesson planning is not a good idea, as it creates a more fixed, teacher-centered lesson. It is true that too much planning can make lessons rather rigid and stop the teacher from being flexible to the needs of the students. However, it is especially difficult for inexperienced teachers to be as flexible as this would require. The teacher is expected to let the students decide what to do in the class, but an inexperienced teacher would find great difficulty in being able to conduct a lesson in such a way. New teachers wouldn't be prepared to deal with some of the language problems that may arise from such a lesson and lessons. They will get lost, and their teaching will lack direction.

Most teachers will find themselves somewhere between these two extremes. They will make notes or complete lesson plan forms, but will build in flexibility.

The writing of lesson plans has a number of important functions:

1. An aid to planning

Writing down what you expect the students to achieve by the end of the lesson, and how you intend to make that possible, helps you to think logically through the stages in relation to available time.

2. A working document

A lesson plan helps you to keep on target and gives you something to refer to during the lesson. However, it should not stop you from being flexible and responding to the needs of the class. For example, if the class is really enjoying a particular activity, the teacher will probably want to extend the time allocated to that task and maybe postpone other tasks until a later lesson.
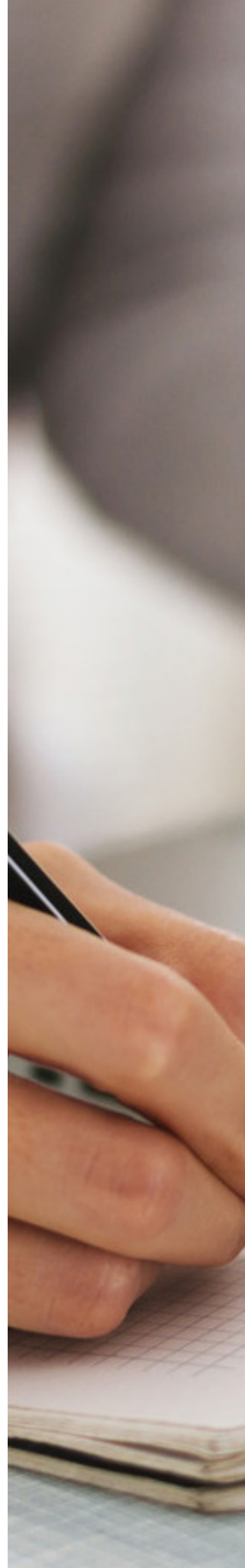
3. A record

A lesson plan acts as a record of what a class has done and which materials have been used. Are you likely to remember what each class did six months ago if you haven't made a record of it? Recording class content will also help if you are ill and another teacher has to cover your classes.

How should a lesson plan be written down?

There is no special way in which a plan must be written. Some teachers write formal plans--some jot notes, some log details into class notebooks. Each teacher has to find their own way. If you have to change your plan during the lesson for whatever reasons, you should also make a note of those changes so that you will have an accurate record.

Basic principles of lesson planning are as follows:

• Keep it simple. You may need to refer to it during a lesson.

• Do not try to script the lesson.

• Structure it and maintain the same structure.

• Write the anticipated time for each activity in the margin.

• Check for balance of skills. Try to make sure activities fit together to give the lesson a smooth flow.

• Keep it flexible and open to adaptation.

Being organized

Before you start the lesson, there are a number of practical things you can do to make sure your lesson goes smoothly.

> • Check that you have your lesson plan.
>
> • Run through your lesson plan and make sure you have all the necessary aids and materials needed.
>
> • Check that the equipment works!
>
> • Lay out materials and aids so that you can easily find them.
>
> • Arrange the seating as desired.
>
> • Make sure that the board is clean.
>
> • Be ready to chat to the students as they come into class. This will help break the ice with the students and get them in the mood to learn.

What should be included in a lesson plan?

What you include in a lesson plan is very much up to the individual. You will see a sample lesson plan form later. This doesn't mean that you have to use that exact same form, though you are welcome to copy and use it if you wish.   Many experienced teachers just write a few brief notes on a piece of paper.

At the start of your teaching careers, you are probably going to want to structure your plans more, so that you have a clear guide as to what you want to achieve and how you are going to do it.   We recommend including all of the following in your plan:

Learner objectives – This is what you want the students to be able to do by the end of the lesson.

Procedure –   The method by which you will achieve these aims.

Activities and approaches – These will normally be included in your procedure.

Teaching aids – Materials and other aids (cassette player, etc.) that you will need in the lesson.   This will help you quickly check if you have everything at the start of a lesson.

Anticipated problems (for the students and the teacher) – It is very important to try and anticipate any particular problems that the

Lesson Planning

students (or the teacher) may have with the lesson. Anticipated problems are of no use though unless you have thought of a solution for these problems if they arise!

Personal aims – What you as a teacher wish to achieve. This is usually an area of your teaching that you would like to improve.

Class level – The level of ability that the class has with the English language.

Number of students – You may wish to anticipate how many students will attend to make sure that your activities are suitable for the class size.

Date/time – This will allow you to keep a historical record of what you have done with a class and when.

Context – This shows the theme around which your lesson is based and also how it fits in with past and planned future lessons.

Timing – It is vital to plan how long each activity is expected to take. You should then be able to see if you have too much content or not enough. Be realistic and flexible with your timing. If not, you will have to either make up for lost time or fill in extra time. This is one of the most difficult areas for inexperienced teachers. How long will it take your students to read a text? Only experience and a sound knowledge of your students will tell you this.

Interaction – Who will be interacting at each stage of the lesson. Will it be teacher – student (T-S), student – student (S-S) or students (S) working alone?

Teacher's and observer's names – May be useful if the class is being monitored. An example of a standard lesson plan format is shown on the following page. One is completed and the other is blank for you to print and use should you wish.

Lesson Plan

Teacher: Peter Smith	Observer: n/a	Date and Time: 15/02/02
Class Level: Beginner	Room: 8	Expected Number of Students: 12

Context: revision of animal vocab from previous lesson to bring out new grammar

Teaching aids: pictures of animals, drawing paper, board and pens, exercise sheets

Learner Objectives: For the students to be able to accurately produce can and can't when talking about animals, and to use animal vocabulary appropriately.	Personal Aims: To improve my instructions by demonstrating rather than using verbal instructions
Anticipated Problems for Students: Pronunciation of can't. **Solutions:** Drilling and mouth diagrams	**Anticipated Problems for Teacher:** Getting students to participate actively. **Solutions:** Fun activate phase activity

Procedure	Phase	Timing	Interaction
Quick review of animal vocab – using pictures and drawings	Engage	5 mins	T-S
Ask students questions eg where can you see these animals? Do you have these animals in your country? What are your favorite animals? Why? Etc.		10 mins	T-S
What can your favorite animal do? What can't it do? Use the answers on the board to show difference in meaning and spelling. Highlight contracted form of can not = can't.	Study	7 mins	T-S
Drill pronunciation.		3 mins	T-S
Fill in the blank activity (in pairs)		5 mins	S-S
Feedback from above activity.		3 mins	T-S
Look at typical verbs of movement for animals (e.g. fly/swim/jump, etc) that weren't known. Use mime and drill for pronunciation. Check comprehension by asking students to mime.		5 mins	T-S
Put students into groups of three. Hand out blank sheets.	Activate 1	2 mins	T-S
Ask students to create a fantasy animal (demonstrate with one I prepared earlier by asking students what it can and can't do). In groups students think of, draw and name fantasy animal.		15 mins	S-S
Students show the animal to the class and describe what it can/can't do.		5 mins	S-S
Back up activity if time allows:			
Students draw animal word from a container, they describe abilities of the animal to the class. The student who guesses it first gets a point (can be done in teams if time allows).	Activate 2	(backup)	S-S

Lesson Planning

Enabling Objectives:

Lesson Plan

Teacher:	Observer:	Date and Time:
Class Level:	Room:	Expected Number of Students:

Context:

Teaching aids:

Terminal Objectives:	Personal Aims:

Anticipated Problems for Students: Solutions:	Anticipated Problems for Teacher: Solutions:

Procedure	Phase	Timing	Interaction

Procedure (continued)	Phase	Timing	Interaction
14			

Monitoring your lessons

A good teacher will want to monitor the quality of his/her own lessons. As teachers, we are continually striving to improve our skills and make our classes as enjoyable as possible. An effective way of doing this is for the teacher to evaluate his/her own lessons and make notes of what went well and where the lesson could have been improved. By focusing on each lesson's strengths and weaknesses, teachers will be helping themselves to develop.

Sample Self-Evaluation Form:

Self-Evaluation Form	
Name:	Class Level
Date:	Number of Students:
Extent to which the learner objectives and personal aims were met	
Accuracy of anticipated problems and solutions	
Modifications made to the lesson procedure, reasons for them and how effective they were?	

Effectiveness of Engage phases

Effectiveness of Study phases

Effectiveness of Activate phases

Strengths and Weaknesses of Lesson

In Retrospect / Areas for Improvement

Lesson Planning

Planning a sequence of lessons

Planning a sequence of lessons is more or less the same as planning for a single lesson, but there are a number of special issues which we must consider:

• Flexibility – We will often need to make changes to plans during lessons. This can throw out our sequence of lessons, so we will continually need to update our plans and modify our aims. Therefore we have to be flexible in our approach, and not just stick blindly to our planning.

• Goals – An experienced teacher will build goals for the students into a sequence of lessons. This will give both the teacher and the students something to aim at, whether they are end-of-week tests or major revision lessons.

• Revision – Lesson content needs to be continually reviewed over a sequence of lessons to ensure students retain this information

• Variety and balance – When planning a sequence of lessons, we want to make sure all skills are included and given equal treatment. We will also want to incorporate a good variety and mix of activities.

Classroom Management

Contrary to popular belief, it is not true that you have to be an extrovert to be a good teacher in the classroom. Some good teachers are very low key, while other teachers, both lively and amusing, are regarded as nothing more than entertainers. You will find your own style of teaching through practice in the classroom.

However, for a class to be able to learn effectively, the teacher

must be able to inspire confidence in the students.

As teachers, we must know when to be firm and when to leave the students alone. In other words, the teacher must be flexible and change his/her role according to the activity and situation without being dominant or leaving the students uncertain.

Classroom Management is the skill of organizing and managing the class, having a friendly, relaxed manner and maintaining discipline.

Eye contact, gesture and the voice

As we all know, it is very difficult to speak to someone who is always looking elsewhere or to someone who looks us in the eye all the time. Also, we are aware that eye contact can convey messages.

Good eye contact in the classroom is essential to establishing good rapport with the students. A teacher who never looks students in the eye will appear to lack confidence and could then have problems with discipline – on the other hand, staring at the students is not very productive either.

How can eye contact be used in the classroom?

- To show students that they are all involved in the lesson.
- To ensure that students understand what they are supposed to do and what is going on.
- To indicate who is to speak (often with a nod of the head).
- To encourage contributions.
- To hold the attention of students who are not being addressed.
- To maintain discipline.
- To signal students to start, stop or move on.
- To indicate that something is correct or incorrect.
- To check that everybody is participating

Bear in mind that eye contact should be avoided during any activity which is not teacher centred (an activity where the focus is on fluency, or the students are working together in pairs/groups).

Gesture

Good use of gestures (at least commonly understood international gestures) can be effective and useful in the following ways:

- to convey the meaning of language.
- to manage the class – e.g., to reinforce instructions.
- to add visual interest.
- to increase the pace of the lesson.
- to reduce the need for verbal explanation.

Think about which gestures you could use for the following situations:

- listen: *Put your hand behind your ear.*
- repeat in chorus:
- get into pairs:
- stop:
- good:
- not right:
- nearly right:
- unusual idea:
- identifying a student:

Gestures should only be used if they are obvious in meaning, or the meaning has already been established with the students.

The voice

If your voice does not have the correct clarity, range, variety or projection, you will have a difficult time in making your instruction/explanations understood to all members of the class.

Your voice should change naturally according to the circumstances, e.g., individual tutoring lesson or 16 young children. Obviously, greater projection will be necessary in a large, noisy classroom than a small, quiet room. An effective teacher will also adapt the complexity of his/her language to suit the level and ability of the students.

As a class often follows the lead of the teacher, the lesson can be livened up or quietened down by an alteration in the teacher's volume.

The greater the variation of the voice, the greater is the effectiveness. A dull, monotone voice will only create boredom and lead to students not paying attention and misbehaving.

Using students' names

Student's names can be used when you want to
- organize an activity,
- acknowledge the students,
- indicate who is to answer or respond,
- get the attention of a student.

The name of a student should be used at the end of the question, not at the start. This keeps the whole class alert, as they do not know who will have to answer.

Grouping students

There is no real limit to the way a teacher can group students, though factors such as class size and classroom furniture can be problematic. Activities geared to the whole class, students working alone, pairs and larger groups are all appropriate, and each has its own place in the classroom.

Whole-class grouping – pros and cons

- Creates a sense of belonging among the group.
- Allows students to interact with any other class members.
- Suitable for activities where the teacher needs to be in control/have the attention of the class as a whole.
- Quicker and easier organization.
- Reduces opportunities for students to speak.
- Can be off-putting to shy students who may not wish to participate in front of the whole class.

Students working on their own – pros and cons

- Allows teachers to respond to individual differences in pace of learning, ability etc.
- Less stressful for students than contributing in front of the whole class.
- Helps the student become more self-reliant.
- Restricts possibilities for student-to-student interaction and group belonging.

Pair work – pros and cons

- Dramatically increases opportunity for student talking time and student-to- student interaction.
- Allows teacher to work with certain pairs while others continue working.
- Gives students a safe environment to try out ideas before sharing with the group.
- Allows students to share ideas and thoughts.
- Allows stronger students to help and support weaker ones.
- Allows students to share responsibility for work and removes the burden from the individual.
- Quick and easy to organize.

- Can be rather noisy. Students may try to revert back to their native language and avoid using English.
- Some students prefer to communicate only with the teacher and don't like interacting with another student.
- Students may find themselves working with a partner they don't particularly like.

Groupwork – pros and cons

- Like pair-work, it can visibly increase student talking time and student-to-student interaction.
- Personal problems are less problematic than in pairs.
- Encourages students to cooperate and negotiate in English.
- Students are able to choose their level of participation.
- Sometimes is very noisy.
- Can take longer to organize and get started.
- The exchange of ideas among group members can slow activities down too much.
- Some group members may dominate and passive students don't get adequate opportunity to participate.

The grouping you choose is likely to be very much dictated by the class size and type of activity. It is a good idea, where possible, to mix things up to create as much variety as possible. In order to allow sufficient opportunity for student talking time and active participation, a fair amount of pair and group work should be used, particularly in study and activate stages.

Classroom arrangement

The way in which you organize the position of the students and yourself is of great importance and largely depends on the following:

- space available
- type of chairs / tables
- age of the students
- nationality
- student personality

You may feel that it is better to put a weak student together with a stronger one for pair-work activities. In any group you will, at least occasionally, want to mix pairs as it adds variety if the students get to work with different people and personalities. The mixing of pairs is also an effective way of

dealing with pairs who do not work well together or become problematic when working with each other.

As a teacher, you have the authority to move the students for the benefit of an activity, cohesion or discipline. This should be done firmly but politely, and from the start of the course, so that the students do not get too used to sitting in one place. However, students should not be moved without reason. There must be some purpose to it that the students can see.

Where the teacher has the space and conditions to be able to vary the seating arrangements, he/she will need to consider a number of issues. The type of activity and the answer to the following questions should help the teacher decide which is the most suitable for each lesson or stage of the lesson.

- How are the teacher/student relationships likely to vary in each case?
- How will it affect the classroom atmosphere?
- Which arrangements are the most conducive to the teacher maintaining effective control over the class?
- In which situation will the teacher dominate most? What will the teacher's role be in each case?
- Which arrangement is the most suitable for the students to be able to talk to each other?
- Which arrangements allow the students to communicate without interference from the teacher?
- How will the size of the group affect the arrangement?
- What activities might be suitable for each possible arrangement?

Orderly rows

This has been the traditional form of seating for many years in most schools. The teacher has a clear view of all the students and all the students can see the teacher. It makes lecturing easy, enables the teacher to maintain eye contact and helps reduce discipline problems. If the rows are well organized, the teacher should be able to move freely around the classroom. Such seating is particularly effective for whole class activities. In larger classes of twenty-five or more students, it is often the best and only solution.

Circles and horseshoes

Often used in smaller classes where the teacher and board are situated at the open end of the arrangement. The teacher's position is less dominating, and there is less of a feeling that a student is at the front or back of the

classroom. This often allows students to be more focused on the lesson. These arrangements often make pairwork easier and allow students to have eye contact with all other class members. The classroom, in effect, becomes far more intimate.

Separate tables

When students are seated in small groups at individual tables, the classroom becomes even more informal. It is easy for the teacher to work at one table, while the other groups continue their work. This is particularly useful for group work but can create discipline problems when students feel that they are part of a small group rather than the class as a whole. The teacher will probably be unable to maintain eye contact with all students.

The teacher's position

Students are often sensitive to your position in the classroom and whether you are sitting or standing. It can tell them

- what kind of activity it is.
- what the teacher's role will be.
- what the students are expected to do.

If you stand, then you will be able to be seen by all students, move around the classroom and control the class. However, it can be tiring and make the students feel dominated. If you sit, you are slightly relaxing control of the class, you can have your materials at hand and make the classroom atmosphere feel more intimate. When monitoring the students' work, try to do so without intruding and stopping the flow. At the start of the activity, check on the students to make sure that they have understood. About halfway through, check on progress and pace again.

What should the teacher's position and movement be during the following lesson stages?

Language presentation – The teacher will probably want the attention of the whole class, so standing is the best option.

Giving instructions – As above, the teacher needs the attention of all students.

Reading activities – When students are reading, there is no real need for the teacher to dominate so much. Sitting and occasional monitoring of progress would be appropriate here.

Activation stage – The teacher should relax control completely and be available if needed. The teacher should remain at a distance from the activity, preferably seated.

Controlled practice – Occasional monitoring, but otherwise the teacher should allow the students to focus on the activity.

Checking work in progress – The teacher will want to move from group to group but without intruding and stopping the flow of the work.

Writing on the board

Unfortunately, there is no way you can avoid turning your back to the students during board-work. There are, however, a number of ways in which you can reduce the amount of time you spend with your back to the class.

- Use an overhead projector (OHP) or a projector if possible.
- Prepare cards with vocabulary.
- Invite the students to write on the board for you.
- Write on the board whilst students are engaged on a different task.
- Write in small sections and turn around to face the class every now and again.
- Make sure that you always have chalk, board pens or OHT markers and erasers at hand – they often get mislaid, "borrowed" or worn out!
- Have board work already up before the class starts. If you don't want the students to see this immediately, you could always cover it with a sheet of paper until it's needed.

Giving individual attention

- Make sure you know all the students' names. Don't just pick on the students whose names you know.

- If necessary, spend longer with students who do not understand or who cannot do the task, but try to keep the other students occupied by giving them a task to get on with.

- Don't teach exclusively to only the strong or weak students.

- Don't go around the room asking students in order. It is very predictable and students will not pay attention until they have to. If you don't use any regular order, then the class will be kept on its toes.

- Don't allow individual students to "hog" your attention or the limelight.

- Remember to include all students equally in any activity.

- If students do not want to, or cannot contribute, it may be better to let them remain silent. They should never feel that they are being picked on. To help build such a student's confidence, ask him/her simple questions that you know he/she is likely to be able to answer correctly, giving praise when he/she responds.

Teacher talking time and student talking time

The balance between TTT and STT largely depends on the type of lesson / activity, and on the level of the students. In the classroom, the teacher will speak more when

- presenting, checking, modelling or clarifying.
- providing language input.
- giving instructions, setting up activities.
- establishing rapport.

Advantages of TTT

A vital component of learning a language is exposure to it. The teacher should be able to provide the students with a source of natural, correct English that is specifically geared to the students' ability. Very few other resources can provide such comprehensible language input.

Disadvantages of TTT

Whenever the teacher is talking, the students should be listening and therefore not talking themselves. This reduces the amount of time available for students to speak and actively participate in the class. We should therefore try to keep TTT to minimal levels while still realizing that it plays a useful role.

How to avoid unnecessary TTT

- Choose carefully the language for explanations and instructions.
- Avoid TEFL jargon.
- Use gestures, mime or pictures.
- Don't over-elaborate.
- Use language that is below the level being taught.
- Basically, keep it simple!

Giving Instructions

How can you make your instructions effective?

- By attracting the student's attention.
- By making sure everyone is listening and not working. Don't give out handouts that may distract attention.

Use simple language.

- Use language at a lower level than that being taught.
- Longer more complex language wastes time, slows the students down and is prone to misunderstanding.

Be consistent.

- Use the same set of words for the same instruction (everybody, again, look, listen, repeat, say, turn to page …)
- With beginners, teach them the necessary language for following instructions.

Use visual clues.

- Reinforce instructions with visual clues; realia (real objects brought into the classroom), mime, gesture and pictures.
- Write the instructions on the board (or use cue cards) if you want the students to do different things. Give one instruction at a time. Don't weigh the students down with numerous, lengthy instructions that will not be understood or will be forgotten by the time they come round to doing the task.
- Give a demonstration as an example. Showing is usually more effective than telling.

Check the instructions.

- Ask questions to check they understand the instructions. "Do you understand?" is not an acceptable question, as it does not check. Asking students to explain back to you is far more effective and does check if they have understood.
- Monitor to see if they are following instructions correctly.

Establishing rapport

Rapport between the teacher and students (and between the students themselves) plays an important part in determining if a class is successful and enjoyable. Students are more likely to contribute and take part in the lessons when the atmosphere is relaxed, and they get on well with the teacher. While the students play a large part in setting the atmosphere in the classroom, it can be encouraged and stimulated by the general attitude and approach of the teacher.

Here are some practical ways to help establish rapport and class spirit:

- When making seating arrangements, be aware of which students get on well together and which do not.
- Make sure the students know each other's names and a little basic information about each other.
- At the beginning of a course have an ice-breaking activity.
- Choose materials and activities that involve the students talking to each other and sharing personal opinions / ideas.
- Use plenty of pair-work and group-work activities.
- Change pairs frequently so that students have a chance to work with a variety of people.
- Get the students to help each other.
- Let students correct each other.
- Do not let individual students dominate the group (or yourself).
- Do not supply everything yourself. Elicit from the students and get them involved.
- Give clear instructions.
- Look as if you enjoy the job.
- Have the right manner.
- Be positive in everything you do.
- Show personal interest in the students.
- Personalize activities to students' surroundings and interests.
- Ask for comments and opinions from the students.
- Don't forget to smile!

Maintaining Discipline

The degree to which you will have to maintain discipline will largely depend upon a number of factors:

- age of the students

- reasons for learning (motivation)

- whether the students want to be there

- class size

- principles and atmosphere of the school. Some institutes have a much stricter attitude towards student behaviour than others do.

- respect between students and teacher

Some of these factors can be influenced by the teacher while others cannot. It is important that the teacher strikes the correct balance between exercising control and encouraging a relaxed, friendly atmosphere conducive to learning. When in doubt, err on the side of control initially, especially with children and teenagers. It is much easier to relax control at a later stage than to exert it.

Reasons for problem behaviour

There are many reasons why disciplinary problems can occur in the classroom. These can often include:

- family problems
- low self-esteem
- boredom
- peer pressure
- lack of respect for the teacher/other students
- class size

Some of these problems are out of your hands, but many disciplinary issues can be prevented by the teacher.

Preventing problem behavior

You can help stop problems arising in the first place if

- you are punctual.
- you are well prepared.
- you are consistent and fair.
- you do not let personal feelings influence your treatment of students.
- you never make threats that you cannot or are not prepared
  to carry out.
- you return homework promptly.
- you never lose your temper.
- you show the same respect for your students as you expect
  from them.
- you make your lessons interesting and varied.
- you are enthusiastic about your teaching.
- you establish rapport with the students.

Responding to problem behaviour

If you have done everything possible to prevent problem behaviour, what can you do if it still arises?

- Act immediately! Don't wait for the problem to worsen. This could simply involve stopping and looking at the student. However, sometimes stronger action may be necessary.
- Focus on the behaviour and not the student.
- Change the classroom dynamic. Reseat the students if necessary/ appropriate.
- Keep calm.   Shouting almost never helps.
- Keep the problem student behind after class and reprimand in private.
- Keep to the school's disciplinary code and don't make threats that you cannot enforce.
- Use the knowledge of your colleagues. They have probably been in the same situation before and should be able to offer suggestions. Don't be too proud to ask for advice.
- Bear in mind that it's possible to go "over the top" with rules.

EFL Methodology

Learners of English who have the opportunity to live in an English-speaking environment while studying have a huge advantage. They are surrounded by the language continuously and are able to put acquired language into practice in everyday, realistic situations. However, the majority of English learners live in their native countries, where English is not the first language and, as a result, do not have these benefits. Many of these students may have the opportunity to use English at work, with their friends or in some other practical way where they are able to use their English on a fairly regular basis. Many other learners of English are not so fortunate, and their only contact with the language may be daily, twice weekly or weekly English classes at school or at a private language institute. As a result, these students do not get the same exposure to the language and opportunity to put it into practice.

As children, we all learnt our native language (commonly referred to as L1 in the field of TEFL) without the aid of language teachers and course books. We simply absorbed the language around us, processed it and through trial and error formulated internal ideas and rules to allow us to be able to use the language fluently and accurately. This natural language acquisition is impossible to replicate in the classroom (when learning a second or foreign language, often referred to as L2), but many of the most popular methodologies in EFL teaching today do try to imitate it as far as is practical.

For as long as people have been learning and teaching language, there has been continued, and often heated, debate as to which methods and techniques produce the best results. The most common of these, along with a brief description, are listed on the following page.

Grammar –Translation

This was probably the mainstay of language teaching and learning for hundreds of years, and indeed is still practised in many situations. Many of us will have been exposed to this system of learning in the state school sector. The basic principle of this system is, as its name suggests, learning

about a language through finding equivalents in the students' own language and the foreign language being learned. It is, in effect, a system of translation.

The major drawback with grammar-translation is that it seems to prevent the students from getting the kind of natural language input that will really help them acquire the language. The danger, therefore, is that students will learn about the language rather than learning the language itself. This methodology also requires the teacher to be proficient in the students' native language.

Audiolingualism

This is the name given to a language teaching/learning methodology based upon behaviourist theories of learning. This theory basically suggests that much learning is as a result of habit formation through conditioning. Audiolingualism concentrates, therefore, to a large degree on long repetition-drills, in which the students would be conditioned into using the language correctly.

Audiolingualism largely went out of fashion because most linguists believed that language learning consisted of more than merely forming habits and that speakers of a language are able to process language more effectively from the knowledge they have acquired. However, it is useful to note that language drills are still popular (though in a much more limited way) especially for low-level students.

Presentation, Practice and Production

In this method, teachers first present the context and situation for the language, as well as explain and demonstrate the meaning and form of the new language. The students then practice making sentences with the language in a controlled way (including drilling) before going on to the production stage where they are able to be more creative with the language.

PPP has proved to be extremely effective in teaching simple language at lower levels. It is less effective with higher-level students who already know a lot of language, and therefore do not need such a marked production stage. Many teacher training centres (and teachers) still use PPP today. The system does, however, lack a good deal in flexibility, and it is easy for the lessons to become too "teacher centred."

Task-Based Learning

In this method, the focus is more on a task than the language. Students are given a task to complete (while using the English language). When they have completed the task, the teacher can, if necessary – and only if necessary – provide some language study to help clear up some of the problems they had while doing the task.

Communicative Language Teaching

The communicative approach stresses the importance of language functions (such as agreeing, inviting, suggesting, etc.) as opposed to reliance only on grammar and vocabulary. This approach also suggests that if students have enough exposure to the language and opportunity to use it then language learning would, in effect, take care of itself. Activities in CLT typically require students to use the language in real life situations, so role-play and simulation have become popular with this method. CLT places far more emphasis on completion of the task than the accuracy of the language.

Community Language Learning

In CLL students will typically sit in a circle, and it is up to them to decide what they want to talk about. The teacher (standing outside the circle) will help, as and when necessary, with language problems that arise during the course of the discussion. This methodology has helped teachers focus on the need to make the lessons as "student centred" as possible by allowing the students to choose the topic and language.

The Silent Way

The most notable feature of the silent way is the behaviour of the teacher who says as little as possible. This is because it was believed that if the students had to "discover" the language for themselves, learning will be better facilitated than just remembering and repeating what had been taught. Many teachers have found this method to be a little unnatural in application.

Suggestopedia

This method largely focuses on the need for the students to be comfortable, confident and relaxed in order for learning to be more effective. Another feature is that the teacher and students exist in a parent-children relationship; students are given new names and traumatic themes are avoided. A suggestopaedia lesson has three main parts. Firstly, there is an oral review of the previous lesson. This is followed by the presentation and discussion of the new language. Finally, students listen to relaxing music while the teacher reads the new dialogue.

The Lexical Approach

This approach argues that words and phrases are far better building blocks for language acquisition than grammatical structure.

Which methodology is best?

With so many different approaches and methods it can be rather difficult to decide which is the best to use. Unfortunately, there is no clear answer as much will depend upon your individual circumstances. Your personality, the culture of the students, and their needs will all play a part in your decision. In reality, each method has its pluses and minuses, but certain conclusions can be drawn:

- Students need as much exposure to language as possible.

- Students need a certain amount of input from the teacher.

- Communicative tasks offer real learning possibilities but are not enough on their own.

- Anxiety and stress need to be low for effective language learning.

- Where possible, students should be encouraged to discover language for themselves.

- Vocabulary is as important as grammar. Both need each other.

- The methodology that the teacher prefers may not be the preferred or correct option for students from different cultures. Compromise may be necessary.

Engage, Study and Activate

If, as discussed earlier, students need to be motivated, be exposed to the language and have the opportunity to use it, then we need to make sure that all these factors come into play in the classroom. The most effective method for this was put forward by Jeremy Harmer, where he called these elements "ESA" – Engage, Study and Activate.

This approach allows all of the previously mentioned conditions to be applied and gives the teacher a great deal of flexibility in the classroom. Overall, this is probably the most effective of all the methodologies and is particularly appropriate for trainees and new teachers. As such, this is the method that this course is based around.

Engage

This is the sequence in the lesson where the teacher will try to arouse the students' interest and get them involved in the lesson. If students are involved and interested, they will find the lesson more stimulating and fun, thus reducing inhibitions and leading to a more conducive language-learning environment.

Activities and materials which tend to engage students include games, discussions, music, interesting pictures, stories, etc. Even if such activities are not used, it is vital that students engage with the topic and language that they are going to be dealing with.

For example, the teacher will show the students a picture of someone and lead that into a discussion before reading about that person. Or, if the language topic is for example can/can't, the teacher might start with pictures and a discussion about favourite animals before discussing what they can and can't do, etc.

Remember, if students are engaged, they will learn far more effectively than when they are disengaged.

Study

These activities are those where the students will focus on the language (or information) and how it is constructed. These activities could range from the practice and study of a single sound to an examination and practice of a verb tense!

Sometimes, the teacher will explain the language; at other times, the teacher will want the students to discover it for themselves. They may work in groups studying a text for vocabulary or study a transcript to discover style of speech. Whatever the method, Study means any stage where the students will be focused on the construction of the language.

Activate

This is the stage where the students are encouraged to use any/all of the language they know. Here students should be using the language as "freely" and communicatively as possible. The focus is very much more on fluency than accuracy with no restrictions on language usage.

Typical Activate activities include role-plays (where students act out as realistically as possible a dialogue between two or more people, e.g., doctor and patient), communication games, debates, discussions, and story writing, etc.

These ESA elements need to be present in most lessons to provide a balanced range of activities for the students. Some lessons may be more heavily focused on one stage or another, but all stages should be included wherever possible.

To say that all three elements need to be included does not mean that they always have to happen in the same order. Instead, we can vary the order to give us greater flexibility in the content of our lessons. We can even have multiple stages per lesson which might look more like EASASA.

Example of a "Straight Arrow" ESA lesson

A "Straight Arrow" lesson is where the teacher takes the lesson in the ESA order. First, the teacher engages the students, then they study the language, finally they try to activate the language by putting it into production. Following is an example structure of a "Straight Arrow" lesson sequence for lower level students with the learning objective "At the end of the lesson, students will be able to talk/write about what people and animals can and cannot do (using the auxiliary can't)."

- **Engage** – Teacher shows students a picture or video or mimes various animals. The students say which animals they see and whether or not they like these animals and why. The teacher can then expand by asking which of these animals they have ever seen and where, or if, these animals exist in the students' country, etc.

- **Study** – Teacher shows students a particular example and elicits sentences from the students by asking "What can it do?". Students respond with example sentences such as "It can/can't fly/swim/run very quickly." The teacher makes sure the sentences are using the correct grammar and helps correct any mistakes. A brief explanation of the structure of can/can't sentences may follow as well as a bit of work on the pronunciation of can't.

- **Activate** – Students work in groups and design their own "super animal." They then make a presentation to the class about the animal they have created and about what it can/can't do.

We can show this kind of lesson in the following way:

Engage

Study

Activate

"Straight Arrow" lessons can work very well with certain structures. The above example shows students the meaning of can/can't and how they are constructed, allows them to use the language in a controlled way (in the study sequence) and then gives them a chance to activate the language in a fun way.

However, such lessons may not be the best way to deal with more complex language. The lessons will also become very predictable and potentially boring if this is the only way we teach; therefore, we will sometimes use this method and sometimes we will choose a different sequence for our lessons.

Example of a "Boomerang" ESA lesson

A "Boomerang" sequencing of the lesson gives us more possibilities, while still incorporating ESA. See the example below with the learning

objective – "At the end of the lesson students will be able to use language involved in job interviews."

- **Engage –** Students and teacher discuss issues about jobs and interviews and state their idea of the perfect job, etc.

- **Activate 1 –** Students role-play (act out) a job interview. One of the students in each pair takes the role as interviewer, the other as interviewee. Before starting such a task, the students will need time to plan what they are going to say. While they are doing this activity, the teacher makes a note of the mistakes they make and the difficulties that they have.

- **Study –** When the role play is over, the teacher works with the students on the language that caused the students difficulty during the role-play. They would then do some controlled practice of the language.

- **Activate 2** – Students role-play another job interview, incorporating some of the new language from the study section.

This variance on the "Straight Arrow" technique ensures that the teacher is only supplying the students with language when they have already demonstrated that they do not know it and have need of it. Such a lesson would follow the pattern below:

Engage

Activate 1

Study

Activate 2

The difficulty with this sequence is that the teacher has to try and predict what problems the students are likely to have in the first activate stage in order to have materials/ideas for helping students in the study phase. Such a lesson might be more useful for higher level students as they will need quite a lot of language for the activate stages.

Example of a "Patchwork" ESA lesson

The "Straight Arrow" sequence is useful, as the teacher knows what the students need and will take them logically to the point where they can use that language. The "Boomerang" sequence is also useful, as it allows the teacher to see what the students need before teaching the language. However, many lessons aren't as straightforward as this and will require

a lot of mini-sequences building to a whole. This is a "Patchwork" ESA lesson. A typical example can be seen below, with the learning objective – "At the end of the lesson students will be able to use language involved with travelling and holidays."

- **Engage –** Students look at various holiday photos and talk about which the students prefer and why.
- **Activate** – Students look through extracts from a travel brochure commenting how they feel about each holiday and which they would choose.
- **Activate** – Students act out a role-play between travel agent and customer using the travel brochure.
- **Study** – The teacher goes through useful vocabulary regarding holidays from the brochure and other language that may have cropped up during the role-play.
- **Activate** – Students design their own hotel/tour to add to travel brochure.
- **Engage** – Teacher and students discuss their favourite advertisements on TV/radio.
- **Study** – Students analyze structure of typical language for advertisements.
- **Activate** – Students write a radio commercial for their hotel/tour. They can then record it for playing to the rest of the class.

Such lessons allow for a greater deal of flexibility and provide a nice balance between study and activation.

Ideas for engage phase

Typical engage phases include discussion and prompting based around pictures, drawings, mime, video, short tape extract, short reading text, headline, real objects brought into class, etc. It can also involve a general discussion without prompts (for example, if the students are going to read a text about Bill Gates in the study phase, the teacher may ask "What do you know about Bill Gates?"; "What would you like to know about him?", etc.) The most important element is to plan this stage, so the teacher doesn't run out of ideas/prompts and is able to fully engage the students before moving on to the next phase of the lesson.

Ideas for study phase

Common study activities include:

Explanation/elicitation – Teacher explains or elicits from the students the structure/formation/meaning of new language.

Pronunciation – Language drills (choral and individual repetition), tongue-twisters, mouth diagrams to show how we form particular sounds.

Spelling – Hangman, word searches, crosswords, unscrambling jumbled words.

Meaning – Gap fills (students fill in missing words in sentence), matching exercises such as matching pictures to definitions, matching answers to questions, words to definitions, true or false activities, etc.

Word order – Unscrambling jumbled sentences into the correct sentence order and inserting words into sentences in the correct place.

Analysis – Looking at texts/dialogues and analyzing typical constructions.

Ideas for activate phase

Role-play – Students act out everyday roles in realistic situations. For example, doctor and patient, lost person asking local resident for directions, shop assistant and customer, etc. It is vital when doing role-play to allow the students enough time to plan their roles and develop what they are going to say.

Surveys – Students conduct surveys as to how many/which of the students do a certain thing, etc.

Producing materials – Students, in pairs or groups, put together an advertisement, brochure, news broadcast, etc., relating to the language point.

Communication games – There are many resource books full of games that will practice particular language points. Many of these games have been adapted from games we have all played such as monopoly, clue/cluedo, etc. Most good schools will have copies of these books. The key word here is communication.

Debate/discussion – This can be whole class or group debate on a particular topic.

Story building – Students create stories based on topics, headlines, picture prompts, etc.

The above are just a few examples of ideas for each stage. Using a variety of different activities will help keep students (and teachers!) fresh and stimulated. Remember that the engage stage should engage the students fully, the study stage should provide for controlled practice, to see that the students have understood the language and can construct it in an accurate, controlled way, while the activate stage should give the students a chance to use the language fluently along with the rest of their language knowledge.

Giving Feedback

Having stimulating activities isn't much use to the students unless they are provided with some kind of feedback as to how well they have done, or which answers they have correct and which are wrong.

The aim of giving feedback is to encourage self-awareness and improvement. By providing ongoing feedback, you can help your students to evaluate their success and progress. Feedback can take a number of forms: going through activities checking students' answers, giving praise and encouragement, correcting, setting regular tests, having regular group discussions, individual tutorials, etc.

The type and extent of feedback depends largely on the following factors:

- individual students

- culture and the expected role of the teacher

- the stage of the lesson

- the type of activity

When giving feedback on oral or written work, always be on the lookout for positive points to comment upon even if mistakes have been made. Be positive.

Ways of giving positive feedback can range from an informal "well done," publishing good written work around the classroom, using it as a model, to using a grading system.

Make sure that feedback from an activity is clear and audible, so students have an opportunity to correct their own work.
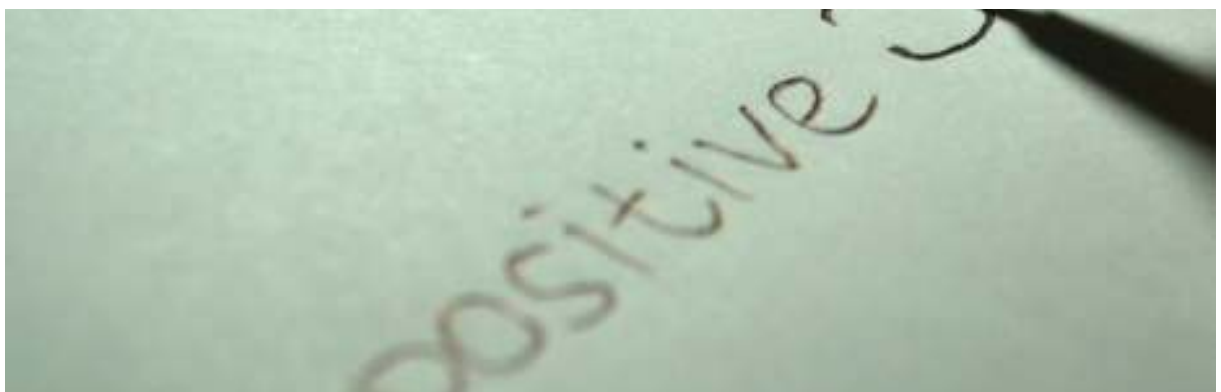
Correction Techniques

The ability to correct is a skill that takes time and experience to perfect. It is an area in which students are often critical of the teacher. Too much correction can be equally as off-putting as too little. It is also important to note that praising the students is equally as important as correcting, if not more so.

In teaching EFL it is usual to distinguish between mistakes and errors. A mistake can be thought of as a slip of the tongue or the pen. The student is able to correct himself or herself, either unprompted or with the help of the teacher or other students. An error is something that is more deeply ingrained and may be made because of the following reasons:

- The student believes what he or she is saying is correct.

- The student does not know the correct form.

- The student knows the correct form but can't get it right.

The positive side of errors

- At least the student is trying.

- By making errors, learners are experimenting with language, which is part of the learning process.

- By noting errors, the teacher can see what needs focusing on in future lessons.

Who corrects?

• **Self - correction**

This should be the first option, as it provides the student with the opportunity to reflect upon what he/she has said and to try again.

Before students can correct themselves, they must be aware of the following:

1. something is not accurate

2. the location of the error

3. the type of error

• **Student – student correction**

If the student is unable to correct his/her own mistake, it is often useful to allow the other students to correct the mistake.   Students   usually like helping each other; however, this method should not be used if the teacher feels that it would make the student who made the mistake feel uncomfortable or confused.

• **Teacher – student correction**

This should be the last resort. The other two methods allow the students to identify the problem and correct it. If the teacher corrects right away, then the students don't have to think about the mistake and work out why it is not correct. Therefore, they are less likely to remember it and are more likely to continue to repeat the mistake in the future.

What should the teacher correct?

It can be difficult for teachers to know exactly what type of mistakes to correct. Generally, we can say that for activities where accuracy is the focus (the study stage), correction is more vital than for activities where fluency is the primary objective. That doesn't mean to say that we will correct every single mistake/error in the study stage and never correct in the activate stage.

There are three occasions when it is relevant to correct:

> 1. The mistake is with the language point we are teaching.
> 2. The mistake is being regularly repeated either by the student or other class members and so risks becoming ingrained.
> 3. The mistake seriously impedes understanding.

When one of the above mistakes/errors is made, the teacher can indicate that something needs correcting by repeating it to the student with a questioning tone, asking if they think it is right, by saying "again?", by having a puzzled expression or by putting it up on the board. Putting it on the board is probably more useful for more complex mistakes, as it allows all students to focus on the mistake and think about it. This technique also allows the teacher to highlight on the board the type of mistake and where it is.

Remember never to jump into a student's speech to correct. Wait until the student has finished speaking or until the end of the activity to avoid interrupting the flow of the activity, whichever is the most appropriate depending upon the type of task (for example, it is better to correct mistakes from role-play at the end of the activity, so as not to break the flow).

Bear in mind that corrections should reflect the stage of the lesson. For example, it would be appropriate for a more correction during a study phase, when the students are learning new concepts. During engage and activate stages however, we would want to encourage as much communication as possible, so correction should be kept to an absolute minimum. Leave the students to get on with it!

Correcting writing

Probably the most effective way of correcting written work is by using codes in the margin or the body of the writing. This makes correction neater, less threatening and gives the students a chance to correct their own work. Frequently used codes refer to issues such as tense, spelling and word order. Typical codes include:

Code	Meaning
s	spelling
wo	word order
t	wrong tense
s/p	wrong usage of singular/plural form
^	something is missing
[ ]	something is not necessary
m	meaning is not clear
na	usage is not appropiate
p	punctuation is wrong

Of course, you can come up with your own codes as long as you explain their meaning to the students. With lower levels, you may like to write the code above the mistake to make it clear exactly where the mistake is. With higher levels, it is a good idea to write it in the margin on the corresponding line and let the students try to work it out for themselves. Only after they have had a chance to correct their own work should the teacher look at it again and deal with any mistakes the students weren't able to correct for themselves.

Teaching Productive Skills

We have previously looked at the importance of integrating skills in the classroom. The receptive skills, listening and reading, will be looked at in the next unit. First we take a look at the productive skills: speaking and writing. While speaking and writing are substantially different in many ways, they both are used for the same purpose – to communicate.

In many ways, writing is the most neglected skill in the TEFL world, as many teachers don't like to see classroom hours being devoted to what is often "quiet time." Writing, therefore, is often relegated to being a homework task, which in turn is frequently not done, and so the skill is never developed.

It is true to say that most students prefer to focus on their speaking skills, but that doesn't mean that writing should be ignored. In many ways, writing is the more difficult skill, requiring a greater degree of accuracy. When speaking, any misunderstandings can be cleared up "on the spot," whereas this is not possible with writing. Speaking, on the other hand, requires a greater degree of fluency, as the speaker will rarely have time to think and plan an answer.

Communication between people is a very complex and ever-changing thing. But there are generalizations that we can make which have particular relevance for the teaching and learning of languages.

When two or more people are communicating with each other, we can be sure that they are doing so for one of the following reasons:

- They have some communicative purpose.
- They want to say something.
- They want to listen to something.
- They are interested in what is being said.

Therefore, if a teacher wishes to introduce a communicative activity to the students, he or she should bring in a number of the above factors. The teacher must create the need and desire in the students to communicate. If these factors are not present, it is far less likely that the activity will be the success that the teacher had envisaged. If the students don't see the point in doing something, they're far less likely to want to participate!

What is the difference between accuracy and fluency activities?

Accuracy activities (usually part of the study phase) are concentrated on producing correct language. Such activities are usually controlled to ensure accurate reproduction of language.

Fluency activities (usually part of the activate phase) are concentrated on allowing the students to experiment and be creative with language. We are less concerned with accuracy and more concerned with the effectiveness and flow of the communication.

Which is more important?

Accuracy and fluency carry equal importance. As mentioned above, both come into different stages of a lesson.
Accuracy activities will check that the students can understand and use the language in a controlled way before being expected to try to use it creatively in a fluency activity.

● *Speaking activities in the classroom*

Controlled activities – accuracy-based activities. Language is controlled by the teacher.

• drilling (choral and individual listening to and repetition of the teacher's model of pronunciation). You should always try to use a "3-by-3" dril where possible, i.e., say the word, ask the whole group to repeat (this gives a safe environment for them to practice pronunciation, and any mistakes made by individuals will not be apparent to each other). Do this three times. Follow this by calling on three individuals by name, in turn.

• prompting (pre-planned question and answer is the most obvious example).

Guided activities – accuracy based but a little more creative and productive. The output is still controlled by the teacher, but the exact language isn't.

• model dialogues

• guided role-play

Creative communication – fluency-based activities. The scenario is usually created by the teacher but the content of the language isn't.

• free role-play

• discussions

• information gap (this is where different students have different pieces of information, and they have to share this information to get the complete picture/solve the task, etc.).

• debates

• simulations

• communication games

Encouraging students to speak

Many students can seem reluctant to speak in the classroom.   This can be for a variety of reasons, including:

• lack of confidence

• fear of making mistakes

• peer intimidation

• lack of interest in the topic

• previous learning experiences

• cultural reasons

The teacher must try to overcome these hurdles and encourage student interaction. The aim should be to create a comfortable atmosphere, where students are not afraid to speak or make mistakes, and enjoy communicating with the teacher and their fellow students.

Techniques to encourage interaction

• pair-work

• group-work

• plenty of controlled and guided practice before fluency activities

• make speaking activities purposeful (create a desire and need to communicate)

• change of the classroom dynamics

• careful planning

• with certain activities you may need to allow students time to think about what they are going to say

A typical free/creative speaking activity lesson

The learner objective would be for the students to be able to use the language involved with weather and weather forecasts.

Engage – Ask students about the weather in their countries and discuss how it changes throughout the year. Discuss weather variations in other countries. Ask them if they know what a weather forecast is and where they can find them.

Study – Elicit weather forecast vocabulary and complete various matching and gap-fill exercises.

Activate – Students write a country (not their own) and a month on a card in pairs, which is collected by the teacher to be redistributed to another pair. They then have to prepare a typical weather forecast for the country on the card that they now have, at that time of the year.

Guidelines for a free / creative speaking activity

Before the lesson

• Decide on your aims: what you want to do and why.

• Try to predict what the students will bring to the activity and any problems
   they might have. Will they have something to speak about? Are they
   capable of doing the activity successfully? Do they have the necessary
   language? Will the students find the activity interesting, useful, fun?

• Work out how long the activity will take and tailor it to the time available.

• Prepare any necessary materials.

• Work out your instructions.

During the activity

• Arouse the students´ interest through visuals, a short lead-in talk, a newspaper headline, etc. Try to relate the topic to the students´ own interests and experience.

• You may want to remind students of any structures or vocabulary that might be useful – perhaps leaving them on the board for reference.

• Set up the activity so that the students know the aims of the activity and what they are to do. This means giving clear instructions and checking that they have been understood.

• Make sure the students have enough time to prepare, perhaps in pairs or groups, before asking them to tackle the main activity. Do not be tempted to cut down on the time needed for this. Do not forget that the students are probably getting useful speaking practice at this stage, too.

• Make the activity even more "process" rather than "product" - based on encouraging rehearsal if appropriate, particularly with role-plays.

• Monitor the activity: do not interrupt except to provide help and encouragement if necessary; try to keep a low profile. Watch the pace – do not let the activity drag on and remember to leave time for feedback.

• Evaluate the activity and the students' performance in order to provide feedback later, but don't jump in with instant corrections. Wait until after the activity has finished before correcting. Don't over-correct. Free-speaking activities are more concerned with fluency than accuracy.

After the activity

Provide feedback:

• Indicate how well the class communicated; comment on how fluent each was, how well they argued as a group, and so on. Focus on what they were able to do rather than on what they couldn't do.

• Sometimes you might want to record the activity on audio or videocassette and play it back for discussion. Focus on possible improvements rather than mistakes – in fact, if it is taped, sometimes they can be asked to do a rough version first, then discuss improvements and then re-record.

• Note down glaring, recurrent errors in grammar, pronunciation and use of vocabulary. Individual mistakes might be discussed (in private) with the student(s) concerned, and you might recommend suitable remedial work to do at home. Mistakes which are common to the class can be mentioned and then practised another day when you have had a chance to prepare a suitable remedial lesson.

Teaching Productive Skills

Writing Skills

Written text has quite a number of differences which separates it from speaking. Not only are there differences in grammar (for example, usage of contracted forms in speaking are often not applied in writing), vocabulary (usually more formal in written English) but also in spelling, handwriting, layout and punctuation.

Despite these differences, many of the same factors as those for a speaking lesson need to be considered and incorporated.

Handwriting

For a great number of students, particularly those whose native language uses a different alphabetical system from the English language, forming English letters will present a major challenge. Such students may well need special training in the formation of individual letters. Handwriting is very much a personal issue, and we don't wish to try to make students all write in exactly the same way. However, poor handwriting may influence the reader in a negative way and so the teacher should always encourage the students to improve it.

Spelling

Incorrect spelling can not only create misunderstandings but can often be perceived, by the reader to reflect a lack of education. Spelling in English is made very difficult by the fact that many words that are pronounced the same are written differently (waist/waste, etc.) and some words are written the same but pronounced differently (read/read).

A single sound in the English language may be written in many different ways. This is because English is not a phonetic language (as we will see in the unit on teaching pronunciation). As teachers, we need to draw the students' attention to the different ways of pronouncing the same letters (or combinations of letters) and have them do exercises to discover spelling rules. Spelling differences between British English and American English don't exactly help either (colour/color)! A new kind of "slang" spelling has also emerged through the internet and e-mail. One of the best ways to help students with spelling is through extensive reading.

Layout and punctuation

Once again, this can present the students with major problems if the rules of their first language are significantly different from those of English. Some languages have completely different punctuation, and some have none at all! Some languages write from right to left, while in some others words aren't even separated by spaces. In reality (despite the many rules), punctuation is frequently a matter of personal style, but totally incorrect usage can lead to rather awkward and difficult looking pieces of writing.

To help students learn the different layouts of writing (for example how business letters differ from e-mails, etc.), they need to be exposed to, and be given the chance to practise with many different styles.

After students have completed a piece of written work, we should get them to check it over for grammar, vocabulary usage as well as punctuation, spelling, layout and style of writing (is it too formal/informal?). As with speaking activities, students will often require planning time for written work.

Creative writing

Many of the same principles need to be applied to writing activities as to speaking activities. If they have no desire or need to write, the result is likely to be somewhat less than spectacular. Creative writing should be encouraged, as it engages the students, and the finished work usually provides them with a sense of pride. Typical creative writing tasks may include poetry, stories and plays.

Although most writing in the "real world" is done individually, there is nothing to stop teachers putting the students into pairs or groups, particularly for creative writing where the input of ideas from different sources may be helpful or necessary.

A typical creative writing activity lesson

The learner objective would be for the students to be able to use appropriate language for completing speech bubbles in cartoons, and produce a story themselves.

Engage – Show students a picture from a newspaper or magazine without any text. Ask the students to come up with some ideas to say what is happening in the picture, along with what happened before and after, etc.

Study – Show students an example of a cartoon strip with speech bubbles for dialogue and rectangular boxes for description/action, etc., and elicit the difference. Give them a cartoon strip, in pairs (real or prepared) with either the speech text or descriptions removed. Discuss ideas from the students for the situation, what the people might be

Activate – Get together enough cartoon strips with a minimum of five boxes to give to each pair of students. Remove both the dialogue and the descriptions Cut and paste the strips into a vertical sequence of five pictures. Draw a dotted line between each set of pictures.

Demonstrate with the students that they will fill in the missing information for Picture *1 only.* They then fold the paper over along the dotted line so that it is not visible.

Pass the paper to the next pair and repeat for Picture 2. Repeat this process until the sheet is complete.

Get each pair to read out their sheets to the rest of the group.

Games in the Classroom

A game is an activity with rules, a goal and an element of fun. Many conventional and unconventional games can be adapted to language teaching.

There are two kinds of games: competitive games in which players or teams race to be the first to reach the goal, and co-operative games, in which players or teams work together towards a common goal. These activities can be further broken down into communicative and linguistic games; the former being activities with a non-linguistic goal or aim.

Games are popular with children, teenagers and adults alike. They should, therefore, be regarded as an integral part of the syllabus and not just an amusing diversion on a Friday afternoon. They can provide useful, controlled practice and free practice material.

There are many books full of creative communication games specifically devised for the English language teacher. Some of the most popular were stated in the introductory unit. A good language school will have a wide variety of such books in its resource centre.

However, we don't have to buy these books in order to incorporate games into our teaching. Many of the games that we played as children or play as adults can be incorporated into our classrooms.

All of the games below have been used for EFL teaching. Where known, the differences between American and British English names have been given.

Have a look at the games and see how many English language uses you can find for each one for teaching English:

- Twenty questions

- Noughts and crosses/tic-tac-toe

- Hangman

- Twister

- Story boards

- Clue/Cluedo

- Snakes/chutes and Ladders

- Connect 4

- Mime/Charades

- Jeopardy

- Crosswords

- Tongue-Twisters

- Pictionary

Teaching Productive Skills

You should have found a number of different applications, ranging from spelling to pronunciation to grammar and vocabulary teaching. If you enjoy such activities, the chances are that your students will as well. se can be used as warmers, or activate stage activities. If you're not familiar with any of the games here, please ask one of the trainers.

Try to think of other games that you enjoy and how they could be used in the classroom. Try to be as creative as possible, and everybody will benefit.

Teaching Receptive Skills

There are four basic skills in any language: receptive skills – reading and listening, and productive skills – speaking and writing. All are equally important and wherever possible, we should try to incorporate all of them into our lessons if we want to have a balanced approach.

Often we will want to focus more on one particular skill but still bring others in to create an "integrated"- skills lesson.

In this unit, we will focus on the receptive skills – reading and listening. This is a shorter unit than most but is still very important.

Reasons for reading and listening

When we read instructions as to how to operate a video recorder, our motives for reading are very different from when we pick up a novel by our favourite author. When we listen to directions from a stranger on how to get to the beach, our motives are different from when we listen to our friends telling us a joke.

We can divide the reasons and motives for reading and listening into two fairly wide- ranging categories:

For a purpose – This type of reading and listening takes place because it will help us achieve some particular aim or goal. In the examples above, reading instructions on your new video recorder and listening to instructions are examples of this type of motivation.

For entertainment – Very often, we listen to or read information because we find it pleasurable or enjoyable in some way, such as reading a novel or listening to a joke from the examples above.

Quite often, our reading and listening may be a mix of the above two motives. We may find reading a tour guide to a particular city to be enjoyable, but it may also achieve some specific purpose if we are on holiday in that city. So there will be times when our reasons for listening and reading will include both motives.

How we read and listen

Most people would say with our eyes and our ears! This may be true, but there is more to it than that. Our minds must not only be able to recognize and understand the words but also be able to grasp their overall meaning from a pre-existing knowledge of the world. For example, if an American was to walk past a newspaper stand and   see the headline "B e a r s destroyed by Cowboys," he/she would automatically be able to recognize that this was likely to be a text about an American football game and has nothing to do with animal cruelty. This would be based upon his/her pre-existent knowledge. A non-American, seeing the same headline and understanding every word might reach an entirely different conclusion.

So we can see that reading and listening are not simply matters for the eyes and ears, but also a matter of using our minds to literally understand words and process them in our "pre-existent knowledge" to gain true understanding.

Readers and listeners employ a number of specialist skills when reading or listening, and their understanding of the context will depend on their expertise in these areas:

Predictive skills. For example, predicting the content of an article or dialogue from a headline or introduction.

Specific information – scanning. We often listen or read for specific information. For example, we look in a newspaper to find a football result (we don't read the whole newspaper before finding it!), we listen to the news, only concentrating when a particular story comes up.

General idea – skimming. This is where we read or listen for the gist of a text/dialogue, we don't focus on every single word but are just trying to get a general understanding of the content.

Detailed information. Sometimes, we read in order to understand everything in detail. For example, when reading or listening to detailed directions on how to get somewhere, we need to read/listen in a concentrated manner to gain full benefit.

Deduction from context. Sometimes, we need to be able to understand or deduce the meaning of individual words or

phrases from the context in which we hear/read them. We often also need to see beyond the literal meaning of words. "You are in a non-smoking zone" isn't intended solely for information but also as an order to not smoke and if you are smoking, to extinguish your cigarette.

Problems with listening and reading

The teaching and learning of receptive skills presents quite a number of potential problems which need to be addressed.   These are mainly in connection with the language contained in the text, the topic and the tasks the students will perform.

Language

Sentence length, word length and a number of unfamiliar words can also present problems to learners of English. Reading presents fewer problems as the text is "captured" on paper, and students may read it countless times. This gives them the opportunity to think about it or deduce the difficult language from context. Listening is another matter. The language isn't "captured," and listeners have no time to really deduce the meaning and think about the language; they hear it only once.

Obviously, the more language we expose the students to the more they will learn. Fortunately, there are many ways of approaching language difficulty.

Pre-teaching vocabulary – One way of helping students is to teach them difficult/unknown language and structures prior to commencing a reading or listening activity. This should at least help to remove some of the obstacles that they are likely to come across. However, if students never get past the stage of having to understand each and every word, they'll never really feel comfortable with receptive skills. Learning   to understand texts without knowing every word is a skill that we should also encourage in our students. So some kind of balance needs to be struck between pre-teaching structures and letting students access unknown language. A sensible solution would be to only pre-teach the words that are essential to understanding and leaving other vocabulary work until later.

Careful selection of texts – If the teacher is careful as to the listening and reading materials presented to the students, he/she can expose the students to a variety of authentic and non-authentic texts. Authentic texts are not designed for language students whereas non-authentic texts are. Non-authentic texts will allow students access to material that contains language more suited to the students' abilities, whereas authentic texts will expose students to texts that should give them confidence in their skills. Authentic materials (and the tasks that go along with them) must be

carefully selected so as to focus on what the students know, rather than how much they don't know.

Topics

The topic of the text or dialogue can also help to motivate the students. If the topic is not interesting, it is less likely that the students will really engage with the material. Therefore, we really need to think about how we choose topics and the tasks that go with them. Knowing our students and what really interests them is vital here. Obviously, individual students have individual interests, and a topic may interest some of the class but not others. A variety of topics over a period of time is needed to ensure that all of our students are equally catered for in the end. Do not assume that because a topic interests you that it will be of equal interest to your students. Get to know them and their interests. It will assist you greatly in selecting suitable material.

Create interest

If the teacher can get the students motivated and engaged in the tasks, there is a much greater possibility that they will read and listen with real enthusiasm– whether or not they were originally interested in the topic. We can get students engaged by discussing the topic, showing pictures, predicting what the text will be about and other "engage" phase activities.

Tasks

An important feature in the teaching of receptive skills concerns comprehension tasks. We need to provide comprehension tasks that promote understanding, as opposed to just checking understanding. A good task shouldn't be too easy or too difficult; in other words a challenge that is realistically achievable. A quite common activity is jigsaw reading, where students are placed in pairs and each reads part of the text. They then share their information to complete other tasks. Another technique that can be used is "jumbled texts." This is where the paragraphs of a text are jumbled up, for the students to re-order. You can even jumble two stories together, for the students to sort out both.

A typical Receptive Skills Lesson (Patchwork)

Example – students are going to read or listen to a text about the life of Elvis Presley. The learner objective would be for the students to learn more about his life and be able to write one or two paragraphs about him.

Engage – Start the class with an extract from a famous Elvis song. Who is it? Do you know any of his other songs? What do you know about him? What would you like to know about him? Use this type of questions to create interest amongst the students. Allow students to quickly read/ listen to the text to see if it answered any of their questions (set time limit to ensure quick reading).

Study – Pre-teach potentially problematic vocabulary. Use a practice exercise or two to check and reinforce understanding and pronunciation.

Engage – Students read/listen to text again for detailed understanding.

Study – Give students comprehension tasks based upon the text: for example, true/false questions. Students compare answers in pairs and feedback.

Activate – Remove texts from the view of the students and ask them to write a brief review of the life of Elvis. Students compare in pairs and give feedback to class.

Study – If necessary, deal with any language problems from the review. Allow students access to the text again and "discover" the meaning of five more unknown words from the text.

Activate –In pairs students write a brief account of a famous person that they both know/are interested in without mentioning his/her name.
Each pair reads out and other class members try to guess which famous person it was.

Again, there are different and equally effective ways of approaching the same lesson. There is no strict right or wrong. The basic keys to successful receptive skill lessons are as follows:

- Choose material that interests/motivates the students.
- Build interest before reading/listening.
- Pre-teach complex vocabulary or structures if necessary, but don't overdo it!
- Vary the type of material.
- Use the material to practice different skills.
- Use realistic comprehension tasks that aid understanding.
- Incorporate activate phases that naturally lead on from the text.

Teaching Receptive Skills

Evaluation and Testing

In this unit, we will look at different ways of evaluating students' levels and progress, as well as some of the common external exams that you may need to prepare your students for.

If you give ongoing feedback, and especially if you make the feedback procedure overt, you are going a long way in providing the students with the information they need to evaluate their own level and progress.

Sometimes, however, it is useful to arrange for more formal means of feedback to take place and it may be compulsory for the institution that you are working in.

Tests

It is often appropriate to give tests at different stages in a course; at the start, your students may be given a placement test to assist the formation of groups of students at the same level, or a diagnostic test which is designed to tell you and the students what they do and don't know at the beginning of a course.

Teachers often give a periodic progress test on the work covered. This can be in the form of a formal written test, or a more informal group activity, even a game – as long as it gives information to both you and the student as to how they are progressing. These tests may be every week, month, term, or after a certain amount of the course book has been covered. Often this decision will be dictated by the school, if not, you will have to decide.

Many teachers prefer to give regular but short tests and then a longer, formal test every term. If the students are following a course leading to an external examination, they are usually eager to do practice tests to get some idea of how close they are to the required standard, and also to get used to the structure of the examination.

Another test that students might take is an achievement test, which is usually an internal test given at the end of a course, e.g., at the end of the school year. Another option is a proficiency test, which is not course related but claims to measure proficiency in English at particular levels.

Tutorials

These can take place with the whole group or with individual students.
It is unlikely that you will have time to conduct individual tutorials every lesson, but it might be useful to spend some time, perhaps the last ten minutes at the end of the week, reviewing the work done, discussing the aims of the lessons, how well the students performed the tasks, and whether there are any problems, etc.

Evaluation by the students

It can be very useful to ask the students to evaluate their course (not the personalities of the teachers) by means of a questionnaire or guided discussion. For example, they can be asked whether they feel that they are getting enough grammar, if the balance of skills work is right, if they think the work is too easy, too difficult or just right. The results of the survey can then be discussed and future lessons considered in the light of students´ comments. This process promotes genuine interaction, develops a much greater awareness among students of what is happening in the classroom and helps you understand better how they react to what you do. If the students´ English is too poor for this kind of discussion, in monolingual classes it is worth doing it in the students´ mother tongue if possible.

Placement tests

These tests are designed to enable teachers to place new students into the correct class according to their language ability. Most schools conduct this type of testing by multiple-choice questions (to check their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary) and a spoken interview to make sure the student is also able to communicate and participate at the required level. These kinds of tests usually start with fairly simple questions and become progressively more difficult. This should allow the teacher to gauge the language level of the student. In the written part of the test, it is useful to also include a few general questions that require more expansive answers, as this will provide more information about the written fluency level.

Typically the spoken component would also start with simple questions such as, "What's your name?", "What colour is my shirt?", etc. If the student seems comfortable with such questions, the teacher would ask more complex questions using a variety of present, past and future tenses, conditionals, etc., until the teacher finds a level where the student is not so capable. This together with the written test can be used to determine the entrance level of the student. Until you are familiar with what knowledge various levels would have, it is a good idea to refer to course books of each level and see what language items students at that level would be expected to know already.

Sample of a written placement test:

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SKILLS PLACEMENT TEST

SECTION 1

Please select the correct answer to the following:

1. People_____that Italians love to talk a lot.
a) tell   b) say   c) speak   d) are telling

2. Samuel Becket_____born in Dublin in 1906.
a) is   b) was   c) has been   d) during

3. The Republic of Ireland has been independent_____over seventy years. a) is   b) since   c) for   d) during

4. Australia_____ its millennium in 1988.
a) celebrated   b) has celebrated   c) had celebrated   d) celebrates

5. Many of our students go to the training centre _____ foot.
a) on   b) to   c)by   d) at

6. If I_____ my life to live over, as the song goes, I would do it all over again.
a) have   b) had   c) would have   d) have had

7. "Ah yes", said the old man. "If I'd had time, I_____ the world."
a) would see   b) saw   c) would have seen   d) have seen

8. People should get full and truthful_____from the media.
a) information   b) informations   c) informs d) informatics

9. "Is there_____there?" said the traveller, knocking on the moonlit door.
a) somebody   b) anybody   c) a body   d) someone

10. We should all work_____ to save our planet from destruction.
a) hard   b) hardly   c) hardest   d) the hardest

SECTION 2

Please complete the following:

11. I haven't spoken_____ ages.

12. I couldn't understand what he was talking_____.

13. Where does she come_____?

14. My friends_____ me it was a good film last night.

15. I always_____the same mistakes when I speak English quickly.

16. He can't do that_____himself. He needs assistance.

17. The next train should arrive_____a few minutes.

18. I met her many years_____.

19. The word for TWO WEEKS is a_____.

20. I'm looking_____to meeting you.

SECTION 3

Have you ever been to an English-speaking country before?
If so, please give brief details. If not write about a travel experience that you have had:

SECTION 4

And finally, please continue the following in not less than fifty words.

"I need to improve my knowledge of English because…"

Evaluation and Testing

Progress tests

Progress tests should be used periodically to gauge what language has been remembered or acquired and what language has been forgotten. These tests are useful to let teachers and students know what language items need more work. Such tests also tend to encourage students to review and revise, which is never a bad thing!

Progress tests should include a balance of all four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) as well as grammar and vocabulary that have been covered. Please note that progress tests should only include language items covered within the prescribed period.

Some schools keep progress tests on file to match topics and language from the course books in use; otherwise, progress tests can often be taken from the relevant teacher's book. If neither of these options is available, the teacher will have to devise his/her own test. Activities for tests can often be unused exercises taken from the work book or other resource books.

Many teachers are not in favor of formal testing, as it is often more of a test of memory than actual knowledge. Such teachers believe that as they see the students on a regular basis, they are able to measure their progress by ongoing observation in the classroom. Even if you agree with this viewpoint, it is a fact that most schools will require you to formally test the students as well.

Diagnostic tests

Diagnostic tests are basically similar in content to placement tests and are sometimes more extensive. They are given at the start of the course to see what the students already know and to help the teacher to prepare lessons and materials that will enable students to work on the areas of difficulty identified by the test.

Practice tests

Practice tests should follow the format and the structure of the external examination that they are being given in preparation for. Some of the most common external exams are given on the following page.

TOEFL – Test of English as a Foreign Language

This is an American English exam that is required by most US universities for admission purposes if the prospective student is a non-native speaker of English. This test is virtually all multiple choice (writing paper excepted) and covers grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing and listening. Only recently, a speaking element has been added.

The TOEFL exam is one test for all levels, either on paper or computer-based. A student doesn't pass or fail, but gets a final score, which should theoretically equate to his/her level. The score that universities require varies, but the score requirements range from 133 to 250 (computer based) or 450 to 600 (test on paper).

Cambridge ESOL examinations (British English)

These exams are the world's leading range of certificates for learners of English. Each year, they are taken by over 1.5 million people, in 135 countries and are widely recognised for work and study purposes.

The exams are linked to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages published by the European Council.

There are a number of different categories of Cambridge exams:

General English

KET (Key English Test)
An elementary level exam, testing the students' ability to deal with basic written and spoken communications.

PET (Preliminary English Test)
An intermediate level exam, testing their ability to cope with everyday written and spoken communications.

FCE (First Certificate in English)
An upper intermediate level exam, designed for students who can deal confidently with a range of written and spoken communications.

CAE (Certificate in Advanced English)
It's an advanced exam for a student who can communicate with confidence in English for work or study purposes - often the minimum entrance level to UK universities for non-native speakers of English.

CPE (Certificate of Proficiency in English)
A very advanced level exam, for students who have achieved a high level of language skills and are able to function effectively in almost any English-speaking context.

Skills-based assessment

CELS (Certificates in English Language Skills)
These certificates provide modular assessment of English language skills and are intended for students who don't need to achieve the same level across all four skills (listening, reading, writing, speaking).

Certificates in ESOL Skills for Life
These certificates provide flexible assessment of ESOL learners in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and are fully based on the Adult ESOL Core Curriculum.

Business English

BEC (Business English Certificates)
A suite of three exams, designed to test English language ability used in the context of business, designed for students who are learning English in preparation for a career in business.

BULATS (Business Language Testing Service)
A multilingual assessment service for companies that require a rapid, accurate means of assessing language skills in English, French, German and Spanish.

Academic English

IELTS (International English Language Testing System)
The ideal test if a student needs to study or work where English is the language of communication. IELTS scores are recognised by universities and colleges, employers, immigration authorities and professional bodies.

There are many other external examinations. Some focus on testing integrated skills, as in the Edexcel London Tests of English, while others focus on just one skill, such as the Trinity exams in spoken English. Other examinations which are conducted on a wide scale internationally are the University of Michigan Proficiency in English examination and the Pitman (London) examinations in all four skills.

Teaching New Language

Whatever the level of the class, and in whatever way the teacher arranges the study phase of the lesson, there are four things that students need to do with new language: be exposed to it, understand its meaning, understand how it's constructed and be able to practise and produce it.

Grammar is often said to be the tree trunk and branches of a language while vocabulary and functions are the leaves that add beauty and variety. Certainly, one does not appear so attractive and appealing without the others, and none are truly effective alone. Therefore, we have to ensure that students are introduced to new language in a balanced and manageable way.

Some lessons that we teach may include new grammar, vocabulary and functions. More often than not, lessons will introduce or be specifically focused on, just one area.

We can easily apply our ESA methods to introduce new language. Lessons that are specifically targeted to grammar or vocabulary commonly use the "Straight Arrow" ESA approach, whereas functions-based lessons are more commonly approached with "Boomerang" or "Patchwork" ESA structures. This is certainly not a rule that has to or even should be followed. An effective teacher will think about which structure is most appropriate to the class and to the language that will be introduced.

●*Teaching Vocabulary*

Vocabulary is very important to the students, especially at the early stages when students are motivated to learn the basic words they need to get by in the language.

As a rule, a learner's receptive (words the student knows but doesn't use) vocabulary is much larger than his or her productive (words the student knows and uses) vocabulary;
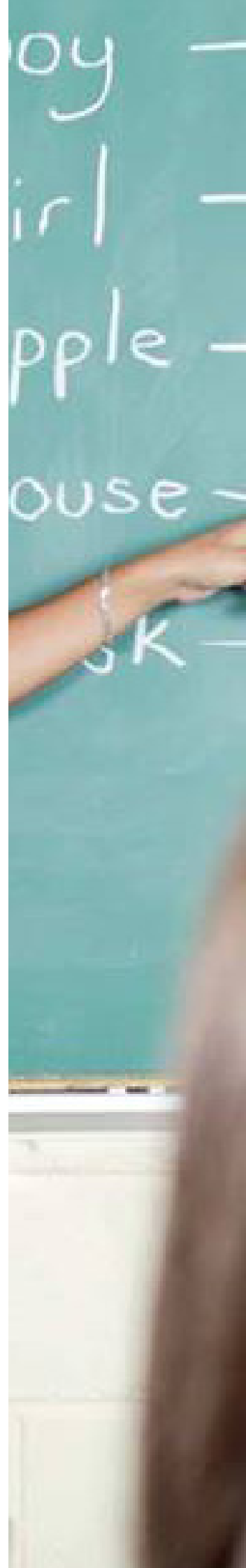
the students can usually understand many more words than they can actively use.

How easy or difficult a vocabulary item is will largely depend on a number of factors:

- similarity to students' own language

- similarity to English words already known

- spelling and pronunciation

- appropriacy

Selecting Vocabulary

Whilst there is a general consensus about which grammatical structures should be taught at which levels, the same is not true of vocabulary.   One of the biggest problems of vocabulary teaching is how to select which words to teach. Although the teacher is generally guided by the course and teacher's book, the following criteria can be used:

- appropriacy to the students

- appropriacy to the task

- frequency and coverage – how often are the students likely to use/come across the language and can it be applied to different situations (The Cobuild English Dictionary gives some very helpful frequency information.)

- teachability – for example, beginner students need very clear and visual language

What do students need to know about a vocabulary item?

- meaning – what it means

- use – how/when it is appropriate to use

- word grammar – where it belongs

- interaction – how it interacts and affects other words

- spelling – how it is written

- pronunciation – how it is spoken

Techniques for Vocabulary Teaching

Engage

The following methods can all be used to help engage the students and to elicit/explain meaning:

- realia

- mime and action

- pictures

- contrast

- discussion

- discovery

Study

Study activities can include the following:

- gap-fill exercises

- word searches

- crosswords

- matching exercises

- example sentences

- pronunciation exercises such as drilling

- study from texts and dialogues

Activate

The activate stage of a vocabulary lesson may include such activities as

- open class, small group or pair discussion

- role-play

- simulation

- story building

- material production task (poster, advertisement, etc.)

- debate

A typical "Straight Arrow"-structured ESA vocabulary (for household furniture vocabulary) lesson for lower level students with the learning objective – "At the end of the lesson students will be able to use vocabulary asscociated with houses, rooms and furniture" might look something like this:

Engage	Open class activity during which students share information about where they live, type of house they live in, and rooms they have. Maybe students can be asked in the lesson before to bring pictures or draw a floor plan to show other students. If this is likely to create any social discomfort, the teacher can bring a picture of his/her house, or houses in general, for discussion.
Study	Teacher shows a small text, or plays dialogue, of someone describing their house. Checks pronunciation, spelling, meaning, etc., with some of the study activities mentioned above.
Activate	Teacher tells small groups or pairs of students that they can design their perfect house, complete with furnishings, money no object. Later students present their "dream" house to the class, and the class has a discussion on pros and cons of each house before voting on which house they would like to live in.

Please note that this isn't the right way to approach it. It is just one way. There are many other ways of achieving the same end. A patchwork-structured approach can be seen in Unit 3.

Introducing Grammatical Structures

Which new language structures we introduce are largely determined by the level of the class and the course syllabus we are using. However, in all cases, the students will need to know what the language means, how it is used, what the grammatical form is and how it is said/written.

- Meaning – what the language means

- Use – how/when it is used

- Forms and Patterns – formation and patterns of the language

- Spoken and written form – any differences in forms.
  For example, in written form "I am going to….." often becomes "I'm gonna….." in spoken form.

Techniques for presenting and practising language structures

Engage

- discussion

- scenario building

- prompting

- question and answer

- use of pictures, drawings, real objects, mime, etc.

Study

- intonation and pronunciation pattern practice

- looking at the language in context through texts and dialogues

- choral and individual repetition (drilling)

- gap fills

- information gaps

- sentence word order activities (unscramble jumbled sentences, etc.)

- sentence building

Activate

- communication games

- role-play

- story building

- discussion/debate

A typical ESA patchwork grammar lesson for mid-level students with the learning objective – "At the end of the lesson, students will be able to talk/write about films and books using the past simple tense."

Engage	Students discuss favourite books/films, what they liked about them, etc. If teacher has told them in advance, they can bring copies in.
Activate	In pairs, students write brief synopsis of a book or film they have seen.
Study	From the synopsis, analyze the usage of the past simple tense. Further study activities to reinforce meaning, formation and pronunciation follow.
Activate	In groups, students write short story from picture prompts.
Study	Group passes story to another group who check for correct usage of past tense. Any errors discussed/analyzed in class.
Activate	Chain story communication game. One student starts the story, the next continues, and so on.

●Teaching Language Functions

As well as vocabulary and grammar, language also consists of functions. Language functions include areas such as inviting, refusing, agreeing and disagreeing, suggesting, etc. Teaching language functions also includes the appropriacy (or appropriateness) of the language in terms of the kind of language they use – formal, informal, tentative, technical, etc.

Language function lessons will stress the need for activation of language and is perhaps most effectively used with the boomerang and patchwork-type ESA lessons that we saw in Unit 3. Certainly, role-plays are very useful here.

A typical function (inviting in this case) ESA boomerang-type lesson could be:

Engage	Students talk in open class about their favourite leisure activities, why they like them, how often they do them, etc. Teacher uses prompts to get students opinions on certain other activities.
Activate	Students walk around class inviting peers to join them in their favourite activities until they have found at least two students who would like to do so.
Study	Teacher and students listen to invitation dialogue on tape. Compare to the language they used and analyze ways of inviting formally/ informally and accepting/rejecting such invitations appropriately. Some pronunciation and other study exercises used to reinforce.
Activate	Using new language, students role-play in pairs. One wants a date with the other and invites. The other isn't keen on the date so makes excuses. The winner is the student who doesn't run out of invitations or rejections!

Teaching Pronunciation & Phonology

Pronunciation is probably the most neglected aspect of English language teaching. Confidence is often lacking in foreign teachers to teach it methodically, and English teachers sometimes also lack the training and confidence to tackle this area. Applied phonetics is rarely taught at school or even university, and it seems an alien, abstract subject to the adult trainee teacher. Then there is the fact that many native English speakers find it difficult to hear certain features, such as the fall or rise of speech, particularly at the end of sentences. The reaction to this is often: "Well, I am an educated English person and if I cannot detect things like that, the foreign student will not be able to either. So what does it matter anyway?"

Most pronunciation, as a result, tends to concentrate on individual sounds, which although the most obvious, is not necessarily the most important part.

An effective teacher considers the teaching of pronunciation an integral part of the course. For one thing, students are as concerned about it as they are with any other aspect of learning English. In a recent study of 500 adult students from Cordoba, Barcelona, Paris, Turin, and Rome, one of the questions asked was, "What do you find the most difficult in English: Grammar, Speaking, Understanding, Pronunciation, Idioms or Writing?" Among these alternatives, pronunciation was in a substantial majority. Skilled pronunciation teaching also gives life to a class because it reflects feelings and personal reactions to different situations. In classroom practice, it gives variety to repetition or dialogues which, otherwise, have only a neutral meaning.

As a simple example, the meaning of YES, depends on whether it is YES!, or YES? or YES (with stress). One argument that the unversed teacher has against teaching pronunciation is that it varies so much, depending on the situation and mood of the speaker, that it seems impossible to standardize anything. This argument, however, could also apply to grammar, as structure also depends on what the speaker is trying to say. Nevertheless, it is possible to make some attempt to break up English grammar into general rules and formulae.

In the same way, it is possible to lay down general guidelines for English pronunciation. The following texts are an attempt to do this. It is, for reasons of practicality, a broad overview. Once the basic concepts have been grasped, the dedicated reader can extend his/her own personal knowledge by further reading and with classroom practice.

Phonology

Definition

Phonology is the study, science, analysis, and classification of the physical properties of sounds. The terms phonetics and phonology are often used interchangeably. The term phonology is increasingly used to indicate the whole sound system of a particular language, e.g., the phonology of English. In the following texts, we will deal with the areas of STRESS, RHYTHM, and INTONATION, as well as concentrating on the International Phonetic Alphabet and its use in helping students to come to an understanding of the pronunciation of English.

Stress and intonation

Individual sounds, sounds in connected speech, stress within words, and stress within whole utterances are all difficult for students to perceive in isolation. The main reason for this is that the main interest of someone engaged in the act of communication is in trying to understand the meaning of what is being said. However, some sort of instinctive perception is essential for a full understanding of what is being said, and some sort of analytical perception is useful for correct production. So, it is helpful to give an indication of those features in order to highlight them, even when students are examining other aspects of form or listening for meaning. In the classroom there should be time given to pronunciation, stress and intonation practice so as to make students aware of the importance of accuracy and clarity of communication.

Intonation is generally considered to be the variation in volume and pitch in a whole sentence, whereas stress is more concerned with individual words. This distinction becomes blurred in examples such as "YES" on the previous page, when a single word can be a sentence in itself!

Techniques for indicating and teaching intonation

Intonation carries the message in a sentence. It is particularly important in questioning, agreeing, disagreeing or confirming statements. It is also fundamental in the

expression of emotions or feelings, e.g., sadness, happiness, disbelief, uncertainty, etc.

The normal pattern of intonation in a statement is the rise/fall intonation.

Consider: I *haven't seen him for a week.*

Normally, the pitch would gradually rise until the word him and then fall right down to where the speaker started, and frequently even lower. It can be indicated thus:
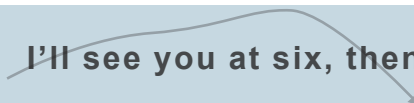
I haven't seen him for a week

The same rule applies to short utterances like *OK*. If you agree with someone, or agree to do something, you will say OK with intonation rising on the O and falling right down on the *K*. Try it!

OK

With the falling intonation you are also indicating that you have finished what you want to say.

e.g. **I'll see you at six, then.** (Voice falls after *six* – nothing more to be said.)

Note also that native speakers normally use the same intonation pattern in straightforward questions. If a teacher said:

How do you spell "rough"?

Intonation rises to spell and falls right down on rough, indicating that the teacher has finished what he wants to say, and it is up to the student to figure it out and reply!

When you finish what you want to say, the intonation falls – in positive and negative statements, questions, greetings, and instructions. If the person being addressed wants to reply, they can; it's up to them. As in the following:

This book is fascinating.

Where did you buy it?

I didn't. (pauses and decides to give more detail)

It was given to me.

Hi!   Hello!   How you doing?   Have a nice day.   Good morning! Have fun!
Sit down.   And keep quiet.   Please shut the door.   Enjoy your meal.

Say the above to yourself. You should find that ALL the above examples have falling intonation, since you (the speaker) intend to say no more.

The second common intonation pattern is the fall/rise pattern. This indicates surprise and often disagreement, but above all indicates that the speaker wants the person to whom he's speaking to respond or confirm. Look at these four greetings again:

Hi!   How you doing?   Hello!   Good morning!

If these are said with a final rising intonation, either ⌒ or \/

then they all require an acknowledgement or return greeting. Similarly with:

You don't really mean that, do you? (pattern – gradual rise to mean, then fall, and rise on do you?) The speaker may be surprised, but certainly needs confirmation, e.g. *No, I don't* or some other reply, such *as Of course I do!*)

Are you ready yet?
With the fall/rise on yet, the questioner is demanding a reply.

A fall/rise pattern can also indicate that the speaker hasn't yet finished what he or she has to say.

e.g. **I was in the market the other day** (pattern – rise to market, fall to day and then rise at the end of day.) The fall/rise on day denotes "don't speak, I haven't finished yet!")

And do you know who I saw? (same pattern with fall/rise on saw, effectively saying "I don't want you to answer that!")

You'll never guess! (fall/rise on guess, indicating "don't! I'm going to tell you!")

It was Stanley! (fall on Stanley and end of the story so far, telling the listeners that they can react if they like.)

Finally, we can have a kind of level intonation which is basically flat, which often indicates that the speaker doesn't really have that much to say, and perhaps doesn't want to communicate.

Common instances are normally short ones such as the following:

Carry on   Don't stop   I understand , etc…

To summarise the three patterns, three different ways of answering the phone might serve as an example:

Hello!   indicating "please speak. It's your turn." Polite and welcoming.

Hello!   indicating that the speaker has finished what he wants to say and is generally not very happy with the situation! (Perhaps this is the sixth call in ten minutes!)

Hello!   Not very welcoming, but grudgingly (?) allows the caller to speak!

Finally, intonation patterns can be powerful predictors of the nature of forthcoming information. An example of this is a BBC newsreader reading the football/soccer results. This can also be used as a classroom activity to help attune students' ears to intonation by predicting the results. The teacher and then students can take turns "reading the results." This is how the newsreader sounds, always pausing between the name of each club and the number of goals they have scored:

ARSENAL 3 BOLTON WANDERERS...
(rising intonation to 3 and then falling on Bolton Wanderers, denoting a normal statement with expected information, i.e., the visitors lost)**… 1**

FULHAM 2 EVERTON...
(level intonation, not rising to 2, and then rising and falling on Everton to indicate no change of information, Everton scored the same!)   **… 2**

CHELSEA 2 LIVERPOOL...
(rising intonation to 2, then starting to fall on Liver but rising on pool to indicate surprise coming! The reigning champions, playing on their home ground and so expected to win, have in fact been beaten! The speaker has prepared us for a score greater than 2!)   **… 4**

Intonation in English is not a simple matter, but if you can understand the principles of the two main patterns, you are doing well!

Teaching Pronunciation & Phonology

Stress

Let's now turn to stress. Consider the sentence "He didn't mean to kick that dog." There are many different ways of interpreting this sentence. Out of context, we really don't know what the speaker was trying to say or imply, as we don't know where the "strong" part of sentence lies. The strong part is the stressed word, or word that bears the principal emphasis in the sentence. In the sentences that follow, it is also the place in the sentence where the intonation begins to fall.

The stressed words, different each time, are in bold below:

1. **He** didn't mean to kick that dog.
   (Somebody else meant to do it)
2. He **didn't** mean to kick that dog.
   (Here the speaker is contradicting somebody who thinks he did mean to do it)
3. He didn't **mean** to kick that dog.
   (He kicked the dog accidentally)
4. He didn't mean to **kick** that dog.
   (This implies that he meant to do something different)
5. He didn't mean to kick **that** dog.
   (He meant to kick a different dog)
6. He didn't mean to kick that **dog.**
   (He meant to kick something else nearby)

If we have difficulty ourselves knowing how to emphasize different parts of a sentence, along with the unspoken implications that go along with that, imagine the frustrations that the students must have! There are a number of ways we can help them in this regard:

Nonsense words:	(just "pure noises"!) can be used to practice conveying attitude. You could ask your students to utter a random sentence such as "I love you" several times, telling them what attitude (e.g., warmth, indifference, pride, hostility, boredom, interest) you want them to communicate on each occasion. While drama teachers working with native speakers try to get learners to sing with expression, the challenge for language teachers is to get learners to speak with expression.
By gesture:	Give a clear sweep of the hand either up or down in order to indicate the general direction. Hands can also be used to indicate whether the sentence starts on a high or low pitch and then indicate the direction of the pitch.

Humming or singing:	By humming or singing out sentences to hear the stress and intonation. The students don't even need to produce words.
The board:	By making marks on the board using straight or angled arrows to emphasize the point being made.

All multi-syllable words in English have one or more parts that are stressed. But which part should it be? There are some basic rules of word stress in English. Here are two very simple rules about word stress to start:

1. One word has only one stress and can't have two stresses. There can be a "secondary" stress in some words, but a secondary stress is much smaller than the main (primary) stress and is only used in longer words.

2. We can only stress syllables not individual vowels or consonants.

Here are some more, rather complicated, rules that can help you understand where to put the stress. But don't rely on them too much, because there are many exceptions! It is always better to try to explain to students that they should try to "feel" the music of the language and to add the stress naturally.

1. Stress on first syllable:

RULE	EXAMPLE
most 2-syllable nouns	**Chi**na, **ta**ble, **ex**port
most 2-syllable adjectives	**slen**der, **clev**er, **hap**py

2. Stress on last syllable:

RULE	EXAMPLE
most 2-syllable verbs	cre**ate,** de**cide,** be**gin**

3. Stress on penultimate syllable

RULE	EXAMPLE
words ending in -ic	Jur**ass**ic, geo**graph**ic, pa**thet**ic
words ending in -sion and -tion	tele**vi**sion, reve**la**tion, compe**ti**tion

Note about Table 3: For many words, the stress can change according to where the native speaker of English is from. For example, some native speakers say "television" and others say "television". Another example is "controversy" and "controversy."

4. Stress on ante-penultimate syllable (ante-penultimate = third from end)

RULE	EXAMPLE
words ending in -cy, -ty, -phy, and -gy	de**mo**cracy, dependa**bi**lity pho**to**graphy, ge**o**logy
words ending in -ive	**re**lative, com**pa**rative, in**di**cative
words ending in -al	**cri**tical, geo**lo**gical

5. Compound words (words with two parts)

RULE	EXAMPLE
for compound nouns, the stress is on the first part	**black**bird, **green**house, **post** office
for compound adjectives, the stress is on the second part	bad-**tem**pered, old-**fash**ioned
for compound verbs, the stress is on the second part	under**stand**, over**flow**

Stress is, in reality, a much easier area to get across to students, as it doesn't change in most cases. Once a student has learned the correct part of a word to stress, he or she doesn't need to worry about it.

Techniques for indicating stress

Contrastive stress: A student can more readily perceive a sound that is voiced by placing it alongside a sound that is non-voiced. A rising questioning tone is easier to recognize when it is heard immediately before or after a falling tone. Stress on a syllable can be shown by saying it correctly and then repeating the word with the stress on a different syllable. An important point to remember though, if using this technique, is that if you stress sounds unnaturally, for whatever reason, it should then be repeated normally so that the final thing in the students' mind is a correct example.

By gesture: Clapping, clicking fingers, tapping on desk, circle rhymes, etc.

The board: **Underlining** e.g., *He wanted to go.*

                         □   ■   □   ■
              Boxes: e.g., *He wanted to go.*

Stress marks: e.g., *He wanted to 'go.*

Lack of stress

In normal speech, there are more syllables without stress, or unstressed, than with stress! To hear and reproduce unstressed syllables are often the most difficult activities in English for a learner. Look at – and say aloud – this sentence:

He's gone to the supermarket with his friend.

How many stressed syllables are there – excluding any secondary stress?

*He's **gone** to the supermarket with his **friend***

The stressed syllables are in bold above (we assume, we all know who we are talking about). There would frequently be secondary stress on the third syllable of supermarket. Counting that one, there are four stressed syllables and seven unstressed! A rough rule to explain this is that only the vital syllables in the words conveying the essential information are stressed. The remainder, because they are needed by the grammar, are not stressed. So, in answer to the question Where's Joe? - and both syllables are stressed, the essential information is gone, sup.., friend. We can supply the rest He's gone to the supermarket with his friend.

Auxiliary verbs in all their forms – be, have, do – are rarely stressed, except for special emphasis, e.g., *He **didn't** lose it.* (Don't say he did!)

Articles are normally unstressed – *a, an, the* – and are pronounced like a very shorter with no hint of the *r* sound – see the phonemic script later – vowel 36!

Similarly, pronouns and prepositions are normally unstressed, e.g., (we know who we are talking about) I told him he looked stupid *with a spoon on the top of his hat!* Six stressed syllables and nine unstressed! That's par for the course in English!

Sound joining

There are four major ways that sounds join together in English.

Linking:	Marble Arch becomes marblarch
Sound dropping (t, d):	Bond Street becomes bon street
Sound changing:	Green Park becomes Greem Park
Extra lettering:	Anna and the king becomes Annner and the king. Dancing with tears in my eyes becomes Dancing with tears in my yeyes

Read across from one column to the other. When spoken in most dialects of English, the sounds will be practically identical! Meaning will often be gleaned from context.

mice pies	my spies
grey tapes	great apes
send the maid	send them aid
car pit	carpet
it's an aim	it's a name
grade 'A'	grey day
ice cream	I scream
the way to cut it	the waiter cut it

Linked speech

How it sounds:	How it is written:
Where dja wanna go?	Where do you want to go? What do you want to do?
Whatcha wanna do?	
I'm no' too sure.	I am not too sure.
I' leave it ta you.	I will leave it to you.
Doncha wanna go to town ta see a show?	Don't you want to go to town to see a show?
I don' know now, but I'letcha know.	I don't know, but I will let you know.
Whatcha recommend?	What do you recommend?
Wheredja like ta dine?	Where do you like to dine?

This isn't laziness – this is simply the way that native speakers of English usually naturally speak. The closer that students can get to this idea of linking words together, the more natural their speech will sound too!

●*The phonemic alphabet*

How closely does spelling match pronunciation in English? Have a look at the poem below (att. to George Bernard Shaw):

Hints on Pronunciation for Foreigners

I take it you already know
Of tough and bough and cough and dough?
Others may stumble but not you
On hiccough, thorough, laugh and through.
Well done! And now you wish, perhaps,
To learn of less familiar traps?

Beware of heard, a dreadful word
That looks like beard and sounds like bird,
And dead: it's said like bed, not bead –
For goodness sake don't call it deed!
Watch out for meat and great and threat (They
rhyme with suite and straight and debt)

A moth is not a moth in mother
Nor both in bother, broth in brother,
And here is not a match for there
Nor dear and fear for bear and pear,
Just look them up – and goose and choose,
And cork and work and card and ward,
And font and front and word and sword,
And do and go and thwart and cart –
Come, come, I've hardly made a start!
A dreadful language? Man alive.
I'd mastered it when I was five.

You should have noticed one of the most problematic areas of pronunciation in the English language, spelling of words and their pronunciation often differs. Many words are written with similar individual or groups of letters but are pronounced very differently. How are students to know how to pronounce a new word? A dictionary can be very helpful, as it not only states the meaning of a word, gives its class (noun/adjective/verb, etc.) and sometimes gives example sentences but also it provides the pronunciation. Have a look at a dictionary and you will probably notice that immediately after the traditional spelling of the word, it is written again using some rather strange symbols. These are usually the symbols of the international phonemic alphabet. Once the students (and the teacher!) are familiar with this alphabet, they should be able to accurately pronounce any word in the dictionary.

It is perfectly possible to work on the sounds of English without ever using these phonemic symbols, but we would perhaps be doing our students a disservice. The students will see them in their dictionaries, in their course books and some of them may even already know this alphabet and expect the teacher to know it, too! It will certainly make things easier for the teacher and the students if they can develop a working knowledge of the system.

One of the most important skills, when using the phonemic alphabet, is to forget about the way a word is traditionally spelt and focus only on the sounds you make when saying a particular word. Find the symbol that produces each individual sound and put them together to form the phonetic spelling.

It doesn't matter where you are from, or what variety of English you speak. The phonetic alphabet is simply a set of symbols that represent the way we, as English speakers, put sounds together to form words.

There are many occasions when, for example, a speaker of English from the north of England, will write a word phonetically in a different way to a compatriot from the south of England. They speak slightly differently! Similarly, Australians speak a different style of English to Americans. Does that mean that a different chart for every conceivable variety of English should be produced? Obviously not, as this would go against the universal system of one set of phonetic symbols for ALL speakers of English. This is why the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was conceived.

The example words in the International Phonemic Alphabet chart (given on the next page) happen to be based on British English, but the individual sounds, represented by the bold text within the words, are universal, and are pronounced identically whatever style of English the speaker uses.

Phonemic Symbols

Consonants		Vowels	
p	pen, copy, happen	ɪ	kit, bid, hymn, minute
b	back, baby, job	e	dress, bed, head, many
t	tea, tight, button	æ	trap, bad
d	day, ladder, odd	ɒ	lot, odd, wash
k	key, clock, school	ʌ	strut, mud, love, blood
g	get, giggle, ghost	ʊ	foot, good, put
tʃ	church, match, nature	iː	fleece, sea, machine
dʒ	judge, age, soldier	eɪ	face, day, break
f	fat, coffee, rough, photo	aɪ	price, high, try
v	view, heavy, move	ɔɪ	choice, boy
θ	thing, author, path	uː	goose, two, blue, group
ð	this, other, smooth	əʊ	goat, show, no
s	soon, cease, sister	aʊ	mouth, now
z	zero, music, roses, buzz	ɪə	near, here, weary
ʃ	ship, sure, national	eə	square. fair, various
ʒ	pleasure, vision	ɑː	start, father
h	hot, whole, ahead	ɔː	thought, law, north, war
m	more, hammer, sum	ʊə	poor, jury, cure
n	nice, know, funny, sun	ɜː	nurse, stir, learn, refer
ŋ	ring, anger, thanks, sung	ə	about, common, standard
l	light, valley, feel	i	happy, radiate. glorious
r	right, wrong, sorry, arrange	u	thank you, influence, situation
j	yet, use, beauty, few	n̩	suddenly, cotton
w	wet, one, when, queen	l̩	middle, metal
ʔ	(glottal stop) department, football	ˈ	(stress mark)

Teaching Pronunciation & Phonology

Try the phonemic alphabet out for yourself. Say your first name and note which sounds you hear, find the sounds from the phonemic alphabet and this will be the phonemic spelling of the word.

To compare voiced and unvoiced consonants, put your hand gently on your throat and say "bat," followed by "pat." You should feel a vibration in your throat with the /b/ sound and nothing at all for the /p/ sound. This is because /b/ is voiced, i.e., you make a noise when your vocal chords are vibrating, and /p/ is unvoiced – this is purely the movement of air, with no vibration of the vocal chords. Your voice doesn't produce any sound at all here! This is also a useful way of explaining the difference to students – get them to put their hands on their own throats, to "feel" the difference.

Also compare how your mouth and lips move when you produce the /b/ and /p/ sound. You should find that your mouth does exactly the same for each; it's only your voice that changes. How many other examples can you find in the chart that are similar in this way, i.e., voiced and unvoiced consonants where the mouth position is the same for each?   There are a few!

This area is explored in more detail in the following section "Articulation."

•*Articulation*

The Speech Organs

Human speech is an enormously complex area of study; linguists are constantly learning more about this amazing human instinct. We've begun our investigation by looking at the vocal cords, but other organs are involved as well. They include:

the tongue	the alveolar ridget
the larynx	the hard palate
the glottis	the soft palate

The three items in the right-hand column are not separate speech organs, but rather areas in the mouth.

Place of Articulation

Linguists use this weighty phrase to describe the physical location of a phoneme's production. Each is connected to a different organ or area. Let's explore each turn.

Velar	The soft palate is also known as the velum. When the back of the tongue is raised and strikes the velum, velar consonants are produced. Say the following sounds: /k/ and /g/. Can you feel where the back of your tongue is before the sound is released? Can you identify one more consonant labeled as velar?
Palatal	Here, the central part of your tongue comes in close contact with the central part of the roof of your mouth. Make the /Z/ sound. Can you feel where your tongue is? Can you think of at least one other sound that is made in a similar way? There are three in total. If you can't, take a deep breath and make the /Z/ sound again. Now, add voice. Can you recognize this sound? How about the final sound in "beige" or "massage" or the "s" in "leisure"?

Alveolar	The *alveolar ridge* is the bony area just behind the top teeth. In alveolar sounds, the front or tip of the tongue is raised toward the alveolar ridge. Make the /t/ sound. Where is your tongue? Can you think of any other alveolar consonants? There are nine in total.
Dental	When you think of words like "dentist," you can imagine that dental consonants somehow involve the teeth. In English, there are two dental sounds in which the tongue is placed between the teeth. Say the word "think." Where is your tongue at the beginning of the word on the "th" sound? Now, say the word "this." What is the difference between the dental "th" consonant in "think" and "this"? If you say the words "think" and "this" very slowly, you should notice that on "think," the "th" sound is voiceless and with "this" it is voiced. We, therefore, have two phonemes for the "th" sounds.
Labio-Dental	The word "labio" has to do with the lips, and as you know, "dental" has to do with the teeth. In English, there are two consonants that are produced by having the top teeth come in contact with the lower lips. One of them is /f/. The other is /v/.
Bilabial	As you can probably guess, "bi" means "two," so "bilabial" means two lips. Several sounds in English are made by putting the lips together, like the /p/ sound. Three other bilabials are /b/, /m/, and /w/.
Glottal	The opening between the vocal cords is called the glottis. In English, there is one sound in which air is restricted at the glottis. Can you identify the sole glottal consonant? There is only one sound that uses the throat only.
Lateral	Lateral consonants are pronounced with the air escaping on the side of the tongue rather than on the front. Strictly speaking, the lateral quality is not really a "place of articulation" as such, and can be combined with other properties of the consonants.

Manner of Articulation

As you probably found out in the last section on bilabial sounds, /p/, /b/, and /m/ are all made by putting the lips together. Although /p/ and /b/ are essentially formed in the same way (with /p/ being voiceless and /b/ being voiced), there is a definite difference between /b/ and /m/, for example. This difference is referred to as manner of articulation.

Plosives

a. Prepare to make the /p/ sound, but do not make the sound. Your mouth should be closed (i.e., your lips should be together).

b. Now, release the sound.

c. Do the same for /t/. Simply put your mouth in position to make the /t/ sound. Can you breathe? If you are doing it right, you shouldn't be able to.

d. Now, release the "t" sound.

e. Do the same for the following sounds: /b/, /d/, /k/, /g/

What do all these sounds have in common?

These sounds are identified by linguists as plosives. Why? Think of the word "explode." Before you make each of these sounds, the air is completely blocked before being released in an explosive manner.

Fricatives

Do the following:

a. Take a deep breath.

b. Make the /f/ sound. Your upper teeth should be touching your lower lip (labio-dental!). Hold the sound ("ffffffff").

c. Do the same for the /v/ sound. Remember, don't say the letter "v", just hold the sound. It should sound like an electric razor.

d. Do the same for the /Σ/ sound (the "sh" sound). It should sound like you want someone to be quiet.

e. Now try the /s/ sound. You should sound like a snake.

What do these sounds have in common?

These sounds are known as fricatives. Can you see the connection to the word "friction?"

Can you think of some other sounds that are fricatives? A couple to start with are /f/ and /v/. There are nine altogether, although one is rather tricky!

In all these sounds, an obstruction is made, but the air is still forced through. As air is being pushed through a very small space, turbulence or friction is produced.

Nasals

All nasal sounds are produced by making an obstacle in the mouth and lowering the soft palate so that air can only escape through the nasal cavity. Three sounds can be identified as nasals: /m/, /n/ and /N/.

Affricates

One sequence commonly found in English is the succession of a plosive by the corresponding fricative. It then often happens that the release of the plosive merges with the attack of the fricative to form an affricate. In other words, an affricate pair is a plosive with constrictive release. Examples of affricates found in English are the /τΣ/ sound in the word "church" and the /δΖ/ sound in "judge" (the voiced counterpart).

The chart on the following page shows both place and manner of articulation for consonants. The most important expressions to know for manner of articulation are: plosives, fricatives, affricates, and nasals.
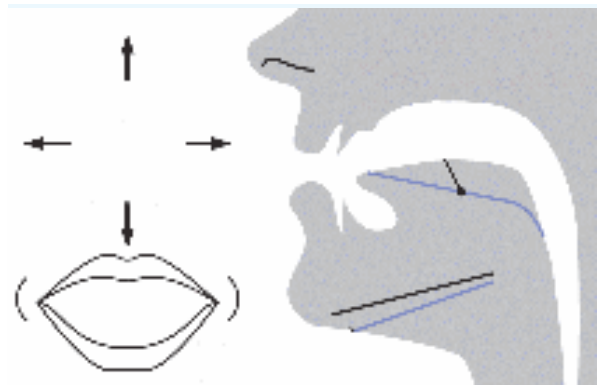
MANNER AND PLACE OF ARTICULATION							
	bilabial	labio-dental	dental	alveolar	palataal	velar	glottal
plosive	/p/ /b/			/t/ /d/		/k/ /g/	
fricative		/f/ /v/	/T/ /Δ/	/s/ /z/	/Z/ /Σ/		/h/
affricate				/TΣ/ /ᵟZ/			
nasal	/m/			/n/		/N/	
lateral							
semi-vowel	/w/					/j/	
continuent				/r/			

To help you understand this chart, /b/ and /p/ are bilabial plosives. /f/ and /v/ are labio-dental fricatives.

Can you identify the two velar plosives in English?

How would you describe the /s/ and /z/ sounds?

Teaching techniques for the pronunciation of individual sounds

The teaching of individual sounds can be good fun for the teacher and the students. Here are some activities that work well:

Peer dictation:	Students reading and speaking words or sentences for a partner to write down is very useful and is an effective way for students to analyze pronunciation problems for them-selves. Of course the partner shouldn't be able to see the original text!
Your own mouth:	Over-emphasising individual parts of a word can be beneficial, allowing the students to see as closely as possible exactly what your mouth is doing. As with contrastive stress, you need to finish by pronouncing the word normally, so that students don't come away with a false idea of what is correct!

Teaching Pronunciation & Phonology

Visual:	By drawing a diagram of the mouth showing how a particular sound is made. Here are a couple of examples:

The first is for /εI/:	

WIDE MOUTH

Move the front of the tongue up

Move jaw up

And for /Θ/:	

WIDE OPEN MOUTH

Back of the tongue down

Jaw down
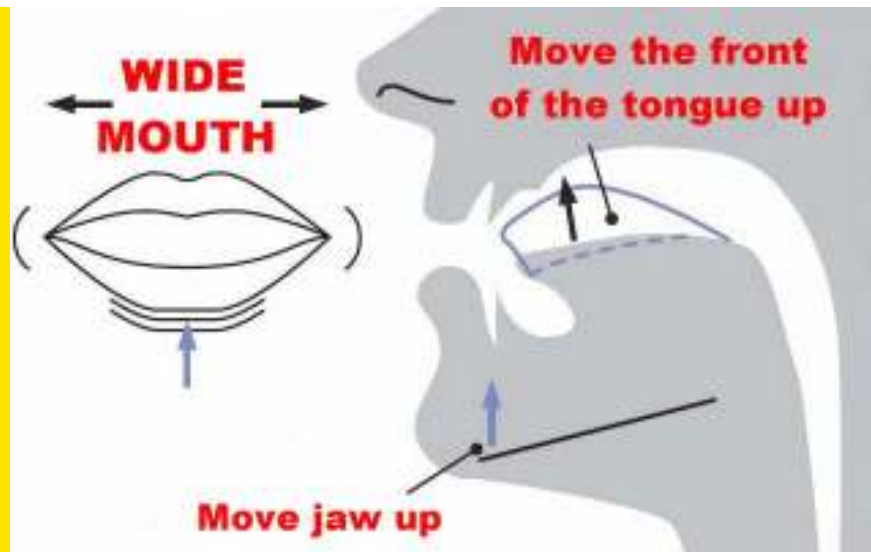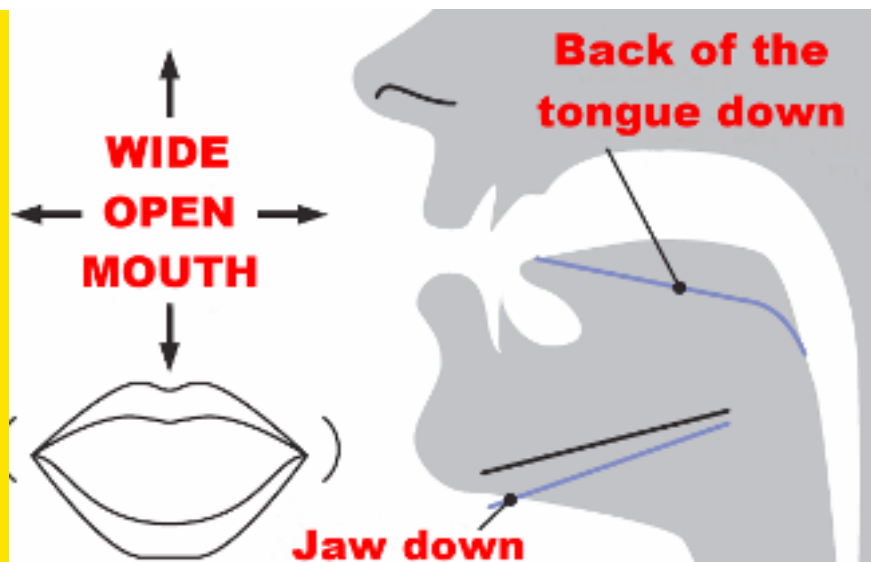
Phonemes:	Symbols for common or difficult sounds can be introduced to help the class note down problem areas more easily.

Tongue twisters:	Do we need to say more?

When to teach pronunciation

Just as with other areas of the language, teachers must decide when to include pronunciation work into their lessons. Different teachers have different ideas on the subject, but the following are the most common:

Whole lesson – Some teachers like to devote whole lessons to pronunciation, working on a variety of issues relevant to their students' needs.

Lesson slots – Some teachers prefer to slot a certain amount of particular pronunciation work into each lesson.

As and when required – Other teachers deal with pronunciation issues as they come up in the classroom.

There is no right or wrong way. Each teacher has to decide what is best for their particular circumstances.

Some recommended materials for practice in English pronunciation, stress and intonation patterns are:

Elements of Pronunciation by Colin Mortimer, (Cambridge University Press) which comes with a student book and cassette. This book consists of practice materials for "stress time", "weak forms", "liaison" (linkages between words) and "consonant clusters."

Another great resource is the Headway pronunciation series, by Sarah Cunningham, Bill Bowler and Sue Parminter (Oxford University Press). It was originally designed to complement the Headway general coursebooks, but each level of the pronunciation series can also be used in isolation.

It should be remembered that we are unlikely to ever get 100% perfection in our students' pronunciation. In all likelihood, they will never speak English with the same pronunciation as a native speaker, and for many students that is not even their goal.

At the end of the day, we must be realistic in our teaching and sometimes be prepared to accept intelligibility instead of perfection.

Teaching Pronunciation & Phonology

You'll need this for Task 9 on the worksheet.

trænzleɪt ðɪsɪntə nɔːməl skrɪpt

99

gæriː   wɒtsðə mætə piːt

piːt   maɪjɑːm hɜːts rɪəlɪ bæd

gæriː   waɪ wɒtəvjuːbɪn duːɪŋ

piːt   aɪvbɪn pleɪjɪŋ tuː mʌtʃ gɒlf

gæriː   hævjə siːnə dɒktərəbaʊtɪt

piːt   nəʊwaɪ hævnt hæd taɪm jet djəθɪŋkaɪ ʃʊd

gæriː   aɪwʊdɪfaɪ wɜː juː bɪfɔːrɪt drɒpsɒf

piːt   θæŋks fɔː jɔːrədvaɪs

gæriː   nəʊ prɒbləm meɪt enɪ taɪm

piːt   kætʃjə leɪtə

gæriː   siːjə

Teachers and Learners

In this unit we will examine the qualities, roles and responsibilities of both teachers and students in the classroom.

Teachers

What makes a good teacher?

Ask this question to a number of teachers and students, and you are likely to get answers that closely resemble the following:

• A good teacher should be kind and patient.

• A good teacher should really love teaching.

• A good teacher should be lively and entertaining.

• A good teacher is able to motivate learners.

• A good teacher has a good knowledge of his/her subject.

• A good teacher should have good rapport and interaction with the class.

• A good teacher should be able to involve all students equally throughout the lesson.

• A good teacher should be able to correct students without offending them or affecting their motivation.

• A good teacher should know students' weaknesses and try to give help and individual attention where necessary.

We can see that the first four examples above are concerning a teacher's personality, whereas examples five to eight are more of a reflection on the relationship between the teacher and the students.

So, what exactly does make a good teacher? A simple answer may be, a teacher that really cares about his/her teaching, but cares even more about the learning of the students.
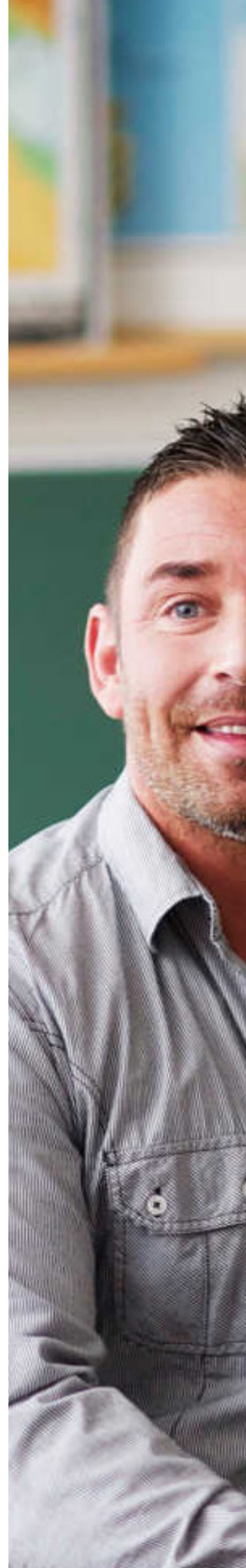
The role of the teacher

In recent years, there has been more emphasis upon "student-centred" lessons, as opposed to 'teacher-centred." The reality is that some stages of a lesson will be more centred on the teacher, and others will be very much more centred on the students. This will largely be dictated by the type of activity concerned. If we are able to make these changes appropriately, our effectiveness as teachers will be greatly enhanced.

During a typical lesson a teacher will have some, or all, of the following roles:

Manager or controller

When teachers take on the role of a controller, they are effectively in charge of the class and of the activity in a way that is quite different from an activity where the students are working on their own, in pairs or as part of a group. The teacher would normally be standing at the front of the class giving explanations, reading aloud, etc. Many very charismatic teachers are very comfortable with this approach, as they feel that they are able to inspire the students. Many other teachers are not as comfortable with such a role, as it places all the attention on the teacher and detracts from the students' own experiences.

Of course, as with other roles, the teacher as a controller has its place in the classroom but certainly shouldn't be overused.

Organizer

This role is one of the most important, as teachers very frequently find themselves having to organize students to do various activities. Often this will involve giving instructions, organizing students into groups/pairs, initiating activities, bringing activities to a close and organizing feedback.

It is extremely important that teachers are comfortable in this role, as chaos could be caused if students are not aware of the task, or how the groups are supposed to function.

▪ *Assessor*

Students are usually very keen to find out whether or not they are producing correct English, and this is where the teacher will need to act as an assessor, giving feedback and correction as well as evaluating and grading.

It is vitally important in this role that the teacher is fair and consistent with all the students as well as being very sensitive to the students' reactions and providing necessary support.

▪ *Prompter*

There are times when students will lose the thread of what they are trying to say or become stuck for ideas. When this happens, the teacher needs to decide what to do about it. Should the teacher allow the student to work it out for him/herself? Or should the teacher gently encourage the student along? If you choose the second option you are, in effect, acting as a prompter.

When prompting we want to help, but we have to be careful not to take the initiative away from the student. Therefore, a great deal of sensitivity and encouragement is required.

At times, we may also find ourselves prompting the students to use English and not their native language!

▪ *Participant*

At certain stages of the lesson, the teacher may wish to participate in the lesson as an equal, not as the teacher. There can be a number of reasons for this such as being able to liven activities up from the inside of the group as opposed to prompting from outside the group, or evening the number of students for pair work activities in classes with an uneven number of participants.

When participating, it is important for the teacher not to dominate the activity or focus attention upon him/herself.

▪ *Tutor*

Tutoring implies a more personal role for the teacher. This role will often be employed when students are working individually and need some guidance and support or when they are working in pairs, and we stop briefly to give encouragement.

Again, care needs to be taken to ensure the teacher gives equal attention to all students and to avoid intruding too much.

▪ *Resource or facilitator*

The teacher devises activities that allow the students simply to get on with the process of learning a language for themselves.

There are many occasions when the teacher will wish to withdraw completely from the activity and leave the students to participate in tasks without any interruption or interference. The teacher still needs, however, to be available as a resource in case the students require any assistance or guidance.

When acting as a resource, we want to be helpful and available, but we have to resist the temptation to spoon-feed.

▪ *Model*

The teacher, and particularly a native-speaker of English, is often the only source of real, live English the student has ever encountered. The teacher is the fountain of all knowledge on English grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation, and in these areas they have particular responsibility and authority in the eyes of the learner. Many adult learners particularly want to benefit from the speech or pronunciation model that the teacher offers.

▪ *Observer or monitor*

Often during the course of a lesson, the teacher will wish to monitor what is going on in the classroom. This can give the teacher information as to how long an activity is likely to take and how successful it has been. During oral communicative activities the teacher may also want to make notes for correction or praise at a later stage.

While observing, it is important that the teacher generally maintains a distance from the students so as to not distract them from the activity that they are involved in, but there are occasions when the teacher may also need to move in a little, to hear spoken work or to look at writing in progress in order to monitor effectively.

▪ *Which role and when?*

The role that we employ is largely going to depend on the type of activity and what we wish the students to achieve. Some stages of a lesson will require that the teacher is more dominating or leading, while others will require a more withdrawn role. It is important that the teacher is able to switch between these roles appropriately and is aware of how to carry out the required role.

As well as having the attributes of a "good teacher" and knowing which role to take and when, an experienced teacher will know how to involve and engage the students, how to effectively use mime, gesture and his/her voice. These are all areas that were dealt with in the unit on classroom management.

●Learners

What makes a good learner?

When looking at learners of English we have to consider a number of factors, such as age, culture, language level and motivation for learning. Any of these factors could have a bearing on what we perceive to be a 'good learner'. However, there are a number of general characteristics that successful students appear to possess. These can include the following:

- a willingness to listen to the language.

- a desire to experiment with the language.

- a willingness to ask questions.

- an ability to think about their own learning process and methods.

- an acceptance of error correction.

- a desire to learn.

These are all qualities that successful learners usually have, and it is the teacher's responsibility to encourage and foster these attributes in the classroom.

Age

Young learners or adults? It is important to define the difference between young learners and adults. Generally, adults is taken to mean those who are 18 years of age or more, and the term is fairly self-explanatory.

However, there are at least three categories of young learners.
First (and possibly the most difficult) is the post-puberty or early teenage learner, i.e., 13-plus, who is often unmotivated, self conscious and unwilling to take risks or experiment with language.

Second is the pre-puberty learner, corresponding to primary-school or 8-to-10-year-old students, who are usually more receptive to the new sounds, words and grammar of a foreign language.

Finally, the very young learners who are often pre-schoolers aged 7 years and less. These are becoming an increasingly bigger market the world over. They have shorter attention spans, and in the case of the very young ones have not even completely mastered the grammar of their mother tongue, but all are generally amenable to fun games, singing, drawing, etc.

Learning experience – Adults will usually come into a classroom for the first time with a long history of learning experience. They will usually have gone through a number of years of schooling, as well as other courses. These learning experiences (both good and bad) will often cause them to have a fixed view of how teaching should be carried out. Adults also come with their own history of success and failure, which can influence their belief that they can succeed with the language.

Young learners, on the other hand, have also probably had some prior learning experience, but it is unlikely that their views are as fixed, and they are more likely to have an open-minded approach to new learning experiences and methods.

Motivation – Adult learners will usually have made their own decision to attend classes and as such will usually be quite motivated. Younger learners, however, have rarely made that decision for themselves and may be somewhat lacking in motivation. A caring teacher will help build and encourage motivation by making classes varied and interesting.

Nervousness – Adults are often more nervous about a new learning experience than younger learners. "Loss of face" and anxiety about success are major factors here. It is important for the teacher to be gentle and encouraging while helping build confidence.

Language awareness – Adults usually want to be able to match new language to their native language, and this can sometimes lead to problems. Younger learners are far more likely to be able to absorb language from context and usage in much the same way as they acquired their own language.

Behaviour problems – Adults have a greater attention span than younger learners and as a result present fewer problems for the teacher regarding behaviour and discipline. Discipline in the classroom will be dealt with in detail in Unit 3.

Life experience – Adults naturally have more life experience to bring in the classroom, and this can make the lessons more varied and interesting. It is also usually easier for a teacher to build rapport and have interesting discussions with adult students of a similar age.

Culture and first language

Different cultures have different approaches to learning. Students from certain Asian countries, for example, are often noted as being very serious about their learning and respectful to their teachers but sometimes lacking in creativity and willingness to communicate. The problem possibly stems from the fact that in these areas, the teacher is often still expected to do all the talking, and the students are encouraged not to speak in class unless addressed directly by the teacher. In some schools, TEFL teachers are sometimes frowned upon and some classes considered unruly because of the noise. (Inevitable and necessary when there is choral work or pair and group work!) Conversely, the popular opinion of Latin American students is the exact opposite. Students from different linguistic groups are likely to have very different problems with the English language. Good teachers should be aware of their students' customs and differences that could affect the success of the classes.
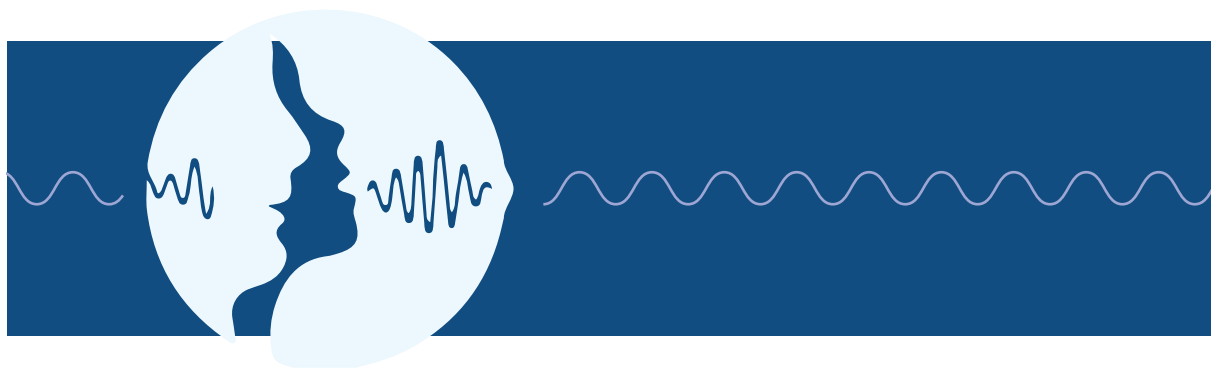
Language level

Distinctions between different levels of ability in the English language clearly have to be made. The most common breakdown is as follows:

Beginners – From zero knowledge of English to a very basic knowledge of English which cannot be quickly or easily activated.

Elementary – Students at this level are likely to be able to form basic sentence structures and communicate on simple topics.

Low/Pre-Intermediate – Able to communicate and understand a greater variety of topics but lacking general fluency and depth of language awareness. Still likely to make many errors, even with basic structures.

Intermediate – Able to understand and communicate on a wide range of issues using limited vocabulary store but still lacking in accuracy and fluency.

Upper Intermediate – Should be able to actively communicate on almost all topics using a greater range of language but still lacking in accuracy.

Advanced – Students should have a very good knowledge of the English language and now will be studying more subtle language items.

It should be noted that while the above terms are the most commonly used, their actual meanings can differ considerably depending on where you work and which textbook you may be using; an elementary student in one country could be viewed as intermediate in a different country!

Teachers and Learners

The Common European Framework recently established by the Council of Europe state the following six levels, which broadly equate to the levels listed previously:

- *Breakthrough, Basic User, A1*
- *Waystage, Basic User, A2*
- *Threshold, Independent User, B1*
- *Vantage, Independent User, B2*
- *Effective Operational Proficiency, Proficient User, C1*
- *Mastery, Proficient User, C2*

Teachers often have their own favourite levels. With lower levels, success is easy to see and usually good fun. It may be a bit restricting, however, for the teacher due to difficulties the students have in communicating in English. Students at this level are not likely to ask too many complicated grammar questions, and the teaching is mainly visual.

Mid-level students have already achieved a lot and success can be difficult to measure. To get to this level, students are usually motivated and the teacher is able to communicate with the students on a greater range of topics. Ingrained mistakes at this level can be difficult to iron out.

Higher level students already know a lot of English and are usually highly motivated. The danger is that they can sometimes feel that they have reached a plateau and fail to see progress.   At   this   level the teacher needs to encourage students to take more and more responsibility for their own language learning.

Obviously, our teaching and the complexity/speed at which we speak to our students will largely be determined by the level of the students in front of us. Many activities can be adapted to more than one level, but there are some which are patently more suited to one level. It would be rather pointless, and possibly patronizing, to give an advanced student very basic material. Likewise, there is no sense in giving beginners activities which they have no hope of comprehending or completing!

Motivation

There are many reasons why students may have decided to attend your English class. Adult students will usually have made that decision themselves and so will have some degree of motivation. Some of the most common reasons for attending English classes are

> • *for future career prospects.*
> • *for travel purposes.*
> • *to improve grades at school/achieve success in exams.*
> • *to study or live in an English speaking country.*
> • *to communicate with colleagues/friends/partners.*
> • *out of interest in languages.*

Whatever the reason, a motivated student has a greater chance of success than a student without motivation. The teacher has to ensure that lessons are enjoyable, interesting, varied and useful in order to maintain or build that motivation.

In conclusion

As can be seen from the above, the relationship between learners and teachers is a very important and complex issue. An enthusiastic, sensitive, motivated, caring teacher is much more likely to have successful students who enjoy their learning and continue attending classes. As a result, we can say that a "good teacher" will most likely have "good students!"

Where you can, make reference to your own experiences as a learner and/or teacher or to the experience of others whom you may have observed.

Equipment and Teaching Aids

Many different teaching aids can be used to make lessons more interesting, effective and less dependent on the textbook. Different schools, of course, have different resources available to teachers. Following are some of the resources often found in classrooms and study centers:

- white/black board

- overhead projector (OHP)

- visuals

- worksheets and work cards

- cassette recorder

- video recorder

- video camera

- computers

- dictionaries

- course books

- resource books

- photocopier

1. The board

All classrooms should have a board of some kind or flipchart. It is important for all board work to be planned and organised. It can be a very useful idea to make a board plan on a piece of paper beforehand, to show what you intend to have on the board and when.

Boards can be used for many things: writing, drawing, sticking things on, projecting overhead transparencies, etc. Boards draw and hold the attention of the students very effectively. Most teachers prefer whiteboards to

the traditional chalk blackboards, as they are cleaner and easier to use.

Basic principles for board-work:

- Start with a clean board.

- Write legibly and neatly.

- Use the correct writing tool for the board.

- Keep the board clear and easy to read.

- Try to section off the board to give areas for vocabulary, grammar and notes. Many teachers use columns to achieve this.

- Use different colours to highlight particular language points to focus on, or to show irregularities, differences in language, etc.

- Adjust the size of your writing to the size of the board, and make sure that it can always be seen and read from the back of the class.

- Only put essential or requested information on the board.

- Erase what is no longer needed.

- Involve the students in the writing process.

- Clean the board at the end of the lesson.

2. Overhead projector (OHP) and projectors

Overhead projectors are useful for showing pre-prepared overhead transparencies (OHTs), or as an alternative to the board.

Advantages of the OHP/projector

- Focuses students' attention.

- OHTs can be prepared in advance and help the teacher avoid having his/her back to the students while doing board work. Obviously, OHTs also cut down on the time necessary for writing on the board

- Teachers can put OHTs one on top of the other to show emerging or developing patterns.

• Putting one OHT on top of another allows the teacher to write on top of a text without writing on the original OHT (which is underneath). This can be particularly useful for correcting writing and showing different layout patterns, as well as for highlighting language points.

• Sheets of paper or card can be used to cover parts of the OHT, allowing the teacher to reveal information gradually.

• OHTs can model grammar, and present vocabulary.

• They can be used for timed reading, gap fill exercises, etc.

• They are a perfect tool for feedback after written exercises, as the students' worksheets can be copied onto an OHT, and the answers filled in together in front of the class.

• OHTs can be kept in a file and reused time and time again.

• Teachers can take their time over writing.
  OHTs ensuring legibility.

Disadvantages of the OHP/projector

• Classrooms need a surface (board, wall, screen) that is not bleached out by direct sunlight.

• Some OHPs can be rather complicated or troublesome to set up effectively.

• The classroom needs to be of a sufficient size to allow for effective projection.

• The classroom may need reorganizing to allow for an uninterrupted projection path.

3. Visual aids

Many different types of visual aids can be used in the classroom, but the most common are real objects, pictures and photos:

- They are often used to illustrate meaning more quickly and effectively than through verbal explanation – thus reducing teacher talking time.

- They can bring the outside world into the classroom.

- They add variety and interest.

- They attract attention.

- They help with the memory process.

- They can stimulate discussion and elicit language.

- They can be used for prompts in communication games – prompts for story building, etc.

- Visual aids can set the context – a picture of a market, town centre, clothing on the board, etc.

- They can be used in hand for presenting new vocab items, and used in drills, etc. In order to make the visuals effective, it is important to make sure that they are big enough to be seen and unambiguous

• They can be produced by the teacher. You don't need to be able to draw – stick figures, and pictures cut out of magazines are fine.

• Some are used for a small part of the lesson, and others can be left up for students to see throughout the lesson. Some visuals, such as wall-charts and maps, can even be put up on permanent display.

4. Worksheets and work cards

These can be bought from a publisher, or made by the teacher, and are particularly useful in the following situations:

• to adapt published materials.

• to act as prompt / cue materials.

• to write your own exercises with authentic material.

• to make cards (role-play) for communication activities.

• They can be used for reading and grammar exercises, and cards for presenting new vocabulary, etc.

• Please note that if you wish to re-use cards it may be worth covering them in plastic to keep them clean/undamaged.

5. The cassette recorder

This is one of the most useful tools for the EFL teacher. Cassettes accompany nearly all course books and, in addition, blank cassettes can be used to record authentic materials, record the students' communication, or to make your own dialogues for use in the classroom. Whilst it is a simple piece of equipment, practice and preparation are essential. Here are some guidelines.

- Before you start the lesson, make sure that you are familiar with the machine. Which way round do you insert the tape? Where is the pause, the rewind and volume buttons? Is there a counter? What is the sound quality like?

- How long does it take to rewind the tape back to the start point, so that the students can listen again? Rewind the tape to the beginning of the piece and "zero" the counter if it has one. Bear in mind that you're likely to need to rewind the tape at least once, and that it will be done in front of the class!

- Make sure it is set to the appropriate volume level, bearing in mind the size of the classroom, the distance the students are from the speakers, and external noise.

- Listen in advance to the whole of the excerpt you want to use. Is it clear and complete?

- Make sure it works in the classroom!

- During the discussion of what the students heard on the first listening, rewind to the right place for the second listening.

6. Videos and DVDs

The basic principles behind using audio cassettes in the classroom can also apply to video cassettes and DVDs. For effective use of video in the classroom, the monitor (usually TV screen) needs to be big enough and located in the correct place so that all students can see it clearly.

Videos can be used for many things; presenting information, giving background to a topic, various forms of dialogues and interactions, building listening comprehension skills, etc. Many course books have videos to support the content. Materials for these purposes can be recorded directly from TV or set up and filmed using a video camera.

Many teachers have found that showing modern video films in short instalments over a period of time can be very motivational for the students. It is important that films are not just shown for the sake of it. They must still have some purpose and task. That could be to analyze/present new language, predict what will happen in the next instalment, write a brief summary/review, etc.

Videos can often be used to stimulate discussion and also for communicative activities. One particularly effective activity is to put the students in pairs, sitting back to back so that only one of each pair can see the screen. With the volume turned off, one of each pair watches a short extract from a film, series, documentary, etc and describes what he/she can see to the other student, who then uses this information to complete a questionnaire that the teacher has prepared in advance. After the clip the students who haven't seen the video can ask questions to their partners to complete the questionnaire. The pairs then swap roles and continue with the video.

There are a couple of advantages over audio cassettes:

- Students can see as well as hear. Video is therefore much easier to understand.

- Video holds the students´ attention more.

Try not to overuse video though or there is a danger that it may lose its impact.

7. Video camera

Video cameras can be extremely useful in the classroom. One of their major uses is to record the students during an activity, and then play it back to them for analysis and discussion. The camera can also be used by the students to record a film as part of an activity or project. They may wish to record their own news broadcast, play, soap opera episode, etc. They might also want to take the camera onto the streets to record interviews as part of a survey.

The main thing to watch out for when using a video camera is correct usage of the equipment. Some training for the teacher and students may be necessary to ensure effective usage.   After all, there is not much point in recording an activity if the picture isn't clear or the sound cannot be heard!

8. Computers

Computers are gradually becoming as much a part of the English language classroom as they already have in most other areas of life. The main uses for the computer in English language teaching include:

• As a word processor to put text together in an attractive way. Students and teachers can use graphics and design functions to make for effective presentations of projects and lessons.

• Using specially designed EFL CDs. Many course books now also have a CD to support the content, which contains anything from games to tests.

• As reference tools. Either through CD dictionaries, encyclopaedias, or using materials found on the internet.

• E-mail. This can allow students from all over the world to communicate together in English.

The major problem with computers is having enough of them to allow class members access at the same time. Obviously, the cost is high, and many schools simply cannot afford the quantity that the teacher would like, so they are often only available to the teacher, if at all.

As with video, computers shouldn't be overused, or they will lose their impact and effectiveness in the classroom. Students using a computer too often can also become rather uncommunicative, which is not what the teacher wants!

9. Dictionaries

Whether a dictionary is in book or computer form, it is probably the single most useful tool available to students. A good dictionary will not only help students look up meaning, pronunciation and usage, but should also help students produce language. Many students rely too heavily on dictionaries that translate between English and their own language.
This is certainly necessary at lower levels, but we should encourage the use of English – English dictionaries that are clearly presented, have example sentences and definitions written in simple English so that students can understand them.

There are many good English – English dictionaries on the market which were specially written for English language students. Good examples are the "Learner's" dictionaries produced by Oxford University Press (OUP), available at Elementary, Intermediate and Advanced levels.

All classrooms should have a stock of dictionaries available for use, and students should be given some instructions on how to get the most from them.

10. Course books

The advantages and disadvantages of course books will be discussed in the next unit.

Equipment and Teaching Aids

11. Resource books

Resource books range from grammar exercise books through to communication games books. There are literally thousands of these on the market, and most good schools will have a reasonable selection.   Resource books are useful for adapting, supplementing and replacing material from a course book. Many of these books give permission for photocopying and are extremely popular with teachers, as they give a host of ideas and activities to help make classes more interesting and stimulating.

When you start a new job, one of the first things you should do is to have a look around the resource room and familiarize yourself with some of the materials and books contained there.

Here are some common resource books that many schools will have (in no particular order):

Grammar Practice Activities, by Penny Ur (CUP)

Elementary Communication Games, by by Jill Hadfield (Longman)

Intermediate Communication Games, by Jill Hadfield (Longman)

Essential Grammar in Use, by Raymond Murphy (CUP)

English Grammar in Use, by Raymond Murphy (CUP) (known as "The Blue Murphy"!)

Grammar Games and Activities, by Peter Watcyn-Jones (Penguin)

Grammar in Action, by Mario Rinvolucri (Prentice Hall)

Grammar Games, by Mario Rinvolucri (CUP)

Five Minute Activities, by Penny Ur and Andrew Wright (CUP)

Keep Talking, by Friederike Klippel (CUP)

Discussions that Work, by Penny Ur (CUP)

Every teacher has his/her own favourites. In a short while you will too!

12. Photocopiers

Almost every school will either have a photocopier or have access to one. These are particularly necessary for copying materials that aren't contained within the students' course books.

Teachers should try to make sure copies are clear and attractively presented and to avoid wasting paper unnecessarily. Each photocopier is different in its use, and staff at the school or institute at which you're working should be able to provide some basic training in its operation.

Course Books and Materials

Course books are a very emotive issue for many teachers. Some teachers swear by them, while other teachers despise them. Almost every published course book has its fans and its detractors. The choice of whether or not to use a course book, and if so, which one, can be quite a complex issue. In this unit, we will examine this issue, as well as looking at other sources of materials.

Creating materials

In an ideal world, schools would have all the books and materials that you could need. The reality, however, is somewhat different. This means that often the teacher has to create his/her own materials to either supplement the course book or replace sections that are not suitable for the class. For many students, compared to the course book, materials created by the teacher are more interesting, more relevant and a welcome change from the course book. These materials can be divided into two groups.

Authentic materials

Just about anything a native speaker would hear or read can be described as authentic - programs, magazines, newspapers, songs, poems, brochures, menus, films on video – the list is endless. Because authentic materials are not designed for the EFL student, they are not graded for level, and so should be selected carefully. The teacher must also decide what the students should do with the material. Some material could be used for different tasks at different levels.

For example, a TV guide could be used for students to identity different types of shows at an elementary level, while higher-level students could compare it with the TV stations of their native country.

Why use authentic materials?

• They are real and therefore more interesting and motivating,

• Students gain confidence when they understand them.

• They can be geared to the interests of a particular group of students.

Created materials

These are usually designed by the teacher to replace or supplement materials from a course book. They can, unlike authentic materials, be graded to the level of the students. Common created materials include the following:

> • crosswords
>
> • word search puzzles
>
> • role-play cards
>
> • flashcards
>
> • gap-fill activities
>
> • picture stories

If you're unfamiliar with any of these types of materials, please ask one of the trainers to show you a few examples. A good resource for making your own crosswords and wordsearches, etc., is **www.puzzlemaker.com.**

Many artistic teachers use their abilities for material production, whilst those who are less artistically gifted have to rely on pictures cut out from magazines or newspapers, or stick people drawings, etc.

Published materials - course books

Course books usually consist of a set of following materials:

- students book (for classroom use)

- workbook (for individual and supplementary work, class work, homework etc.), cassettes or CDs (for use in class and at home)

- teacher's book (gives a step-by-step guide as to how to teach the material in the student's book. Often also contain progress tests)

- in some cases, a video (video activities to reinforce the material in the student's book)

Other published materials include reading books graded to varying levels of students, test books, learner dictionaries, and vocabulary flash cards.

Probably the most commonly used course books today are the Headway, Reward, and English File series for British English and Interchange/New Interchange for American English. Books used in different countries can vary enormously and depend on local availability.

Advantages of a course book

- It is usually expected by the students.

- Although not all materials may be suitable for your class, it is considerably easier and less time consuming to supplement than to design a syllabus and create materials from scratch.

- It provides a syllabus which is graded to a level suitable for the students.

- It provides security for students and teachers alike.

- It normally provides a balanced mix of grammar, vocabulary and skills work.

- It offers continuity and progression.

- The materials will have normally been tried and tested before publication.

- It is usually attractive and appealing to the eye.

• It continually practices language items previously introduced.

• The teacher's book offers many good ideas for the inexperienced teacher.

Disadvantages of a course book

• It does not always fit the specific needs and interests of all the class members.

• The students may not like the book and might be reluctant to use it.

• Exclusive use of a course book can become very predictable and boring for the students.

• It can make teachers lazy and stop them from being creative and searching for activities and materials which will motivate and interest their students.

• A course book is almost always a compromise.

• Most course books on the market are designed for use by all nationalities and may not cover in enough depth language problems specific to the nationality of students that you are teaching.

• Teachers rarely get to choose the course book and many can be outdated and unattractive to your students.

• Course books dictate what is to be taught. This can stop teachers analyzing particular problems that their students may have and prevent the lessons from being student centered.

How to make best use of the course book

- If you have the choice of course book, look at a range that could be used for your group. Which is the most suitable?

- Do not use the course book for the whole lesson.

- When planning your lessons, think about which items will motivate your students and which need to be supplemented/adapted/replaced.

- Think about how much time will be needed for each task and create a balanced lesson.

- Explore ways to match the book to the needs of the students.

- Approach the book critically: Read the teacher's book, but also do your own research into the language, and look for difficulties not highlighted by the authors.

- Don't base all lessons around the course book. Look at what your particular students need too.

- Don't regard the course book as the solution to everything. Try out new ideas and vary your activities.

Four different options for course book use

1. – Omit. Teachers may decide to omit certain lessons from the course book if they are not beneficial or relevant to their students. Care is needed though, because if the teacher omits too much, then the students might wonder why they bought the book in the first place!

2. – Replace. Instead of omitting unsuitable material, the teacher may choose to replace it with similar, but more appropriate, material.

3. - Supplement. At times the teacher might want to add extra material to the course book to reinforce a language point, or to extend the students' engagement with the language.

4. – Adapt. This is where the teacher will use the same basic materials but in his/her own way and style.

Course Books and Materials

Analyzing a course book

If the teacher is fortunate enough to be able to choose the course book for a particular class, he/she will probably need to analyze and consider the following factors:

• Price. How expensive is the book in relation to the income levels of the students/area?

• Availability. Are the books readily available in the local area? Do the books allow for progression through various levels? Are supplements available?

• Design. Is the book attractive? Will the teacher and students feel comfortable with it? Is it user friendly?

• Methodology. Is there a good balance between study and activation? Does it readily allow for ESA style lessons?

• Skills. Is there an appropriate mix and balance of skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking)?

• Difficulty. Is the level of language right for your students?

• Syllabus. Does the book cover the right language points for the level? Does it progress in difficulty for the level? Does the syllabus constantly review previously taught language items?

• Topic. Are the topics relevant, varied and interesting for your students?

• Teacher's guide. Does the teacher's book provide you with all the help, information and answers that you require?

• What ancillary materials are there – student workbooks, audio cassettes, videos, CDs, etc.?

Have a look through the materials you have received so far. Imagine that they are part of a course book, and that you are a teacher of elementary English students visiting your home city. How does this course book match the above criteria?

Teaching Special Groups

So far, we have looked at teaching groups of adult students of general English. Sooner or later however, you are likely to come across other forms of teaching which may require slightly different skills. In this unit, we will look at these more specialized groups.

●*Teaching Beginners*

The term "beginner" tends to strike fear into the hearts of inexperienced teachers. However, many teachers claim that teaching beginners is one of the most rewarding and enjoyable aspects of EFL teaching.

Because the term "beginner" has such a range of connotations, it is often helpful to think in terms of categories of beginner. Bear in mind that these terms aren't mutually exclusive and that many students will fall into two or even three categories:

- The absolute beginner – students who have no English at all.

- The false beginner – students may have studied or been exposed to English previously but have not retained much language. They will probably be able to produce a few simple structures.

- The adult beginner – adult beginners will often have made their own decision to learn English and as a result will usually be highly motivated.

- The young beginner – younger beginners often lack motivation as they haven't usually made the choice to study and cannot see the benefit of learning the language. Younger beginners do tend to pick language up far more easily than their adult equivalents.

- The beginner without Roman alphabet – such students will need a lot of initial work on basic literacy skills. A lot of reading and writing practice is necessary.

30 Top Tips for teaching beginners
(Some are more important than others!)

Methodology and techniques

1. Teaching beginners requires special skills and psychology.

2. Be aware of your students' needs.

3. Have clear and realistic aims – don't try to do too much too quickly.

4. Adapt to suit your situation.

5. Arrange the classroom.

6. Be as visual as possible.

7. Take care with your board work.

8. Control your language.

9. Give clear, simple instructions.

10. Pace your classes.

11. Use choral repetition.

12. Use pair and group work.

13. Ask lots of questions.

14. Encourage students to speak English in class as much as possible.

15. Don't use the students' mother tongue even if you know it.

16. Revise constantly.

17. Homework is important.

Possible problems

18. What can you do with a mix of real and false beginners? Even false beginners will need to practice more basic structures, too.

19. How can you help weaker students? Pair them with stronger students. Give them extra work to allow them to catch up.

20. What if you cannot get through the material? Don't rush through it. Save it for next time or for revision purposes. The most common mistake teachers make is going too quickly.

21. What if you run out of material in a lesson? Don't!! If it happens though, simple revision and review activities can be used as fillers.

22. What if students cannot understand the tape/CD? Play it again. Listening skills take time to develop and students should gain as much exposure to different accents and speech patterns as possible. If the students still can't understand after a number of listenings, the teacher can give out the tape/CD script (usually found at the back of the course book) or read it out more slowly. This should be the final option.

Motivation

23. Do not over-correct.

24. Do not have the book open all the time.

25. Be sensitive to your students.

26. Respond to your students as individuals.

27. Create a relaxed and supportive atmosphere.

28. Praise and encourage.

29. Focus on what is easy, not what is difficult.

30. Explain your methods.

•*Teaching Individual Students*

In recent years, the EFL industry has seen a large increase in demand for one-to-one lessons, particularly in the business world. Students feel that the course can be more specifically geared towards their own needs and wants than a group course could.

Individual lessons also have a number of advantages for the teacher: no mixed levels, usually highly motivated students, needs can be clearly defined, developing a close relationship with the students, etc. Teaching individuals can have drawbacks, however, and almost all teachers comment upon the loss of classroom dynamics and tiredness. Obviously, as there is only one student, some activities become impossible to do. One-on-one lessons are usually less formal, and the teacher will often be the partner of the student, helping/prompting/working with him/her.

Suggestions

• At the initial meeting, complete a needs analysis form (see page 15).

• Find out the students' specific language problems.

• Exchange telephone numbers (one-on-one lessons are notorious for cancellations).

• Maximize on the students' interests and experience.

• Use a variety of activities and techniques.

• Find out about any practical problems that could interfere with the lesson: workload, location, etc.

• Sometimes, students say that they only want conversation.
Free conversation is fine for a portion of the lesson, but not for all of it. Guided conversation, vocabulary building based on a topic or theme, or material based on grammatical problems experienced by the student, should constitute the rest of the lesson. Even though there may be little or no reading or writing involved, there is still an objective to the lesson and the student gets practice in conversation, goes over old material and learns new things as well.

• Try and arrange a combination of what the student wants and what you think she/ he needs.

Suitable activities for one-on-one students in addition to course book material

- short stories
- articles from newspapers , magazines etc
- horoscopes
- quizzes, e.g., Are you in the right job?
- idioms
- taboo words – see Michael Swan's Practical English Usage. This is often requested by various students – when they travel abroad, they want to know if people are being polite or swearing at them!
- discuss relevant, topical news items
- personal history, e.g. their family, education, etc.
- listening, e.g., telephoning, different accents (especially foreigners speaking English)
- various relevant topics, e.g., age differences, cultural differences, women's equality
- goal-orientated activities
- pronunciation – perhaps record the student and replay and concentrate on the most obvious mistakes. Perhaps listen and take notes on any mistakes made and highlight and correct later. Also work on intonation.
- postcards – about a topic, e.g., art, architecture – either ask the student to bring her/his favorite postcard or discuss the ones you have taken to the lesson
- conduct the individual lesson like a group lesson, with grammar points, vocabulary and some conversation
- videos
- music, e.g., a pop quiz
- phrasal verbs
- photographs, e.g., family, friends – the student's and yours
- recipes, e.g., ask the student to tell you how to make your/their favorite local dish and practice vocabulary for food and using imperatives

Homework

Some teachers give students homework every lesson, and some students cannot cope with homework because of pressure of work/other studies. Sometimes, teachers give the student a newspaper article to read before the next lesson. Students often enjoy reading English books, and swap books with the teacher and then discuss the plot, style, etc.

Sometimes, teachers ask students to prepare a short oral presentation on a topic of the student's choice, or one that has arisen during other work in the course.

Checking

- If you are using a newspaper article, pre-read and prepare any potentially difficult vocabulary and structures.

- If the passage is long, number either the lines or the paragraphs for easy reference.

- Prepare a gap–fill or comprehension questions about the article.

- Over prepare - always take too much material to the lesson – you can always use it in a subsequent lesson. Individual students do tend to get through materials more quickly than groups.

Teaching Children

It is perhaps fair to say that teaching children can be one of the most rewarding of all student classes to teach. Children possess an innate curiosity, which is in itself a motivating factor.

From an early age, children are accustomed to listening to their parents and other family members patiently repeating single words while the child focuses on real objects, people or activities taking place. The parents talk about the child's daily routine and its surroundings repeatedly. The parents may chant, sing or play rhythmic language games such as "Patty Cake," etc. The child's early efforts at speaking are greeted with excitement while mistakes are not only overlooked but also enjoyed and imitated.

Some features of the parent's or other's speech might include the following:

- a slower and more clearly pronounced delivery,

- use of a higher pitch and exaggerated intonation,

- lots of repetition,

- reference to the child itself, its current activity or its subject of focus at the time of speaking,

- positive responses to the child's utterances irrespective of pronunciation detail.

We can see that by patient repetition, positive encouragement and frequent praise the child develops a sense of self-esteem and is less self-conscious about potential mistakes. This is an essential part of the language-growth process.

We can move from the early formative years to the child in the classroom. While the professional teacher will be aware of the concepts mentioned above, some other aspects come into play in the classroom environment. We have already mentioned the "curiosity" factor, but at the same time, a child's span of attention or concentration is much less than that of an adult. Children will also often seek teacher approval. It is important for children that the teacher notices them and shows signs of appreciation for what they are doing.

Children need frequent changes of activities, which are exciting and fun to stimulate their curiosity. They generally have short attention spans and get bored easily if they just have to sit and listen or if activities drag on for too long.

The teacher's role is of primary importance here, because the children will look to the teacher for guidance, and it is unlikely that they will have any motivational considerations outside of that provided by the teacher. Basically, keep it fun, varied and at a good pace. Try always to relate activities to the childrens' own interests.

In the classroom

The classroom in which children are taught has its own dynamic, irrespective of the physical conditions in which the teacher finds himself/herself. It is always possible, with a little imagination to make the classroom environment a pleasant and welcoming place. For example, it is possible to improve the classroom environment with posters, cartoons, children's own artwork, etc. A cold, grey, institutional–type environment can have a very negative effect on motivation.   Most of these comments are also true for adults, too!

The lesson

Some do's and don'ts for teaching children:

- Always use English as the language of instruction.
- Don't cheat by using their native language. It removes the motivation, i.e., "If I wait long enough, I will hear it in my own language, so why make the effort to understand?"
- Do speak slowly, in short and direct sentences.
- Do act out meaning using props/objects/picture cards or gestures.
- Do give clear demonstrations of the response you require.
- Don't put an individual child "on the spot" to produce language or a response.   It simply increases the child's anxiety level and lessens their language learning capacity.
- Do be prepared to make fun of yourself, by use of mime/gesture, etc. Children like to see adults behaving in a silly way. It enhances their own self-perception, and it is also fun!
- Be prepared to come down to the physical level (i.e., height) of the children, by squatting next to their table or chair, or by sitting with them on the floor.

Class discipline /management

Children, by definition, have high energy levels, and it is inevitable that from time to time the teacher may have to deal with disruptive behavior. As with all students, the mood of the class and the individuals within that class will be determined by many external factors. For example: family life, peer/group associations,individual personality traits, etc.

It may therefore be useful to take account of the following comment: The behavior and attitude/personality of the teacher is perhaps the single most important factor in a classroom and can thus have a major effect on discipline.

Before considering how to discipline, we need to think about some of the reasons why such problems may arise. Some are given on the following page:

- Problems at home/outside the classroom. There is not too much you can do about this. The best thing you can do if you feel this is the case, is to make your school's administration aware of the problem and let them follow it up.

- Attention seeking. Try giving the student the attention he/she craves. Make him/her your assistant (to hand out copies, clean the board, etc),

or group leader and involve him/her as much as possible.

• Peer pressure. Try changing the dynamics of the classroom by changing the seating arrangement or by mixing up pairs/groups.

• Boredom. This is usually the teacher's fault and the major cause of discipline problems! Make your lessons fun, varied, lively, involving and interesting. Don't let activities go on for too long.

• Lack of consistency from the teacher. Always be consistent and fair. Treat each student the same.

Bear in mind that it is much easier to start off firmer and gradually relax control than it is to regain control when it has been lost.

Some don'ts to bear in mind

• Don't be inconsistent. Children are very sensitive to unfairness.

• Don't issue threats. Teachers who threaten terrible punishment and don't carry them out are doing both the class and themselves a disservice.

• Don't raise your voice. It is counter-productive and merely generates antagonism.

• Don't have "favorites" in the class.

• Don't break the code. If the class is supposed to arrive on time, then so should you.

• Never threaten or inflict physical violence.

• Make yourself familiar with the codes of conduct/discipline of the institution in which you are teaching and don't exceed them. If you don't like them, don't take the job in the first place!

To summarize, teachers of children should be especially aware of the life-continuum. They are in the position of "In Loco Parentis" and should therefore be aware of all the duties and responsibilities that that entails.

Educational psychologists have used the metaphor of a bath sponge to illustrate the capacity of children to absorb language input, and when pressed lightly the input is reproduced without any apparent relevance to lexical or grammatical rules. However, you shouldn't assume that learning is a direct consequence of teaching.

Despite potential discipline problems, many teachers find teaching young learners to be the most rewarding of all their language teaching experiences.

●*Business English/ English for Specific Purposes (ESP)*

A growing amount of English teaching worldwide is to business people. It involves an increasing amount of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), for example teaching hotel staff the type of language that will be useful to them professionally, or teaching the language of law to lawyers. However, while these specialist areas are still developing, it is still more likely that you will find yourself teaching general English to professional people or teaching business content and skills through the medium of English to pre-professionals.

A lot of teachers have initial fears about teaching "Business English" arguing they have no experience in the field. While knowledge of business is very useful, it is definitely not a prerequisite to teaching English to business people. It is more a case of adapting to a different approach from the one you would use if you were teaching a general English class in the school. The type of language that learners need is often in areas such as telephoning, introductions, presentations, etc. Remember that you are not there to teach them to be business people (they already are!) but to teach them English.

Teaching can take place in a number of ways:

• One-on-one. Teaching one-on-one requires a different approach to working with a group.

• In-company group. An in-company group may study before work starts, during the day or after work.

• In-school group. A group of business people from the same company or from different companies may come to a language school to study.

For all of the above, "clients" (a common term when referring to learners from a company) may study intensively or over a longer period of time.

Clients

The type of clients you are likely to meet can vary immensely. Ages can range from early 20s to mid-50s, and quite often, the older generation has had little or no previous language learning experience. Younger learners not only tend to pick things up more quickly, but they have usually learned some English at school. Often groups are small, around four to six, although you may get groups of up to 12 and of course one-on-one.

One of the problems of teaching business people is that they are often tired. If you are teaching them in the evening after they have been working all day (in some cases from as early as 7:00 am), it is unreasonable to expect to cover the same amount of material as you would normally do. You may have to compromise and make the material less challenging, or cut down on input. In extreme cases, you may even have to dispense with your lesson plan altogether and turn it into a conversation class.

Attendance is sometimes sporadic with company courses and, if the course is at the company, there is always a chance your clients may be pulled out of a lesson at any time. Homework may also be difficult for them due to pressure of work, family, etc.

Another of the problems you will come across is the diversity of levels within a group. Groups are often put together according to job type or for economic reasons, not necessarily according to language ability.

In such cases, you need to challenge the stronger learners, so they don't get bored and at the same time try not to lose the weaker ones. A secretary may well be in the same group as his/her boss, and you have to be careful not to make him/her look foolish in front of his/her employees. Group dynamics are very important.

Not all learners will be motivated to study English, although the vast majority will be. A number of them will have been "required" to learn. Failure to do so could well result in them losing their job or not getting a promotion. Commonly, lessons are held outside work hours and eat into the client's free time. Motivation can depend on the attitude and support of the company itself as well as the enjoyment level of the class.

The balance of business people learning English is pretty evenly split between men and women, although this obviously varies from company to company and country to country.

Teaching Special Groups

What they need

Before you can begin any course, you have to find out what the students want and what they need. There is often a difference. You also have to balance the clients' wants and needs with those of the company.

A lot of business people still need basic grounding in English rather than anything too specific. This doesn't mean you cannot draw on their own work environment to make the course relevant to them. Often they will know the terminology and vocabulary directly related to their work but are unable to put it into a proper sentence or do not know how to use it. You need to have a general understanding of the client's job, this will help you to understand the areas of English that the students require.

Needs analysis and planning the course

After initially testing your clients to get an idea of their level, your next step should be to give them a "needs analysis." This can be in the form of a written questionnaire for the clients to complete or simply an informal chat with the clients and/or training manager. An example Needs Analysis is shown on the following page.

A written questionnaire to be filled in by both you and the client will ideally include not only the client's details and past learning experience, but will also ask clients to identify specific objectives of the course and get them to prioritize them. For example, Ms. Horvath, a marketing manager, may want to prepare herself for a presentation of her company's new product at an international sales conference.

It is a good idea to include a "Needs Negotiation" session in the Day 1 Lesson Plan (plus time for introductions and some language input, e.g., question forms and an intonation/diagnostic activity to test for skills fluency and language gaps). Explain to the group the rationale behind the Needs Negotiation and that, although you have their details individually, the group as a whole needs to establish priorities. Being able to discuss the course content sometimes comes as a surprise to clients who are simply happy to accept what the teacher gives them, thinking the teacher knows best. It can be, therefore, difficult to get clients to define their own needs. The "needs analysis" may take place in the learner's native language and be translated if the clients are of a very low level.

A needs negotiation session should include:

• getting each participant to state (1) precisely what they use English for in their jobs and (2) what they will need it for in the future;

• a feedback session where everyone shares this information publicly;

• a discussion of the findings and agreement on common needs, and

• telling them you will give them a plan next lesson with as much attention to individual needs as possible, but obviously focusing on overlaps.

NEEDS ANALYSIS FOR A BUSINESS ENGLISH STUDENT

Name:

Company Name:

Department/section:

What is your job?

What are your responsibilities?

In which areas of English do you want most practice?

Speaking   Listening   Reading
Writing   Grammar   Vocabulary

What do you need to do in English?
(tick the relevant activities and give the information requested)

Give presentations	Who do you give them to? What are they about? How often do you do this in English?
Negotiate	What about? Who with? How often do you do this in English?
Make telephone calls	Who to? What about? How often do you do this in English?

Write letters/faxes/ reports, etc.	What about? How often do you do this in English?
Show visitors around	Who? What are they interested in? How often do you do this in English?
Take part in meetings	What about? How often do you do this in English?
Describe technical processes	What? How often do you do this in English?
Explain figures/graphs etc.	What are they about? How often do you do this in English?
Socialize with clients	Where? How often do you do this in English?
Anything else?	What? And how often?

What areas do you feel weakest in and what are your priorities for study on this course?

Have you ever studied English before? Where and how long?

Have you ever visited England/U.S.A/Canada/Australia/New Zealand?

(The form on this and the previous page is intended for use with business English students. It can and should, of course, be adapted to your student.)

Planning the program

After the pre-course assessment of needs and ability from the questionnaire responses and negotiation with the group, begin listing suitable situations, language and published materials, e.g.:

Situation/topic	Language	Material
1. Socializing with clients	Offers, requests, small talk	In at the Deep End (Unit 16)
2. Presentations	Introducing oneself, dealing with questions	Business Objectives (Unit 1)

Having given your group a draft timetable for the next lessons, usually covering the first 15-20 hours (don't plan too far ahead), you need to demonstrate the relevance of each activity/topic to their individual needs.

Stress that the timetable is flexible, and extra needs should be stated as the course goes on. Any individual whose needs are not satisfied within the program (e.g., only one student might need business letter practice) can be catered for by encouraging extra self-study. However long the course is, recap on objectives, highlight the aims of each activity, evaluate progress and ask for feedback.

Mid-course evaluation

About halfway through the course, set some work that participants can do individually. Take each student out for five minutes to elicit their reactions so far and their needs for the remainder of the course. This gives credibility to your claim to take individual needs seriously and gives you a double check on how the learners feel about the course.

Materials

There is an abundance of material on the market for teaching business English and a lot is now widely available worldwide. This varies from general business English books to very specific books, for example, English for Banking. A high proportion of these also come with accompanying tapes. A number of videos specifically made for teaching business people are now available and, although quite expensive, can add variety to a course.

Authentic materials are invaluable when teaching business groups. Anything you can obtain from the company – e.g., faxes, letters, company reports, and publicity material – will prove very useful. Other sorts of authentic material, such as articles from business magazines and newspapers, are always good sources. World-wide there is now also a wide variety of magazines such as The Economist, as well as the local English language papers. Finally, the students themselves are an invaluable source of material.

Note that any material presented to your students should ideally be typed and professional looking. It is a good idea to hole-punch it first, so they can add it to their file.

Things to consider

Before you begin

Find out as much as you can about the company. What do they do? Who are their competitors? If you are teaching at the company, find out how you get there, who you should meet, what facilities they have (e.g., whiteboard, chalkboard, tape recorder, etc.), what the contact telephone number and address is, etc.

On arrival

On the first day, take everything you need (photocopies, board pens, etc.) – better to be over-prepared than under! It is also worth allowing yourself plenty of time to find the company on the first day; punctuality is important. Don't bank on there being a tape recorder/CD player.

Dress the part. At least until you learn the appropriate dress code, wear formal smart clothes. However good your teaching, you will initially be judged on your appearance as a representative of your school.

If you speak the local language, use the formal language form when you greet the staff initially. Take your cue from them.

It is always worthwhile establishing a good relationship with the reception and administration staff. They can be very helpful with facilities and organizational necessities.

During the course

Keep a record of attendance, material covered, details of lessons cancelled, any problems (e.g., lateness). Always tell your employer if clients want to reschedule lessons or change the program in any way.

Never gossip about the participants to other people in the company. Casual remarks made to other students or the reception staff have a tendency to get distorted and to rebound on you.

Use the opportunity to make the course relevant by seeing the students at work and using examples of faxes/letters/telephone calls they send or receive.

After the course

You will probably be asked to write a post-course report that should be done promptly. This will normally include details of course content, student evaluation, test/attendance percentages, plus suggestions for further study. Remember, companies have high expectations and usually pay more than individuals for their courses.

The Monolingual and the Multilingual Class

In a multilingual class, the students are from various different nationalities. Such classes are normally found in countries where English is the native language, and the students are either residing there, or are there specifically for the purpose of learning English.

As students in multilingual classes are from different countries, they have no common language except English. This can be an advantage for teachers, as the students are forced to communicate with each other in English and not their native language. It can also be an advantage that students from different countries bring a greater variety of culture and ideas to the classroom. As students are usually studying in an English-speaking country, they also get more exposure to and opportunity to use the language.

Monolingual classes usually take place in the students' home country and cannot offer the same advantages as multilingual classes. However, as the students all have the same language, it is likely that they will all have the same kind of difficulties with English, whereas students from different countries are likely to have very different language problems and difficulties. Also, as their cultural background is the same or similar, the teacher is able to identify certain topics that would be of interest to the group.

Avoiding the use of the mother tongue in the classroom

You can make it easier for students to use English by

- describing your rationale clearly and getting their support from the beginning,

- deciding where you place yourself in the classroom. The groups nearest you are more likely to use English than those further away. So take an interest in what each group is doing and move around so that groups have less chance of switching back to their own language.

- monitoring more overtly: for example, by having a pen and paper in your hand.

- making the work task-oriented. If the final product has to be in English, whether it is a story, a film review or just answering comprehension questions, a greater use of English is ensured.

- keeping speaking activities short until the students have more confidence and increased fluency. It is better to have a shorter time than is strictly necessary than having time to spare at the end of group work.

- making sure that the students have the English to do what you ask. You might find it helpful to start off with very structured activities after you have taught some essential words and expressions, so students are not at a loss for words.

- starting with "open" pair work (a dialogue in front of the class) as a model for the "closed" pair work (every pair working simultaneously).

- assigning roles. If everyone knows what he or she must do, they are more likely to do it in English. You might consider giving someone the role of "language monitor" - someone to make sure English is used in the group – or "evaluator" - someone who will report back on the performance of the group overall, including their use of English and of their mother tongue.

Finally, don't be too concerned if your students resort to their mother tongue in group work or pair work activities. Sometimes, it saves time in the long run, as when they are clarifying instructions before they begin the task. It is worth remembering that if you are doing group work as an alternative to whole class work, then even if only two people are using English simultaneously, you have doubled the amount of student talk for that time.

Troubleshooting

In this unit, we will look at some of the most common problem situations that teachers can encounter in the classroom and also suggest ways of dealing with them.

First lessons

In each new teaching position, a teacher will be faced with meeting a number of new classes for the first time. These classes are vital for the teacher to establish rapport with the students and set the tone for the rest of the course. Such classes can fall into two categories:

- **New group –** in this kind of group, the students don't know each other, and some work will be needed to establish rapport between the class members. Students may be unfamiliar with EFL methodology.

- **Existing group –** in an existing group, the students are already likely to know and be comfortable with each other and familiar with EFL teaching.

When faced with a first lesson, the experienced teacher will not resort to the course book but will try to use activities that will achieve the following:

- Establish rapport between the students (in the case of a new group) and also between the teacher and the class.

- Find out about the students. This will allow the teacher to be able to plan future lessons to cater to the students' interests.

- Find out about the students' needs/aspirations with English. This enables the teacher to tailor the course to meet the needs of the class.

- Find out the English level of each individual class member. Areas of difficulty with the language can be built into the course syllabus.

- Questionnaire/survey – The teacher can let the students interview each other using a pre-set questionnaire and then feed back to the class. This will allow the students to get to know about each other. If the teacher monitors the activity closely, he/she will also learn a lot about the students' level of ability in the English language.

- A similar type of activity is "Tell us about" which is a board game in Keep Talking (a very useful communicative activities book by Friederike Klippell). Students roll a dice, move their counter to the corresponding square and tell the class about the topic on that square.

- Pass the ball game. The teacher tosses a soft ball to one of the students and asks him/her a question. That student answers the question, tosses the ball to another student and asks that student a question, etc. As with the other activities, it is a good idea for the teacher to take part too. That way the students find out information about the teacher too, helping to establish rapport.

- Needs analysis. This was discussed in a previous unit with relation to individual students and business English.

Warmers

Imagine you are a language student. It's early on a grey, cold Monday morning as you arrive at class. Your teacher then says "Good morning. Let's do the future continuous tense". It's hardly going to inspire and motivate you, is it? That's what warmers are for. They are usually short, fun, communicative activities designed to get students motivated and using English.

Typical warmer ideas include the following:

- Hangman. Can be used as a revision tool for vocabulary already learnt or to introduce new words.

- Pictionary. Usage as above.

- Tongue twisters. Good for pronunciation of problem sounds. "e the "r" and "l" sound present problems.

• Memory games. For example, one student starts with "Yesterday, I went swimming," the next student would say "Yesterday, I went swimming and played football," and so on.

There are many other such activities that can be used. It's important to make them fun but short. You will find that they really help in getting students warmed up and in the mood for English. They are especially useful if they can be linked in to the Study phase of the lesson. There are some more ideas for warmers in the supplementary materials section of this manual.

Different levels

One of the biggest problems that teachers face is a group where the students are at varying levels. If the school has a competent entrance level testing procedure, the chances of this happening will be reduced but not prevented totally. Some students learn more quickly than others and in classes that started at the same level, gaps can start to appear. There are a number of ways that the teacher can deal with this:

• Use different materials. Where the difference in ability is wide, the teacher may wish to split the students into two groups (one with the stronger students and the other with the weaker class members).
The teacher can give different materials to each group, appropriate to their level. If the materials are based around the same themes, then the class can be brought back together at other stages. Obviously, the teacher needs to be able to be a bit of a "juggler" with dividing time and attention to both groups equally.

• Same material, different tasks. Here the teacher will give the students the same materials but give the stronger students longer, more complicated tasks appropriate to their level.

• Don't do anything. Many teachers prefer to let each student find his/her own level within the class. Such an approach means that the students will be studying and learning the same material and, as a result, the gap in level shouldn't increase. The danger, of course, is that the weaker students might feel frustrated or the stronger ones bored.

• Pair stronger students with weaker ones. Many teachers prefer the strategy of allowing stronger students to assist weaker students. They can help explain and clarify things. Care must be taken to not let the stronger students dominate them and do all of the work, while the weaker students are little more than onlookers.

Experienced teachers will adopt a mix of the above techniques to enable classes to progress more smoothly.

Large classes

Large classes can present the teacher with a number of problems from trying to involve all students equally to classroom control. Despite such problems the teacher can employ a number of techniques to create successful classes.

• Use worksheets. Rather then going through activities with the whole class, hand out worksheets. This way, each student will have participated and gained some benefit.

• Pair/group work. Experienced teachers will use a lot of this to maximize student involvement. Clear instructions are vital with large groups.

• Clarity. Large groups usually mean large classrooms. Try to ensure that your voice and board work is visible/audible to the whole class.

• Choral repetition. Again, this will help get all pupils involved.

• Appoint group leaders. Use them to make classroom management easier. Group leaders can be used to hand out copies, collect work, keep control of the group, etc.

• Dynamics. Large classes are often more dynamic and dramatic. A large number of students equal a greater variety of ideas. Experienced teachers can use this to their advantage and organize humorous, involving classes.

Few teachers would choose large classes over smaller ones, as it makes a difficult job even more challenging. However, most teachers, at some time in their careers, will find themselves dealing with groups of 30 to 100 students. Using some of the above suggestions can make a potentially difficult situation a great deal easier and more enjoyable.

Use of native language

As discussed in the previous unit, the use of the students' native tongue can be problematic in monolingual classes. This is usually not "malicious" but more a case of wanting to communicate something that they feel unable to express in English or wanting to explain something to help another student. However much the teacher may understand and sympathize with this, his/her job is to have the students practicing and improving their English language skills. There are a number of things that the teacher can do in such a situation:

• Make sure the activities you use are at an appropriate level and that the students have the necessary language to cope.

• Make sure your explanations are clear to all class members. They then shouldn't need to clarify or explain to each other in their native language.

• Encourage the use of English where appropriate. This doesn't mean a total ban on their language, but for them to only use it when absolutely necessary and never in a speaking activity!

• Only respond to English. If students try speaking to you in their own language, make sure you don't respond. Students should get used to trying to express their thoughts and ideas in English, even if it isn't grammatically perfect. If you show them that you understand their language, they will try and use it more and more in situations where they could have found a way to express themselves in English.

• Constantly remind the students. Over a period of time the teacher can use encouragement/cajoling/reminding to get the students used to using English in the classroom.

Reluctant students

At some time or another, most teachers will come across students who don't seem to want to talk or participate in class. For some it may be cultural, for others intimidation or confidence issues. In the productive skills unit, we looked at various ways of encouraging students to speak. Following are some other useful ideas:

• Use plenty of pair work. This will allow the students to practice in a safe environment, with the support of a fellow student, before having to contribute in open class discussion/feedback.

• Use controlled practice. Ensure the students are able to produce language in a controlled way before expecting them to be able to produce it fluently.

• Use role-play. Some students find it more comfortable to communicate when they are acting as somebody else than when they are being themselves. Role-plays are very helpful in this respect.

• Use a tape recorder. Ask the students to record what they would like to say outside the lesson. This allows the student to express themselves in a less threatening atmosphere. The teacher can listen to the recording and point out errors.

Difficulties with listening texts

This seems to be a problem that is common to students of nearly every nationality. As a result, many teachers then avoid using cassettes. This is not acceptable, and the teacher should work with the students to help improve their listening skills. Refer back to receptive skills unit for further tips on dealing with this problem. First of all though, make sure it is a problem with listening skills and not just the poor quality of the tape, or the volume being too low, etc.

Another common problem the teacher is often faced with is what to do when one or two students have finished tasks, yet others may be only part way through. Do we go at the speed of the quickest? The slowest? Most teachers take the 'common sense' view that we should carry out the lesson at the pace of the majority of the class.

If we keep a selection of extra activities/materials, we can then make sure the quicker students have something to do and don't become bored. Another solution is to plan other activities for the same materials and if some students finish early, they can do extra work on it. Word searches are convenient and often popular materials to keep handy for quick finishers.

Appendix

Common terminology

If you have been doing any research on English language teaching, you will have probably come across a variety of acronyms that are commonly used. A brief explanation follows:

TEFL – Teaching English as a Foreign Language. This term is predominantly used when English is being taught in a country where it isn't the native language (for example teaching English to Spanish people in Spain).

TESL – Teaching English as a Second Language. This is where English is being taught to non-native speakers of English in a country where it is the native language (for example teaching emigrants to the UK/USA).

TESOL - Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. This term theoretically encompasses both of the above.

ELT – English Language Teaching. This is mainly used by institutions in the UK.

EYL – English for Young learners. A common term used for teaching children.

ESP- English for Specific Purposes. This refers to teaching specialist and specific areas of business English, for example English for International Banking and Finance.

These are the major terms used but expect to come across many more during your teaching career!

Recommended reading

The following books have been found useful by many teachers, during both their TEFL course and teaching careers:

Practical English Grammar, by A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet (OUP).

English Grammar in Use, by Raymond Murphy (CUP).

Practical English Usage, by M. Swan (OUP).

Collins Cobuild English Dictionary (Collins).

How English Works, by Swan/Walter (OUP).

How to Teach English, by Jeremy Harmer (Longman).

More Grammar Games, by Rinvolucri and Davis (CUP).

Grammar Practice Activities, by Penny Ur (CUP).

Grammar Games and Activities, by Peter Watcyn-Jones (Penguin).

The Resourceful English Teacher, by Chandler/Stone (Delta).

It is certainly not essential to have all (or any) of the above. However, we would particularly recommend the books by Swan and Harmer.

Introduction to Grammar
Parts of Speech

Grammar is an area of English that strikes fear into the hearts of both students and teachers, but when viewed from a logical angle, it should not present too many difficulties. As native speakers of the English language, this is something that we probably were not taught at school. Despite using grammar perfectly in our natural, everyday speech, we are often unaware of what we actually use or why we use it!

Unless you spend your entire career teaching kindergarten and very young children, the odds are that sooner or later you are going to find yourself having to teach English grammar. This task is made much easier and stress free if you actually understand a bit yourself!!

No teacher is expected to be a walking grammar reference book and know absolutely everything, but if you do not know anything, you are likely to lose the confidence of your students. This course does not claim to provide complete coverage of the entire grammatical system, but does include all of the most commonly needed areas that you are likely to find yourself teaching in the years to come. For more complete grammar reference tools have a look at the suggested reading material from your introductory unit.

For the purpose of this course, we assume a zero level of knowledge and build on that. If you already know a bit, then it will certainly make life easier and you may get through some of the grammar units more quickly.

The simplest form of structure is the basic sentence.

A sentence must consist of at least a subject and verb but will usually feature more words than this. Each word in a sentence can be classified according to its purpose and the meaning it adds. This is what we refer to as parts of speech.

For example, a simple sentence such as "The black cat sat on the mat," consists of a number of words, each of which plays a role in the sentence and can be classified as detailed below:

The – definite article
black – adjective
cat – noun
sat – verb
on – preposition
the – definite article
mat – noun

We can go into more detail if we wish (for example by stating that 'sat' is the past simple verb form).

This first grammar unit is primarily concerned with recognizing and classifying these parts of speech.

Happy studying!

UNIT 1 │ NOUNS

Usage

A noun names people, places, things, qualities, ideas.

Main Types

- **Common**
  log, person, chair (no capital letter)

- **Proper**
  Stephen, Italy, America (Always with a capital letter)

- **Compound**
  post office, textbook, car park, bookcase, classroom, suitcase
  (two nouns joined to make a new noun)

- **Abstract**
  Beauty, intelligence, democracy. (Something we experience as an idea, and cannot touch.)

- **Collective**
  family, flock, herd, jury, committee (name of a group of individuals as if they were one)

Plurals

Plurals are usually created by adding an **s**. If the noun ends in ch, sh, x, s, we usually add **es**.
For example: cats, beds, watches, wishes, boxes, buses.

A noun that ends in a consonant plus y, the y will usually change to an i then add es.
For example: family – families.

A noun ending in an f will usually replace the f with a v and then add es.
For example thief – thieves. Note that there are exceptions, such as brief – briefs.

Exceptions

- tooth – teeth
- child – children
- man – men

These are just some of the common examples. There are other exceptions such as sheep where the noun doesn't change between singular and plural.

Countable nouns

- Things that can be counted
- They can be preceded by articles a/an/the, and used in the plural
- a car, an egg, the table, the pigs

Uncountable nouns

- Things that cannot be counted
- They do not have a or an in front of them, and cannot be used in the plural
- music, advice, rice, bread, water, information

NOTE

Some nouns can be countable and uncountable depending on the sense in which they are used.

We have a chicken in the fridge. (one whole bird)
There is chicken on the menu tonight. (We cannot state exactly how much chicken.)

Whether a noun is countable or uncountable can have an effect on other parts of the sentence. For example, you can say, "I don't have much money," but you cannot say "I don't have many money." That is because **much** is used with uncountable nouns while **many** is used with countable. Other similar expressions include **a little** and a **few.**

UNIT 2 │ ADJECTIVES

We use adjectives to describe nouns such as people and things, or to say how a person or thing… *is, seems, becomes, looks, feels, sounds, tastes, or smells.*

If you describe your home town to yourself, you would probably come up with words such as *big/small, clean/dirty, modern/ancient, expensive/cheap, etc.*

These are all adjectives as they describe a place.

It is worth pointing out at this stage that adjectives are often confused with adverbs that describe "how" things are done or happen. Compare these two sentences:

1) He looked angry to me. This is an adjective as it describes his appearance and not the action.	2) He looked angrily at me. This is an adverb as it describes the verb, in other words the way he looked at me.

Adjectives are often used in clusters or groups of 2 or 3. In this "list form" the last one is separated from the others by "and".
"She is tall, dark, and stunning."

However, now have a look at this example:
"She is a tall, dark, stunning teacher."
Notice that the **and has** disappeared. This is because a noun has ended our list of adjectives.

This little complication brings us neatly on to the next one! And that is, is there any kind of order that these adjectives go in? And if so, what is it? The short answer is that there is an order to them, but it is not exactly written in stone.

As a quick demonstration, imagine a table. Now imagine its *purpose*, (e.g., dining, computer, coffee, etc.). Continue by thinking of its *material*, (wooden, glass, etc.). Then, consider the *color*. Lastly, imagine its *age* (old, new, etc.). Put these together and you should have something like this:
   an old, blue, plastic, dining table.

Now, you have one basic rule
   • age + colour + material + purpose + NOUN

To further complicate matters, another rule is that we mention first the quality that we wish to highlight or indicate as important. So let's try another. Think of a noun, then two or three suitable adjectives for that noun. For example, my chosen noun is student. And my adjectives could be intelligent and young. We, therefore, have an intelligent, young student. Here, we are highlighting her intelligence as opposed to her age. Do this 3 or 4 times and try to categorise the adjectives that you've chosen. You should see patterns emerging, such as *opinion, age, NOUN*. Or, *origin/place, pattern, NOUN*.

However, please note that the more books you read on this topic, the more exceptions and differences of opinion you will find. As a guide, we suggest you teach what seems natural to you in the context you're working in. That is to say adjectives for physical description of people, of objects, for personality, clothes, etc.

Comparisons (comparatives and superlatives)

Imagine you have two tall students in your class, but they are not the same height. So to end any argument about who is taller than who, you make them stand against the board, and put a mark above the head of each. Then congratulate one of them and write the following sentence next to his/her mark:

• *Pete is taller than Gary.*

• *Pete is older than Gary.*   • *Gary is younger than Pete.*

Do you see any common pattern? For basic, regular comparisons:

Adjective + 'ER' THAN

Now put the whole class (i.e., more than two people) against the wall, making marks above people's heads. Likewise, ask everyone how old they are. Let's say we now have a range of heights from Sara who is 1.5 m to Pete who is 1.88 m and a range of ages from Gary who is 14 to Mark who is 35. We can now make four superlative sentences.

In our class, Pete is the tallest.
Sara is the shortest in our class.
Gary is the youngest in our class.
In our class, Mark is the oldest.

Again a pattern should be becoming clear for regular superlatives:

THE adjective + 'EST'

It is also important to bear in mind your context; our context before was that of "in our class." It might be "in the world," "in your town," "n your country," etc.

Now, compare the following 2 pairs of sentences

1. Pair 1

a) Elisa is beautifuler than Cecilia.

b) Elisa is more beautiful than Cecilia.

2. Pair 2

a) Elisa is the most beautiful doctor in Porto.

b) Elisa is the beautifulest doctor in Porto.

You should have noticed that two of the above sentences are incorrect! Here you should see that there are other rules besides those mentioned above. Look at the following table and see if you can work out the rules.

Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
handsome	more handsome	the most handsome
funny	funnier	the funniest
late	later	the latest
fat	fatter	the fattest
bad	worse	the worst

Pay great attention to the spelling changes that occur in some of those examples. Answer the following questions:

• Which one needed the extra 'more/most'?

• Which doubled its final consonant?

• Where did a y change to an i?

• Which only got an extra r/st?

1.Adjectives ending with a consonant after a vowel sound form comparatives and superlatives with -er and -est.
For example: neat – neater – neatest, green – greener – greenest, slow – slower – slowest, kind – kinder – kindest, long – longer – longest.

2. Monosyllable adjectives ending with a single consonant after a single or short vowel double the final consonant and add -er and -est.
For example: thin – thinner – thinnest, hot – hotter – hottest.

3. Some adjectives of two syllables – When ending in a "y", we change the "y" to an "i" and add -er, or -est.
For example, happy – happier – happiest, pretty – prettier – prettiest.

4. Monosyllable adjectives ending with a "y" change the "y" to an "i" and add –"er" and "est."
For example: dry, drier, driest. There are only a few such monosyllables.

5. Adjectives which are also past participles of verbs ending in -d, use "more" and "the most."
For example: chilled, more chilled, the most chilled. More on past participles in Section 5 later.

6. Adjectives of two or more syllables where the above rules don't apply – Use "more" and "the most."
For example, beautiful – more beautiful – the most beautiful, modern – more modern – most modern.

UNIT 3 │ ADVERBS

In general, these add meaning or information to the action, quality or state denoted by a verb, hence the name. Adverbs of degree can modify an adjective or another adverb.

There are **five main types** of adverbs:

- **Manner,** e.g., well, hard, slowly, quickly
- **Place,** e.g., above, up, here, there
- **Time,** e.g., now, then, soon, recently
- **Degree,** e.g., very, much, really, quite
- **Frequency,** e.g., once, twice, sometimes, always

Other notable types:

- **Comment/Attitude,** e.g., actually, perhaps, surely, wisely
- **Linking,** e.g., firstly
- **Viewpoint,** e.g., mentally, morally, officially
- **Adding/Limiting,** e.g., also, either, else, only, too

Common mistakes/errors

The most common mistakes and errors lie in spelling and position. But there are some fun ways of getting students used to our conventions.

For instance, there's the all-time classic **Adverb Game** where a student picks an adverb and then a situation and has to mime it according to the adverb.

To reinforce position the students could have a given sentence with a selection of adverbs. First, he/she categorizes them and then places them in the sentence.

An alternative could be to get your students to write a suitable sentence around a given adverb. This can be exchanged with another student who has to justify the choice. You can do this as pair work or team work.

Where do adverbs go in a sentence?

There are 3 types of position. Let's call these Front, Middle, and End. But for each type of adverb, one position is most common.

Type of Adverb	Position	Example
Linking Front	Front	Finally, I'm settled here. I'm not leaving!
Comment/Attitude	Front	Fortunately, everyone else has drunk too much!
Viewpoint	Front	Unofficially, everyone smokes hash!
Adding/limiting	Middle	She also makes a good cup of tea.
Frequency	Middle	They always forget to lock the door.
Time	End	I'll see you tomorrow.
Place	End	Shall I drive you home?
Manner	End	She dances gracefully.
Degree	End	He prepared his speech thoroughly.

Spelling of adverbs

Most are simply formed by adding **ly** to an adjective:
slow – slowly   quick – quickly honest – honestly

As ever, there are exceptions:
tidy – tidily; fast – fast (no change)

UNIT 4 │ PREPOSITIONS / CONJUNCTIONS

Prepositions

Usage

Prepositions show the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and some other word in the sentence. Prepositions can be one of the most difficult grammatical points for both students and teachers alike. The difficulty lies in the fact that there is no uniformity when it comes to preposition placement. However, we can say that there are at least three categories *place, time, and movement.* Certain prepositions can be placed in all categories and others fit in none of them.

Main types

- **Time/date**
  - *at, on, by, before, in, from, since, for, during, to, until, after, about.*
- **Movement**
  - *from, to, in, into, on, onto, by, off, out, through, over.*
- **Place/position**
  - *in, at, on, by, above, over, under, below, beneath, beside, between, near, next to, behind, in front of.*

There are some common prepositions that don't neatly fit into any of the above categories such as of and with.

Conjunctions

Conjunctions join words or groups in a sentence.

They can do two things:

- Join words of the same class, i.e., pairs of nouns/adjectives/adverbs/ verbs/phrases

  - *and, but, or, nor, yet*
  - *also: both…and , either…or, neither…nor, not only….but also*
  - *E.g., He plays squash and rugby.*

I'm young and reckless.
She doesn't drink or smoke.

- Join clauses of sentences

  - *as, as soon as, before, since, until, when, because, although, unless, so, in order that*
  - *E.g., He started work as soon as he arrived.*

  I married her because she's gorgeous.

UNIT 5 | VERBS

A verb is a word that is used with a subject to form the basis of a sentence. Most verbs refer to actions or states.

All verbs are either **transitive or intransitive.**

In order to explain these two terms, we need to know about the subject and object of a sentence. In the sentence "Ann kissed David," Ann is the subject of the sentence, the one "doing the kissing," and David is the object of the sentence, the one who "receives" the kiss.

An intransitive verb is a verb that isn't followed immediately by the direct object of a sentence. Rather than being followed by the object, it is followed by, for example, a preposition. Reply is an intransitive verb. You can't say I replied him, as you have to use the preposition to, for example I replied to him. Another intransitive verb would be sleep. You can't "sleep" anything!

A transitive verb is a verb that is followed directly by an object. A transitive verb such as love isn't followed by a preposition, but instead by the person or thing that the subject of the sentence loves, for example "Ann loves David." Invite is another example of a transitive verb, as it must always be followed by an object. You can't just "invite" – you always need to invite someone!

To complicate matters further, some verbs can be either transitive or intransitive, depending on how they're used:

Transitive	Intransitive
England lost the game.	England lost.
I can't eat this!	Let's eat.
We must leave the form here.	We'd like to leave.
The carpenter watched the apprentice.	The apprentice watched carefully.

There are two other main categories of verbs:

Action verbs – *go, watch, play, eat, walk, etc.*

Note that most action verbs are transitive with certain exceptions such as arrive.

State verbs – *be, seem, appear, feel, etc.*

These verbs are usually intransitive.

The most confusing issue for students with verbs is their use in the formation of tenses (which we will come to later in the course).

English verbs have four principal parts, which will be explained in more detail in later units:

- **base form**
- **past simple**
- **past participle**
- **present participle**

REGULAR VERBS: The past simple and past participle end in –ed			
Base form	**Past simple**	**Past participle**	**Present participle**
hope	hoped	hoped	hoping
stop	stopped	stopped	stopping
study	studied	studied	studying
etc	etc	etc	etc

Some verbs have irregular forms. Unfortunately, many of the most common verbs are irregular, and have no rules as to their formation. Here are just a few examples:

IRREGULAR VERBS: The past simple and past participle do not end in –ed			
Base form	**Past simple**	**Past participle**	**Present participle**
be (am/is/are)	was/were	been	being
beat	beat	beaten	beating
become	became	become	becoming
begin	began	begun	beginning
blow	blew	blown	blowing
break	broke	broken	breaking
bring	brought	brought	bringing
buy	bought	bought	buying
catch	caught	caught	catching
come	came	come	coming
cost	cost	cost	costing
cut	cut	cut	cutting
do	did	done	doing
draw	drew	drawn	drawing
drink	drank	drunk	drinking
drive	drove	driven	driving
eat	ate	eaten	eating
fall	fell	fallen	falling
feel	felt	felt	feeling
find	found	found	finding
fly	flew	flown	flying
forget	forgot	forgotten	forgetting
get	got	got	getting
give	gave	given	giving

go	went	gone	going
grow	grew	grown	growing
hang	hung	hung	hanging
have	had	had	having
hear	heard	heard	hearing
hide	hid	hidden	hiding
hit	hit	hit	hitting
hurt	hurt	hurt	hurting
keep	kept	kept	keeping
know	knew	known	knowing
leave	left	left	leaving
lend	lent	lent	lending
let	let	let	letting
lie	lay	lain	lying
light	lit	lit	lighting
lose	lost	lost	losing
make	made	made	making
meet	met	met	meeting
pay	paid	paid	paying
put	put	put	putting
read	read	read	reading
ride	rode	ridden	riding
ring	rang	rung	ringing
run	ran	run	running
say	said	said	saying
see	saw	seen	seeing
sell	sold	sold	selling
send	sent	sent	sending
show	showed	shown	showing
shut	shut	shut	shutting
sing	sang	sung	singing
sit	sat	sat	sitting
sleep	slept	slept	sleeping
speak	spoke	spoken	speaking
spend	spent	spent	spending

stand	stood	stood	standing
tell	told	told	telling
swim	swam	swum	swimming
take	took	taken	taking
teach	taught	taught	teaching
tell	told	told	telling
think	thought	thought	thinking
throw	threw	thrown	throwing
wake	woke	woken	waking
wear	wore	worn	wearing
win	won	won	winning
write	wrote	written	writing

Imagine the difficulties that the students must have, remembering these!
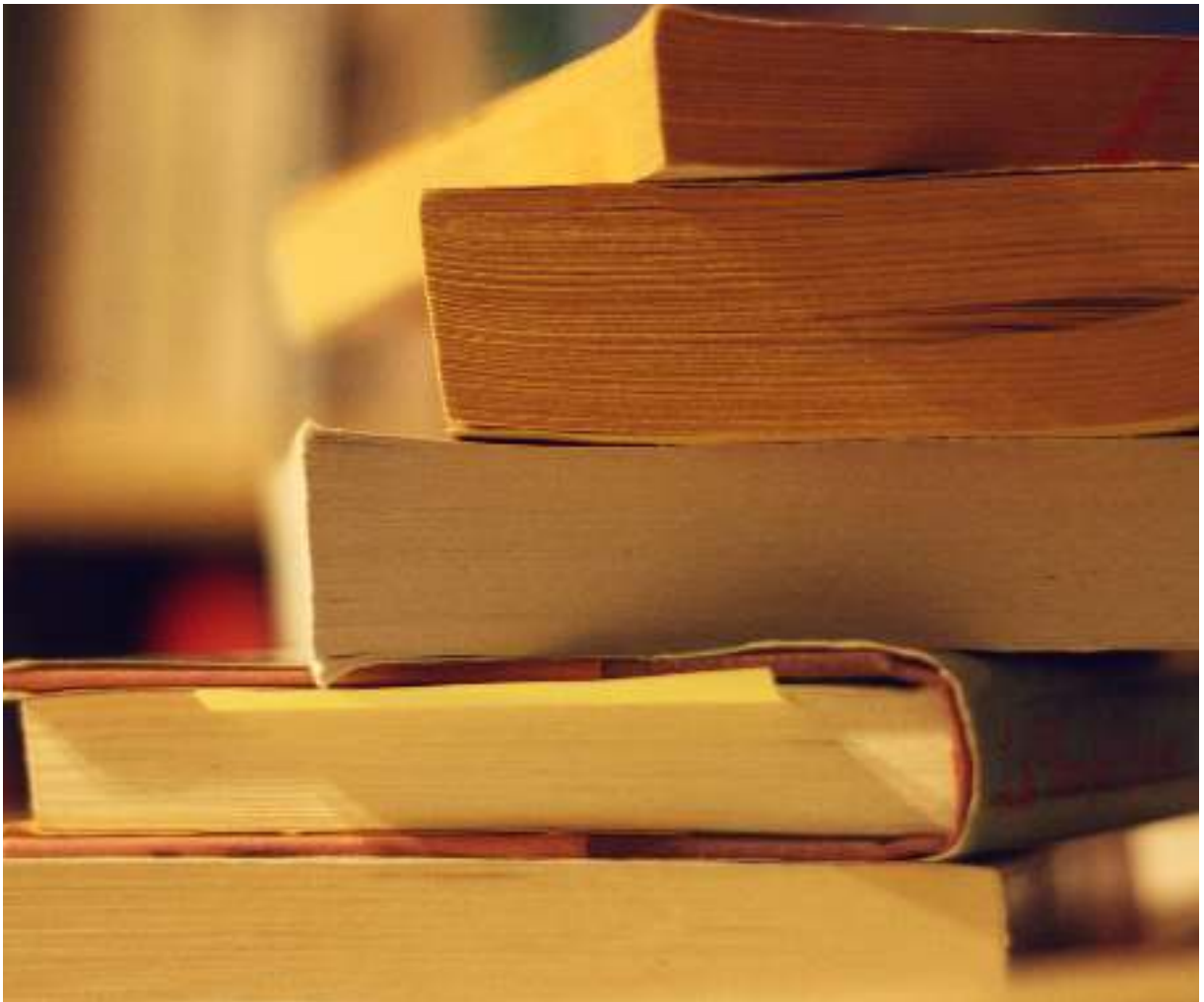
AUXILIARY VERBS

Usage

Auxiliary verbs help form a tense or an expression by combining with present or past participles or infinitives of other verbs. An auxiliary verb is not the verb that carries the main meaning; it simply helps form a structure.

For example, *John* **is** *having a shower at the moment. I* **have** *been to Italy twice.* **Do** *you smoke?*

Auxiliaries

Base form	Present	Past simple	Past Participle
be	am, is, are	was, were	been
do	do, does	did	done
have	have, has	had	had

We will look into the specific usages of auxiliary verbs in a later unit.

UNIT 6 │ PRONOUNS

Pronouns are words that are used instead/in place of more precise nouns or noun phrases.

TYPES

•Personal

I, me, you, he, him, she, her, we, it, us, they, them
As a subject: I, he, she, it, we, you, they
As an object: me, him, her, it, us, you, them
I hate everybody. Everybody hates me. They have a car. It belongs to them.

•Possessive

mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs, its (Note that its never contains an apostrophe)
These types have no article and are not followed by a noun
That car is mine.

•Reflexive

myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves
I cut myself shaving this morning.

•Relative

who, which, that, whose
Used to connect clauses in a sentence. They are used to introduce relative clauses *The man that I marry will be rich*

Whilst being fairly simple in usage, students of many nationalities have a tendency to confuse subject pronouns (which come before a verb in an ordinary sentence) with object pronouns (which normally come after a verb).

Possessive pronouns like *mine* are often confused with possessive adjectives such as *my*. Like other pronouns, possessive pronouns replace nouns, while possessive adjectives describe them.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUN	POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVE
mine	my
ours	our
yours	your
theirs	their
its	its
his	his
hers	her

Common confusion between the two involves his and its, as both can be either possessive pronouns or possessive adjectives, depending on how they're used in a sentence.

Relative pronouns are rather more complicated and are dealt with as a separate issue in a later unit.

UNIT 7 | GERUNDS

A gerund is the –ing form of a verb used as a noun (as opposed to the present participle which is the –ing form as a verb structure). A gerund is used in the same way as a noun, i.e., as a subject or an object.

S V **Playing** tennis is fun	**Playing** is a gerund. It is used as the subject of the sentence
S V O We enjoy **playing** tennis	**Playing** is used as the object of the verb enjoy
Prep O He's excited about **playing** tennis	**Playing** is used as the object of the preposition about

S=Subject V= Verb O = Object

NOTE

• Some verbs, such as admit, consider, delay, remember, like, etc., are usually followed by the gerund form when another verb is used
- e.g., He **admitted killing** the dog.

• Prepositions are sometimes followed by the gerund if an action is indicated
- e.g., Sue always has a coffee **before attending** a staff meeting.

UNIT 8 | INFINITIVES

An infinitive is **to + the base form of a verb**, e.g., to talk, to play, to understand.

VERB + INFINITIVE	
Some verbs are followed immediately by an infinitive	I **hope to see** you again soon. He **promised to be** here by ten.
Negative form: not precedes the infinitive	He **promised not to be** late.

VERB + (PRO)NOUN + INFINITIVE	
Some verbs are followed by a noun or pronoun and then an infinitive.	Mr. Lee **told me to be** here at ten o'clock. The police **ordered the driver to stop.**
Ask, expect, would like, want and need may or may not be followed by a noun or pronoun or an object.	I **expect to pass** the test. I **expect Mary to pass** the test.

UNIT 9 │ ARTICLES

There are two types of articles in English: **definite** (the) and **indefinite** (a and an). The use of these articles mainly depends on whether you are referring to any member of a group or to a specific member of a group. Have a look at these sentences:

This is a football. The football is blue. Footballs are usually white.

Why do we use a in the first sentence, then the in the second, when we're talking about the same football? Why is there no article at all in the third sentence?

Lets look at the rules for articles:

Indefinite Articles: a and an

A and *an* indicate that the noun modified is indefinite, referring to any member of a group. These indefinite articles are used with singular nouns (and only singular nouns) when the noun is general, as in the example sentence above. Initially, the football could be one of many. (Note that the corresponding indefinite quantity word is used for plural general nouns, but this isn't an article, but a determining adjective.)

The rules are:

- *- a + singular noun beginning with a consonant: a ball*
- *- an + singular noun beginning with a vowel: an elephant*
- *- a + singular noun beginning with a consonant sound: a uniform (this sounds like "yooniform" i.e., begins with the consonant "y" sound, so a is used)*
- *- (some + plural noun: some balls, some elephants)*

If the noun is modified by an adjective, the choice between a and an depends on the initial sound of the adjective that immediately follows the article, rather than the noun itself:

- *- a broken egg*
- *- an unusual parrot*
- *- an Asian country*
- *- a European country (sounds like 'yoorupian', i.e., begins with consonant "y" sound)*

Note also that in English, the two indefinite articles are used to indicate membership of a category or group as in a profession, nation, type of plant or religion.

- *- I am a teacher.*
- *- Seamus is an Irishman.*
- *- Henrietta is a practicing Buddhist.*
- *- A lotus is a flower.*

Definite Article: the

The definite article the is used before singular and plural nouns when the noun is particular or specific. The signals that the noun is definite, that it refers to a particular member of a group, in other words, "you know which one." The is used either when we have mentioned it before, as in "The football is blue" or it's clear which one we mean, as in "Please close the door."

The is also used when a noun refers to something which is unique:

- *the White House*
- *the theory of relativity*
- *the computer age*
- *the earth*

There are a number of specific rules for the geographical uses of the:

Do **not** use the before:

- *names of countries (except some such as the Netherlands, the Ukraine, etc.)*
- *names of cities, towns, or states*
- *names of streets*
- *names of lakes and bays (except with groups of lakes, such as the Great Lakes)*
- *names of mountains (except with ranges of mountains like the Andes or the Rockies, or unusual names such as the Matterhorn)*
- *names of continents*
- *names of islands (except with island chains, such as the Aleutians, the Hebrides, or the Canary Islands, or if the name of the island follows, as in The Island of Vancouver or The Isle of Wight)*

Do use the before:

- *names of rivers, oceans and seas (the Nile, the Pacific)*
- *points on the globe (the Equator, the North Pole)*
- *geographical areas (the Middle East, the West)*
- *deserts, forests, gulfs, and peninsulas (the Sahara, the Persian Gulf, the Black Forest, the Iberian Peninsula)*

The is also used with uncountable nouns that are made more specific by a limiting modifying phrase or clause, making an uncountable noun specific:

- *The coffee in my cup is too hot to drink.*
- *The music that Trini Lopez produced is unbearable.*
- *The intelligence of animals is variable but undeniable.*

The is not used with nouns referring to something in a general sense, as in the example Footballs are usually white. This is often referred to as the **zero article,** and represented by the symbol 'Ø'. Consider these examples, all of which are talking about general ideas:

- *[Ø] Coffee is a popular drink.*
- *[Ø] Music is enjoyed by many.*
- *[Ø] Intelligence is not easy to assess.*

The zero article (Ø) is also used for general ideas about countable nouns, when the noun is always pluralized:

- *I don't like pigs.*
- *People are strange.*
- *Bananas are yellow.*

To complicate matters further, there are a number of common countable nouns that are often treated as uncountable and used without an article, taking a preposition instead:

- *to/at/in college*
- *to/into/out of bed*
- *to/into/out of prison*
- *to/in/into/out of hospital*
- *to/at/from work*
- *to/into/from town*
- *by day*
- *at night*
- *by car/bus/train/plane/boat*

Putting across the intricacies of the rules for articles to students of English can be a particularly challenging task!

English Grammar - The Tense System
Present Tenses

The tense system is probably the area of the English language that causes students (and often teachers) the greatest amount of difficulty. Linguists can create a very solid argument that only two tenses exist, the present and the past. As teachers of EFL, we have to take a slightly different approach. The course books, and most reference materials that we use, will state twelve tenses. Compare this to just one tense in many Asian languages and three in most Slavic languages, and you can see where there is plenty of scope for confusion.

We maintain that it is more practical for an EFL teacher to consider that there are three different times in English (tense means time): the past, the present and the future. Each of these times has four aspects: simple, continuous, perfect and perfect continuous. This gives us tenses such as present simple, past continuous, future perfect, etc. Twelve in all.

It is vital that any EFL teacher has a sound knowledge of this system and is not intimidated by it.

In this unit, we will look at the four present tenses; the present simple, present continuous (sometimes called the present progressive), present perfect and present perfect continuous.

PRESENT SIMPLE

Form

Affirmative: (subject + base form [+s/es])

I work	*We work*
You work	*You work*
He/she/it works	*They work*

Negative: (subject + aux. verb "do" + not + base form) (Note that don't and doesn't often appear as do not and does not in written text)

I don't work.	*We don't work.*
You don't work.	*You don't work.*
He/she/it doesn't work.	*They don't work.*

Question: (aux. verb "do" + subject + base form)

Do I work?	*Do we work?*
Do you work?	*Do you work?*
Does he/she/it work?	*Do they work?*

Now study these examples of third person singular (he/she/it) forms and think about the rules for forming them

watches	*does*	*bats*	*preys*
mixes	*tries*	*looks*	*goes*
thinks	*takes*	*tosses*	*trespasses*
lays	*thrashes*	*means*	*preaches*
fakes	*pries*	*drinks*	*writes*
sits	*chops*	*has*	*amazes*
fishes	*swims*	*waits*	*dresses*

How to form the third person singular

• Most verbs

- *add s to the base form of the verb – sits*
- *verbs ending in a consonant plus y, change y to i and add es – i.e., tries*
- *verbs ending in o, s ,z, x, ch, and sh, add es – e.g., washes (+ extra syllable when pronounced)*
- *Note in the negative form, the auxiliary verb doesn't has the s so the main verb doesn't need an s – e.g., "She doesn't work". The same applies with does in questions.*

Usage

- *habitual or routine actions*
- *permanent situations and facts*
- *commentaries*
- *directions and instructions*
- *newspaper headlines*
- *present stories*

Examples

1. *He goes fishing every week. (habit/routine)*
2. *The sun sets in the west. (fact)*
3. *Beckham passes to Fowler, who shoots and scores. (commentary)*
4. *First you go left, then you go straight on. (directions)*
5. *Stock market falls to all time low. (headlines)*
6. *So I open the door and what do I see but a policeman in a pink uniform. (story)*

Typical mistakes/errors

Here are some examples of the most common problems that students have with the present simple. Correct them and make note of the error or mistake.

- *She walk to school everyday.*
- *He no(t) like to watch TV.*
- *Where lives your father?*
- *She go often to Paris.*
- *She doesn't likes football.*
- *I'm go to the post office tomorrow.*

Sample activation teaching ideas

- ***Find someone who...****activities in which students have to interview one another in order to complete forms.*

- ***Questionnaires*** *whereby students ask each other questions about their habitual actions*

- ***A day in the life of...****students are provided with visual prompts and must then construct the daily life of somebody.*

- ***Guess my profession:*** *a student chooses a profession. The other students have a limited number of questions (twenty perhaps) in which to find out what the profession is. For example, "Do you wear a uniform?"*

- ***Information-gap*** *activities in which two students are provided with diagrams or maps with different information. One student then gives the other directions to a particular location.*

PRESENT CONTINUOUS

Form

The present continuous (also known as the present progressive) tense is made with the present simple tense of the auxiliary verb to be and the present participle (verb + ing – working) of the main verb.

Affirmative: (subject + aux. verb "be" + verb+ing)
Negative: (subject + aux. verb "be" + not + verb+ing)
Question: (aux. verb "be" + subject + verb+ing)

REGULAR FORM			
PERSON	**AFFIRMATIVE**	**NEGATIVE**	**QUESTION**
I	I am learning	I am not learning	Am I learning?
You	You are learning	You are not learning	Are you learning?
He/she/it	He is learning	He is not learning	Is he learning?
We	We are learning	We are not learning	Are we learning?
They	They are learning	They are not learning	Are they learning?

CONTRACTED FORM			
PERSON	**AFFIRMATIVE**	**NEGATIVE**	**QUESTION**
I	I'm learning	I'm not learning	No contracted form
You	You're learning	You aren't learning	No contracted form
He/she/it	She's learning	She isn't learning	No contracted form
We	We're learning	We aren't learning	No contracted form
They	They're learning	They aren't learning	No contracted form

Pronunciation

The main point relates to contracted forms: beginners can have difficulty with these and may resort to using long forms instead; drilling and constant reminders are often necessary.

Listed below are some of the main usages of the present continuous.

1. **To talk about an action that is in progress at the time of speaking** – Please be quiet. I'm watching TV.

2. **To talk about a temporary action that is not necessarily in progress at the time of speaking** – I am reading a good book at the moment.

3. **To emphasize very frequent actions (often with always)** – She is always biting her nails.

4. **Background events in a present story** – So I'm standing there when a policeman comes in.

5. To describe developing situations – It's getting dark.

6. To refer to a regular action around a point of time – He's usually working at this time.

Non-progressive verbs

Most non-action verbs are not normally used in the continuous forms, we usually use the simple form instead. Following are some of the most common:

Like, love, hate, understand, want, believe, hear, own, owe, seem, appear, wish, mean, remember.

Non-progressive verbs can be roughly divided into the following groups:

• *verbs of the senses (involuntary)*
• *verbs expressing feelings and emotions*
• *verbs of mental activity*
• *verbs of possession*

There are exceptions and some verbs have different meanings depending on whether they are used in the simple or continuous tense, e.g., She thinks you are right (meaning = has the opinion that); She s thinking about it (meaning = considering)

Typical student errors/mistakes

Make a note of the nature of each of the following errors/mistakes:

• *He watching T.V.*
• *We are have a meeting.*
• *Do you not coming to the cinema?*
• *I'm working hard every day.*
• *I'm believing in God.*

Teaching ideas

• Developing situations

- A good way to get students to use the present continuous is to provide them with different information in the form of graphs, charts, or tables; they can then describe any changes which are occurring (e.g., rises in crime rates, unemployment, etc.)

• Telling stories

- Narrating stories using a combination of the present simple and the present continuous; these can be based on visual prompts and/or other stimuli.

• Actions in progress

- Mime is an excellent way of demonstrating actions; this could be a game whereby students have to guess what the action is.
- Pictures of actions are also good; an idea for an information-gap activity is to give students different pictures (of various actions) and have them discover which is the same by asking their partner about their pictures, or spot the difference type activities.

PRESENT PERFECT

The present perfect relates the past to the present, and although commonly used by a native speaker, presents some difficulties to the English language learner.

Form

I/you/we/they have or he/she/it has, plus the past participle
(with regular verbs the past participle is verb + ed – worked. There are however many irregular verbs such as *write – written*)

Affirmative: (subject + aux. verb "have" + past participle)
Negative: (subject + aux. verb "have" + not + past participle)
Question: (aux. verb "have" + subject + past participle)

AFFIRMATIVE	NEGATIVE	QUESTION
I have written	I haven't written	Have I written?

Usages

1. When we talk about finished actions/states that happened at an indefinite time. It refers to general experience without specific detail.

- *I have eaten octopus.*

2. When we are thinking about completed past actions carried out in an unfinished time period at the time of speaking.

- *It has rained a lot today. (I.e. the rain has stopped but it is still today.)*
- *I have eaten eight cakes this afternoon.*

3. When we talk about something which began in the past and is still true now, at the time of speaking. We don't know if this is likely to continue or not.

- *We have lived in Paris for five years.*
- *She has been a vegetarian since 1988. (I.e. -When did she become vegetarian? – 1988. Is she still vegetarian now? - Yes.)*

4. When we describe past actions with present results.

- *Oh no! I've left my purse at home.*
- *Can you help me? I've lost one of my contact lenses. (Lost in the past and still lost now).*

Note: The following contractions are normally used in speech (see the examples in the 4th usage above and in the examples on the following page):

Long form	becomes	Contracted form
I have		I've
You have		You've
We have		We've
They have		They've
He has		He's
She has		She's
It has		It's

Since or for with the present perfect

We've lived here for five years.
I haven't slept for 48 hours.
They've been at home since 8 o'clock.
She has been a doctor since September.

The rule with for or since:

We use *for* with periods of time. (e.g., a week, 6 months)
We use *since* with points of time. (e.g., Monday, 1984)
to really mean "from."

Gone or been (past participles)

He's been to Turkey.
He's gone to Turkey.

Irregular past participles

As we have already mentioned this verb tense requires the past participle. Unfortunately for English language students, many of these past participles are irregular (not formed according to a set pattern). With regular past participles the verb will end in "ed," for example, *worked, cooked, watched* etc. Irregular verbs have no such pattern and have to be learnt from memory. Most dictionaries, course books and grammar reference materials will have complete tables of irregular verbs. Below are listed just some the most common verbs that have irregular past participles:

Verb	Past participle	Verb	Past participle
be	been	eat	eaten
have	had	drink	drunk
fall	fallen	hit	hit
put	put	sit	sat
see	seen	leave	left
go	gone	do	done
read	read	write	written
speak	spoken	give	given
say	said	tell	told
understand	understood	think	thought
teach	taught	bring	brought
come	come	sell	sold
get	got	wake	woken
take	taken	swim	swum

Please remember, there are many others. This is just a list of some of the most common.

Typical student errors/mistakes

Think about:

• *What kind of errors or mistakes they are.*
• *Why they have been made.*
• *How you would go about correcting them.*

• *I am a secretary for five years.*
• *I have seen him yesterday.*
• *She' s liked him since six months.*
• *When have you bought your car?*

Sample activate stage teaching ideas

• **Find someone who...**
- *has kissed a foreigner, has been on television, has written a poem*
- *Students mingle, asking questions until they have found people who have done the things on their list. This can lead into a discussion involving the present perfect and past simple.*

  a) Andre has been on television.
  b) Really! When were you on television, Andre?
  c) I was on a quiz show last year.

• **What have you done today?**
- *Student mimes some actions, and the others guess what they are using affirmatives or questions.*
- *You've washed your hair/Have you washed your hair?*
- *You've changed a lightbulb/Have you changed a lightbulb?*

• **Change the room**
- *Three people leave the room while the others change it in five different ways (e.g., move the dustbin). The absent students then return and try and guess what has been done. (e.g., Have you moved the desk?)*

• **Song U2 –** "I Still Haven't Found What I'm Looking For"

• **Role-play –** Job interview

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

This tense relates past activities to the present. It implies that either the activity is likely to continue in the future, or that the activity was in progress for some length of time, or both.

Form

Affirmative: (subject + aux. verb "have" + been + verb+ing)
Negative: (subject + aux. verb "have" + not + been + verb+ing)
Question:(aux. verb "have" + subject + been + verb+ing)

AFFIRMATIVE	NEGATIVE	QUESTION
I have been dancing.	I haven't been dancing.	Have I been dancing?

Usages

1. To communicate an incomplete and ongoing activity, when we want to say how long it has continued. – *I've been dieting for the last twenty years. (and am likely to continue doing so)*

2. To describe a recently finished, uninterrupted activity which has a present result – *I'm tired because I've been chopping logs all day. (I.e., the work lasted some time and was intensive.)*

Typical student errors/mistakes

Using verbs that don't take the continuous form.
(e.g., like, prefer, believe) I've been knowing her for three months.

Comparison of present perfect with present perfect continuous.

With the present perfect continuous, the emphasis is on the **action/activity NOT the result/completed action.**

> *What have you been doing today?*
> *I've been cleaning the car.*
> *What have you done today?*
> *I've cleaned the car,*

Note. We do not use the present perfect continuous to communicate the number of things we have done; for this we use the present perfect.

Sample activate stage teaching ideas

1. A student takes a piece of paper with a past activity and a result written on it.

   - You've been chopping onions. You're crying.
   - You've been playing football. You're dirty.
   - You've been washing your dog. You're wet.
   - You've been chasing a bank robber. You're sweaty.
   * The student tells the others the result and they have to guess the activity.*
   - E.g. A: I'm crying. B: Have you been watching a sad film?

2. Students survey the class to find out who has been doing something the longest. They should write the surveys themselves!

English Grammar – The Tense System
Past Tenses

The system and structure of past tenses is not too different from present tenses, except that past tenses, obviously, relate to past time periods. You should begin to see certain similarities in usage and form emerging. Some of the rules you should be able to notice at this stage are:

All continuous forms feature some form of the verb "to be" plus the "ing" form of the verb. If the verb "to be" is in the present, it will be the present continuous. If the verb "to be" is in the past, it will be the past continuous. Later on, you will see the same principles apply to future tenses.

All perfect forms feature some form of the verb "to have" and the past participle form of the verb. If the verb "to have" is in the present, it will be the present perfect. If the verb "to have" is in the past, it will be the past perfect. Later on, you will see, the same principles apply to future tenses.

All perfect continuous forms feature some form of the verb "to have," plus "been," plus the "ing" form of the verb. If the verb "to have" is in the present, it will be the present perfect continuous. If the verb "to have" is in the past, it will be the past perfect continuous. Later on you will see, the same principles apply to future tenses.

PAST SIMPLE

Form

Regular verbs

Affirmative:(add -ed or –d to the base form of the verb)
I worked, I played, I hoped, etc.

Negative: (add did not or didn't before the base form) I didn't work, etc.

Question: (add did plus subject before the base form) Did you work? etc.

Irregular verbs

There is only one simple past verb which has two forms according to person. That is the verb "to be" which has the forms "was" (used with I, he, she and it) and 'were' (used with you, we and they). For all other verbs the form stays the same for all persons.

Many common verbs in English have an irregular simple past form (i.e., one that is not created simply by adding -ed). Unfortunately, there are no rules to help students know which are irregular or how they are formed. For example:

BASE FORM	PAST SIMPLE	BASE FORM	PAST SIMPLE
see	saw	come	came
have	had	drink	drank
make	made	find	found
do	did	let	let
eat	ate	put	put
go	went	sleep	slept
forget	forgot	think	thought
catch	caught	write	wrote
take	took	understand	understood
give	gave	know	knew
get	got	say	said
be	was/were	pay	paid

Usage

It is used for actions completed at a definite time in the past. It is therefore used as follows:

• for a past action when the time is given

  - I met him yesterday.
  - Pasteur died in 1890.
  - Their time expired 30 seconds ago.

• when the time is asked about

  - When did you meet him?
  - When did the Second World War break out?

• when the action clearly took place at a definite time even though this time is not mentioned

  - The train arrived ten minutes late.
  - How did you get your present job?
  - We sold our Porsche a long time ago.
  - My grandmother met Queen Victoria.

• if sometimes the time becomes definite as a result of a question and answer in the present perfect

  - Where have you been? – I've been to the opera. – Did you enjoy it?

It's probably worth pointing out to students that if they see the word ago, then the tense associated with it is probably going to be the past simple.

Common mistakes/errors

Most mistakes/errors with this tense arise from the use of did and did not for questions and negatives, and use of irregular verbs. Usage problems often lead to confusion with present perfect tense.

Sample activate teaching ideas

• *To teach the irregular verb forms: card games, such as memory pairs, fish, etc. – matching present tense with past (go-went)*

• *Narrative story telling in conjunction with past continuous and past perfect*
• *Curriculum Vitae*
• *Interview role-play*
• *Discussing past holidays/major events, etc.*

PAST CONTINUOUS

Form

Past tense of the auxiliary verb "be" (was/were) + the present participle (verb+ "ing")

Affirmative:(subject + was/were + verb+ing)

Negative: (subject + was/were + not + verb+ing)

Question: (was/were + subject + verb+ing)

Usage

• **For interrupted past actions.** While I was having a bath, the phone rang.

• **Used without a time expression, it can indicate gradual development that took place in the past.**

  - It was getting darker.
  - The winds were rising.

• **It can express an action, which began before that time and probably continued after it.** At eight he was having breakfast implies that he was in the middle of breakfast at eight, i.e., that he had started it before eight. He had breakfast at eight would imply that he started at eight.

• **We use the continuous tense in descriptions.** Note the combination of description (past continuous) with narrative (past simple). When I woke up, the sun was shining and the birds were singing.

Note. That the past continuous almost always requires some form of time reference. For example, "I was playing tennis" simply doesn't make sense, as we don't know when. One of the few occasions when it is possible to use the past continuous without a specific time reference is with the gradual development usage, as detailed above.

Typical student errors/mistakes

  • *omission of the verb to be*
  • *omission of the -ing*
  • *use of -ing with state verbs (see present continuous)*
  • *confusion with past simple*

Sample activate stage teaching ideas

• **Detective game:** Where were you yesterday at 7:00 pm? What were you doing? Etc.

• **Use of diaries/journals**: What were you doing at 7:00 am on Monday?

• **Telling stories:** Narrating and describing a story using a combination of past simple and past continuous; these can be based on visual prompts and/or other stimuli.

THE PAST PERFECT

Form

Affirmative: (subject + had + past participle)

Negative: (subject + had+ not + past participle)

Question: (had + subject + past participle)

The past equivalent of the present perfect, e.g., When I arrived the concert had started.

So, which was first, my arrival or the start of the concert? And how do you know?

Well, hopefully your answers to the two questions were as follows:
• *The start of the concert.*
• *Because I wrote "had started."*

Had started is an example of the Past Perfect. Now have a look at these four sentences:

> 1. *When I got to the car park, I realised that I **had lost** my keys.*
> 2. *She told me she **had worked,** in France and Germany.*
> 3. *He arrived late; he **hadn't realised** the roads would be so icy.*
> 4. *She was upset because Paul **hadn't telephoned.***

You should see that all of the past perfect verbs (in bold type) represent actions that occurred before other actions in the past. Thus, we can say the past perfect is "the past in the past," or the past viewed from another past viewpoint.

Completely finished actions

Try to complete these two sentences with a suitable word to emphasise the fact that a past perfect action is 100% over:
• *"_____he had painted the kitchen, he decided to rest."*
• *"_____she had finished the report, she realized that it was too late to post it."*
As you have probably guessed, after and when are often used to show that a past action had completely finished before another action in the past started.

Sample activate stage teaching ideas

• *Story telling/writing in conjunction with other past tenses.*

• *Give students a final situation and ask them to think of reasons why that situation had happened.*

• *Students see a story and then retell the story backwards, starting from the end and describing what had happened before.*

PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

Form

Affirmative: (subject + had + been + verb+ing)

Negative: (subject + had+ not + been + verb+ing)

Question: (had + subject + been + verb+ing)

Usage

The past perfect continuous certainly isn't the most frequently used (or taught) tense in the English language, but it does have one major use:

To talk about longer actions or situations in the past that had been going on continuously up to the past moment that we are thinking about. We don't know or are not concerned with whether or not it continued after.

E.g., Before eating lunch, she had been clipping her toenails for two hours.

Common student mistakes/errors

As this tense has two auxiliary verbs – "had" and "been" – the omission of either one of those or the failure to add "ing" to the main form are the major errors with this structure. Some problems with usage can also be expected as it can be easily confused with the past perfect (which stresses completed actions), and the past continuous. The latter implies that the action happened around a time and not just up to that time.

English Grammar - The Tense System
Future Tenses

The future is one of the most complex areas of the English language. So many different tenses and ideas can be used with future meanings.

The seven most common are as follows (not in any order of frequency):

1. The present simple: e.g., The train leaves Platform 5 in ten minutes.

2. The present continuous: e.g., I'm meeting her for coffee tomorrow.

3. Be going + infinitive: e.g., It's going to rain later.

4. The future simple: e.g., I'll pick you up later.

5. The future continuous: e.g., I'll be getting on the train at five p.m.

6. The future perfect: e.g., I'll have finished my exams by Monday.

7. The future perfect continuous: e.g., He'll have been driving for two hours before he reaches Paris.

In this unit we will look at all of the above structures in more detail. There are normally a number of forms available for what you want to say, but forms 2 and 3 are the most frequently used. Please also note that tenses 1 and 2 above are normally used as present tenses, but also have future applications.

1 PRESENT SIMPLE

Form

See present tenses.

Usages

- **To suggest a more formal situation**
  - Our new shop opens next month.

- **For timetables and schedules**
  - The train to Edinburgh leaves from platform 6 at 10.30 a.m.
  - We fly to Dublin on Sunday, then we go on to New York on Tuesday.

- **To suggest a more impersonal tone (often implying an outside compulsion)**
  - They leave tomorrow for Paris.
  - We start filming tomorrow.

Teaching ideas

- *Compiling or sharing information from airport or railway schedules.*

- *Writing press releases about your company's future plans.*

- *Discussing weekly timetables.*

2 PRESENT CONTINUOUS

Form

Auxiliary verb "be" (present simple) plus present participle – see present tenses unit for more information.

Usage

- **For definite arrangements**

  - *We're taking our holiday in July. (We've booked it and bought the tickets)*
  - *I'm going for a drink later.*

- **For decisions and plans without a time frame**
  - *I'm leaving you.*

Teaching ideas

• **Diaries/Schedules** – Any activity using future diaries can be adapted. Blank diaries can be given to students for completion. They then try to find a time when they are both free to meet for lunch, go to the cinema, etc…

• **Role-play** – Secretary and client where the client is trying to make an appointment to see a busy boss.

All of these kinds of activities should encourage the use of the present continuous for the future.

3 BE GOING + INFINITIVE

This structure looks very similar to the present continuous, especially when the present continuous form uses the verb "to go," but they are a little different as the "be going to" structure is always followed by a verb.

Form – verb "to be" in the present, plus going to, plus base form of verb – I am going to play football next week.

Usage

• **Intentions**
  - *I'm not going to do it.*

• **Predictions based on present evidence**
  - *I think it's going to rain later!*

• **Plans (decisions made before speaking)**
  - *I am going to visit my family in April.*

The "be going to" future's usage is frequently confused with the future simple. The two structures are often taught together to help students appreciate the differences.

Teaching Ideas

• **Making holiday/birthday party plans.**

• **Going to game** (What am I going to draw/do/buy? Based around mime and prompts).

• **Itinerary from a courier.**

• For younger learners, **plan what they are going to be when they grow up.** Older learners can plan successful future careers.

• **Make predictions based on evidence,** such as weather forecasts, etc.

• **Songs:** E.g., "Mannish Boy" by Muddy Waters.

4 FUTURE SIMPLE

Form

Affirmative	I shall/will You will He/she/it will + verb We shall/will They will
Negative	I will not/shall not, you will not etc.
Question	Shall /will I? Will you? Etc.
Negative Question	Will/shall I not? Will you not? or Won't / shan't I? etc
Contractions	I'll, you'll, shan't, won't etc.

Note: shall/shan't (UK only)

Usages

Will is typically used for information and prediction.

- **Future facts and certainties**
  - *He'll be 28 in July.*
  - *Spring will start in March as usual.*
  - *When will you know?*
- **Promises**
  - *I'll put the check in the post.*
- **Predictions (based on no present evidence, as opposed to "be going to")**
  - *It'll rain before morning.*
- **Assumptions/speculations**
  - *That'll be the Bailiffs at the door.*
  - *What will happen in next week's episode?*
  - *They'll have to sell the house, I expect.*
- **Spontaneous decisions (contrast with "be going to" for planned decisions)**
  - *I'll get my coat.*
- **Threats**
  - *You'd better go or I'll hit you. (Please note that this is really an alternative to the first conditional, which you will come across in Unit 10)*

Shall/will

Shall is frequently used in making suggestions, invitations, etc. In affirmative sentences its use has become more formal.

Will generally expresses a stronger intention, coercion, or determination than shall.

What shall we do with the evidence?   *Where shall I send your mail?*
You shall go to the ball.   *Shall I do that for you?*
Shall we dance?

Typical mistakes/errors

Here are some typical student mistakes and errors. Make a note of the nature of the mistake or error for each example.

• *Sunday I will to go on a picnic.*
• *We'll going to win tomorrow.*

Confusion between "be going to" and the future simple is common.

Teaching ideas

• **Fortune telling/palm-reading.**
• **With present simple in time clauses.**
- *She'll be happy when we arrive.*

• **Going on a holiday/lost in the desert: what will you take?**
• **Winning the lottery: what will you do?**
• **Predicting future changes in the next X years using various topics.**
• **Predicting what others will be like in X year.**
• **Songs:**

    - *"When I'm 64" by the Beatles*
    - *"You'll Take the High Road" (traditional)*
    - *"That'll be the Day" by Buddy Holly*

5 FUTURE CONTINUOUS

Form

Subject + will + be + verb +ing (present participle)

Affirmative	Yes/no questions	Negatives
We'll be waiting for you.	Will you be holding a red rose? Yes, I will. / No, I won't.	I won't be wearing a dress.

Usages

The future continuous form is used in the following ways:

- **To say that something will be in progress at a particular moment in the future** – This time tomorrow I'll be lying on the beach.

- **To 'predict the present' to say what we think or guess might be happening now** – John will probably be having lunch now.

- **For polite enquiries referring to other people's plans, but not to influence the listener's intentions** – Will you be coming to the party?

- **To refer to future events which are fixed or decided (without suggesting personal intention)** – Professor Smith will be giving another lecture at the same time next week.

Typical student errors/mistakes

• Missing part of the structure:

- We will be wait for you.
- We will waiting for you.

• Function:

The idea that the action will continue around a specific point in the future may cause confusion.

Teaching Ideas

- **Arranging diaries/ dates 'What will you be doing at 2.00 pm on Tuesday?'**
- Trying to get out of the date from hell.
  - Can I see you on Friday?' "No, I'll be washing my hair." "Saturday?" "No, Ill be painting my toes. "Sunday? No, I'll be...," etc.

- **Illustrative situations**
  - "Three police cars are speeding through the night. They have just received information that a notorious criminal is playing roulette at this very moment in a gambling club"… What is the criminal doing at this moment? What will he be doing when the police get there?

6 FUTURE PERFECT

Form

Will + have + past participle

Affirmative	Yes/no questions	Negative
I will have worked here for two years.	Will you have worked..? Yes, I will. / No, I won't.	She will not have worked...

Usages

The future perfect tense is used to say that something will have been done, completed, or achieved by a certain time in the future.

The builder says he'll have finished the roof by Monday. The car will soon have done 100,000 miles.

The perfect structures are all relative. In the case of the future perfect, we look back on the past (a completed action) from a future standpoint. That is 'past in the future."

A sentence with the future perfect generally uses an adverbial expression that signals when a future event will be completed.

By the end of the summer, I will have completed this course. At the end of the year, I will have mastered this computer!

You will have reviewed the material before you sit the exam, I presume? When they arrive, I will have finished cooking dinner.

Typical student errors/mistakes

• **Form**

  I will have been finished by tomorrow.
  I will be finish by tomorrow.

• **Function:**

  The future perfect can often be confused with future perfect continuous - the distinction between completion of action by a certain time in the future and how long something will have continued for by a certain time (future continuous) needs to be made.

Teaching Ideas

• **Fill in future diaries and elicit questions in the future perfect**
 - *What will you have done by...*

• **Invention of an extremely successful future career**
 - *Students tell each other what they will have done by certain ages/years*

• **Choose a famous historical personage and note down important dates in his/her life**
 - *Students then explain by which age their character will have done certain things*
 - *By 1796 he will have married*

• **A romantic novelist writes 300-page books. He/she writes ten pages a day and takes no holidays. Use the future perfect to answer the questions:**
 - *How many pages will she have written after ten days?*
 - *After a month?*
 - *After a year?*
 - *After ten years?*
 More questions/situations can be developed around this idea.

7 FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS

Form

will + have + been + verb + ing

Affirmative	Yes/no questions	Negatives
I will have been working for seven years.	Will you have been working…? Yes, I will./ No, I won't.	He will not have been working…

Usages

We can use the future perfect continuous to say how long something will have continued by a certain time.

> *By the time you get here, I'll have been working for six hours.*

Compare this to the **future perfect** tense. What general rule could be applied to the teaching of the two forms?

The future perfect continuous often includes an adverbial expression that begins with by. Write a model sentence for each example:

By next week…

By this time tomorrow,…

Typical student errors/mistakes

Form

Next Christmas, I'll have been learn English for four years.
By this time tomorrow, I'll be drinking for twelve hours.

Teaching idea

How long will you have been learning English/ working/ going to school/ living in your present house by next summer?

English Grammar –
Conditionals and Reported Speech

CONDITIONALS

These are sentences containing "if" (or similar expressions such as "when") which refer to past, present and future possibilities. There are two clauses, the "if" clause and the main clause, and either can come in the first part of a conditional sentence.

For example:
If I had the money, I would buy a new car;
I would buy a new car if I had the money.

The "if" clause contains the condition that has to be satisfied before the action or state in the main clause can be realised. We can also think of the main clause as expressing the consequence. In the above example, the condition of my having enough money has to be satisfied before I can buy a new car. My buying a new car is the consequence. The five main conditionals are as follows:

ZERO

FORM: *if/when + present tense, present tense*

USAGE: It refers to actions and facts that are irrefutable. You can use "if" or "when" with no change in meaning

When you boil water, you get steam. (Condition: boiled water; consequence: steam)

Water turns to ice if you freeze it. (Condition: freeze water; consequence: ice)

FIRST

FORM: *if + present simple, will*
("will" can be replaced by a modal verb. e.g., may, might, can, should, must)

USAGE: This talks about a "real" situation in the future that is possible, probable or even certain, once the condition has been satisfied.
-If he studies hard, he will pass the Test.

(Condition: hard study; certain consequence: passing the exam)
-She might buy it if she has enough money.

(Condition: having enough money; possible consequence: buying it)

SECOND

FORM: *if + past simple, would/could/might + base form*
(When the verb "to be" is used in the if clause, it can be
"If I was" or "If I were". The latter is more formal.)

USAGE: Communicates a present or future "unreal," hypothetical situation that is presently not true and is unlikely ever to be true.

-If I won the lottery, I would travel the world.
-If I had a time machine, I could go back to the dark ages.

THIRD

FORM: *if + past perfect, would/could/might + have + past participle.*

USAGE: Refers to a hypothetical past action (or non-action) and the hypothetical past consequence/result. As the "action" was purely hypothetical, the condition could never have been satisfied, and subsequently, the consequence is or was impossible.

If I had practiced the piano, I would have been better.
(but I didn't practice the piano!)

She would have been angry if she had seen me.
(but she didn't see me!)

MIXED

We sometimes combine a second conditional clause with a third conditional clause. This is most commonly formed as follows:

If + past perfect, would + base form

If I had listened to him, I would be in serious trouble now.
(I didn't listen to him, so I'm not in trouble!)

This mix refers to a hypothetical past action or state and the hypothetical present consequence. Many other mixes, though not so common, are possible.

Typical mistakes/errors

Consider the problems that may arise from past tenses being used in the second conditional when it refers to the future (as it always does) along with the complex structures and you have the basis for endless mistakes with conditionals.

Many students find it quite difficult to see the difference in usage between the 1st and 2nd conditionals. Similar problems can arise with 3rd and mixed conditionals.

Teaching Ideas

• **Split sentences**
  - Take any kind of conditional sentences and cut them in half. Mix them up so that students have to put them back together again.

If you touch that dog	*you ll be sick.*
If you don't water the plants	*it will bite you.*
If you eat that	*they ll die.*

• **Complete the conditional.**
  - Give students half a conditional and instruct them to complete it with their own ideas. For example:

If I won the lottery,..........
If I could live in any country,...........
...................., I would be very happy.
...................., I would be very angry.

• **Chain conditionals**
  - Students take it in turns to continue a conditional sentence. For example:
  If I am ill tomorrow, I will stay at home.
  If I stay at home, I will watch TV.
  If I watch TV, I will become brain dead.
  If I become brain dead, I will be very boring.

• **What a question!**
  Give students moral dilemmas in a conditional form to discuss. E.g., Would you be willing to murder an innocent person if it would end world hunger?

• **Regrets**
  - Students write down three things that they wish they had done in the past in the third conditional form.

If I had studied harder, I would have got a better job.
- These are handed to the teacher who reads them out. They must then guess who wrote each one.

• **Nuclear bunker role play.**
  - There is going to be a nuclear war, but there is only room in the bunker for one more person. Each student is assigned a role, e.g., doctor, politician, actress, teacher, architect, scientist. They must persuade a judge that they are the best candidate for the last place in the bunker.

If I live, I will discover a cure for cancer.

• **What would happen if....?**
  - In groups students respond to different second conditional sentences.
    What would happen if everyone were color blind?
    What would happen if we could read each others' thoughts?
    What would happen if everyone were five meters tall?
  - They must then predict how the other group answered.

Note: This teaching idea also works very well for first conditionals, too.

REPORTED SPEECH

Look at this transcript of a telephone conversation between Phil and Ken, with Jim an anxious listener.

> Phil   "How are you feeling after last night, Ken?"
> Ken   'I'm feeling great today!
> Jim   ''What's he saying?''
> Phil   ''Ken says that he's feeling great today!''

All the sentences are actual speech – or **direct speech**. BUT in Phil's sentence addressed to Jim he reports what Ken has just told him.

Phil decides to report in the **present** tense – "Ken says that…." Consequently, the tense of the speech he reports is in the present. He repeats the exact words used by Ken, except for the initial "I'm" which he is obliged to change into he's, i.e., with the meaning "Ken says Ken is…". He has also added the word that, which is optional.

Now look at the conversation between Jim and Phil if it had been two hours after the phone call.

> Jim   "What did Ken say on the phone?"
> Phil   "Ken said (that) he was feeling great!".
> (Alternatively   "Ken told me (that) *he was feeling great!")*

Phil is now obliged to report in the **past** tense since the phone call is over. Hence, he starts *"Ken said…"*

Phil has still changed Ken's I to he, but he is now obliged to change the tense of the verb used by Ken into the past form – present continuous into **past** continuous. Hence, "…*he was feeling…"*

When we turn direct questions into **reported** (or **indirect**) **speech**, the following changes also take place:

The question word *(when, where, why, who, what, how, etc.*) remains but, the form of the verb changes into the positive form, the question mark being omitted in reported questions. The verb "*say"* changes into *ask, enquire…, etc,* and the tense of the speech reported is the same as that of the reporting verb.

For example:

Phil's question above was "How are you feeling after last night, Ken?" If somebody was reporting this, it would therefore become *Phil asked how Ken was feeling.*

If there is no question word, if or whether must be used:
"Is anyone there?" he asked. becomes *He asked if/whether anyone was there.*

Note that there are never quotation marks in reported speech, as we are not quoting the exact words spoken.

Verb Tenses

Try "reporting" these to somebody and note how the verbs change.

1)	"I love it!"		*He said.....*
2)	"I am leaving in half an hour."		*He said.....*
3)	"The rain has stopped."		*He said.....*
4)	"I've been playing for 2 hours."		*He said.....*
5)	"I had breakfast earlier."		*He said.....*
6)	"I was living in London in '96."		*He said.....*
7)	"I have eaten 3 pizzas."		*He said.....*
8)	"I had been waiting for 30 minutes.'		*He said.....*
9)	"I'll be in London in July."		*He said.....*

You should have noted a number of changes, when the reporter uses a reporting verb in the past, such as said, told, asked, etc. As a clue, check your changes with this guide:

Direct speech	To	Reported speech
Present simple		Past simple
Present continuous		Past continuous
Present perfect		Past perfect
Present perfect continuous		Past perfect continuous
Past simple		Past perfect
Past continuous		Past perfect continuous
Will		Would
Past perfect		Past perfect
Past perfect continuous		Past perfect continuous

Note: There's an exception to most rules! An example would be a structure such as **He said that the sky is black today,** or **He told me that rents are higher in London,** and other such instances when the fact being reported is still true.

Other significant changes

Pronouns:

You also should have noticed that the pronoun denoting who is spoken to can also change, very much depending on the context. For example, take one simple sentence:

"I love you," she said. **can become** *She said she loved me.* (she was talking to me)
"I love you," she said. **can become** *She said she loved you.* (she was talking to you)
"I love you," she said. **can become** *She said she loved him.* (she was talking to him)
"I love you," she said. **can become** *She said she loved her.* (she was talking to her)
"I love you," she said. **can become** *She said she loved it.* (she was talking to her dog)
"I love you," she said. **can become** *She said she loved us.* (she was talking to both you and me)
"I love you," she said. **can become** *She said she loved them.* (she was talking to both of them)

You probably get the impression that events and "things" take a step backwards, both in time and physical position. In general, present becomes past (this is sometimes referred to as backshifting), and "this" and "here" become "that" and "there."

Time expressions

These are also modified if backshifting. For example, "today" becomes "that day," "yesterday" becomes "the day before" or "the previous day," "tomorrow" becomes "the next day" or "the day after" etc. These changes need to be taught as students progress through the levels. But the "golden rule" with all the different categories is to take each one at a time and to do it slowly and thoroughly.

Potential for student mistakes/errors

The potential for mistakes, errors and general difficulty is enormous due to the number of changes that are made with verb tenses, patterns, pronouns, questions, time expressions, etc. So, as stated before, "slowly, slowly!"

Teaching ideas

1. We've already seen one basic one, where in groups of three one person says a sentence which is then "reported" to a third. For example, a role-play where the husband and wife have stopped speaking and will communicate only through a third party. Similar ideas can be used for employer/employee, parent/child, neighbors, warring countries, etc.

2. Higher levels could be first asked to make a list of as many verbs as possible that can replace the "reporting" verb, i.e., "say." You then check that it contains all the ones necessary for the following: Each group or pair is given a collection of direct speech sentences. Then choose an appropriate reporting verb, and next, alter the sentence accordingly. For example, your list of reporting verbs may include "to claim," "to deny" and "to admit." A direct speech sentence might go as follows: "Okay, I did it – it was me!" Hopefully your students choose "to admit" and then write or say the following: He admitted that he did it. Or even He admitted doing it.

3. Media interviews often report third parties speech and students can devise their own based on current events.

English Grammar –
Additional Items

In this unit, we will finish our look at English grammar. Please be aware that you will have only covered the essential basic grammar that is commonly taught in EFL. To cover the whole grammatical system, you would need at least four years of full time study. What has been covered in this course should allow you to address the vast majority of grammatical issues that you will probably face as an English teacher of foreign students. As you progress through your teaching career, you will probably pick up more grammar and may want to do more reading on the subject. A good grammar reference book is a useful tool for teachers (see the introductory unit for recommended reading on this subject).

In this unit, we will examine modal auxiliary verbs and the passive voice in detail, as well as a brief overview of phrasal verbs and relative clauses.

Modal Auxiliary Verbs

Basic rules

The "modals" are *can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must, have to, have got to, need to, needn't and ought to.*

They are used before other verbs to add meaning to the main verb.   Modals can be used to express a number of different ideas, such as:

- **Obligation** – *I really must go now, my friend's expecting me.*
- **Possibility/probability** – *I might go shopping tomorrow.*
- **Permission/prohibition** – *You may leave now.*
- **Ability** – *I can speak six languages.*
- **Advice** – *You should see a doctor about that.*

Modal auxiliary verbs can also be used to express differing degrees of formality. Compare "Can I borrow some money?" with "May I borrow some money?". Even though they have similar meanings, they would be used in different situations, as one is more polite than the other.

Modal verbs don't change in form according to person. Compare the modal *I can play/he can play* with the present simple *I play/he plays.*

Modal verbs are followed by a verb in its base form – I might go. This applies for both present and future meanings. To use modals to express ideas in the past, the situation is somewhat more complicated; modals with more than one meaning may express past ideas in different ways according to context. Have a look at the chart below for more information. Please note that not all of the expressions below are "true" modals but do express similar ideas. A complete list of modals can be seen above.

Summary of modals and similar expressions:

AUXILIARY	USES	PRESENT/FUTURE	PAST
may	1. polite request	May I borrow your pen?	
	2. formal permission	You may leave the room.	
	3. less than 50% certainty	Where's the doctor? He may be at the surgery.	He may have been at the surgery.
might	1. much less than 50% certainty	Where's John? He might be at the library.	He might have been at the library.
	2. polite requests (rare)	Might I borrow your pen?	
need to	1. need or necessity	You need to see a doctor.	You needed to see a doctor
	2. lack of need or necessity	You don't need to see a doctor.	You didn't need to see a doctor
	3. optional need or necessity	You needn't see a doctor.	You didn't need to see a doctor

Summary of modals and similar expressions (cond.) Summary of modals and similar expressions (cond.)

AUXILIARY	USES	PRESENT/FUTURE	PAST
must	1. obligation	I must go to class today.	
	2. prohibition (negative only)	You must not open that door.	
	3. 95% certainty or assumption	Mary isn't in class. She must be sick. (present only)	Mary must have been sick yesterday.
have to	1. necessity	I have to go to class today.	I had to go to class yesterday.
	2. lack of necessity (negative only)	I don't have to go to class today.	I didn't have to go to class yesterday.
have got to	1. strong necessity	I've got to go to class today.	
	1. advisability or moral obligation	I should let them know you're not coming tonight.	I should have let them know I wasn't coming.
should/ ought to	2. 90% certainty	She should do well on the test. (talking about the future only)	She should have done well on the test (an assumption about the present or past).
	3. unexpected past result		She should have done well on the test. (but she didn't!)
should	1. ability/possibility	I can run fast.	I could run fast when I was young, but now I can't.
	2. informal permission	You can use my car tomorrow.	
	3. informal polite request	Can I borrow your pen?	
	4. assumed impossibility (rare)	That can't be true!	That can't have been true!
can	1. past ability		I could run fast when I was a child.
	2. polite request	Could you help me?	
	3. suggestion	You could talk to your teacher if you need help.	You could have talked to your teacher. (but you didn't!)
	4. less than 50% certainty	Where's John? He could be at home.	He could have been at home.
	5. improbability	That couldn't be true!	That couldn't have been true!
could	1. ability	I am able to help you. I will be able to help you.	I was able to help you.
be able to	1. polite request	Would you please pass the salt?	
would	2. preference	I would rather go to the park than stay home.	I would rather have gone to the park.
	3. repeated past action		When I was a child, I would visit my gradparents every weekend.

To get a true appreciation of modal verbs, look at the following grouped sentences and see how the use of modal verbs can change the formality and meaning of the main verb. In some cases, there is little or no difference; in others, the difference is more notable.

1. May I use your phone?
2. Could I use your phone?
3. Can I use your phone?
Which is the most polite?

4. You should take an English course.
5. You ought to take an English course.
6. You're supposed to take an English course.
7. You must take an English course.
Which advice is the strongest?

8. You should see a doctor about that cut on your arm.
9. You could see a doctor about that cut on your arm.
10. You have to see a doctor about that cut on your arm.
In which is the speaker the least worried?

11. You must not use that door.
12. You don't have to use that door.
In which doesn't it matter which door you use?

13. I will be at your house by six o'clock.
14. I should be at your house by six o'clock.
Which is the most definite?

There is a knock at the door. Who do you suppose it is?
15. It might be Sally.
16. It may be Sally.
17. It could be Sally.
18. It must be Sally.
In which is the speaker the most sure?

There is a knock at the door. I think it is Mike.
19. It may not be Mike.
20. It couldn't be Mike.
21. It can't be Mike.
In which is the speaker the least sure?

Where's Jack?
22. He might have gone home.
23. He must have gone home.
24. He had to go home.
Which implies a reason for Jack's departure?

There is a knock at the door. I think it is Mike.
19. It may not be Mike.
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Which implies a reason for Jack's departure?

Teaching ideas

Role-play – As modal verbs lend themselves to expressing functions of English, role-plays are a rich source of teaching ideas. For example, a doctor – patient role-play would be quite productive for modals that can express advice and obligation *"You should take these tablets and rest,"* etc.

Rules – Establishing rules and regulations for a hotel could provide a good opportunity for usage of modals of obligation, prohibition and permission *"You can't have overnight guests,"* etc.

Signs – Students guess meaning of traffic (or other) signs *"You mustn't park here,"* etc.

PASSIVE VOICE

There are two voices used in English:

The active:
My wife chose the wallpaper.

And the passive:
The wallpaper was chosen by my wife

In the passive, the object of an active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb. Both sentences basically have the same meaning, but the focus is different. In the active voice, the focus is on the agent, i.e., my wife – she's responsible! In the passive voice, the focus is also on the subject, (i.e., the wallpaper, this time). But in the passive voice, the agent (or "doer" of the action) is much less important, or doesn't appear, as in the following example:

active
I painted the door last week.

passive
The door was painted last week. (no object)

Only transitive verbs (verbs followed by an object, such as sell, take, buy, write, etc.) are used in the passive. It is not possible to use verbs such as happen, sleep, come and seem (intransitive verbs) in the passive.

Form

Auxiliary verb "be" (as per table below) + past participle

For both the active voice and the passive, the tense of the sentence always remains the same. In the passive voice the tense is indicated by the auxiliary verb "be," and in the active voice, the tense is shown by the main verb.

TENSE	PASSIVE FORMATION
Present simple	is/are + past participle
Present continuous	is/are being + past participle
Present perfect	have/has been + past participle
Past Simple	was/were + past participle
Past continuous	was/were being + past participle
Past perfect	had been + past participle
Future Simple	will be + past participle
Future continuous	will be being + past participle
Future perfect	will have been + past participle

Note: Perfect continuous tenses are not normally used in the passive.

For practice try changing the following from the active into the passive (the first one has been done as an example):

A crocodile eats Henry. Henry is eaten by a crocodile.

A crocodile is eating Henry.

A crocodile has eaten Henry .

A crocodile ate Henry.

A crocodile was eating Henry.

A crocodile had eaten Henry.

A crocodile will eat Henry.

A crocodile is going to eat Henry.

A crocodile will have eaten Henry.

USAGE

The passive is most frequently used when it is not known, not important, or we don't want to say exactly, who performs an action.

E.g., Trespassers will be prosecuted. It is not important to know who will prosecute you if you trespass.

Last night a man was murdered. It is not known who killed him.

The passive may be used with a by phrase when the speaker or writer wants the listener or reader to know who performs the action.

E.g., "Life on the Mississippi" was written by Mark Twain. In this example Mark Twain is important to the meaning and the emphasis is on "Life on the Mississippi."   Mark Twain wrote "Life on the Mississippi" would convey the same meaning, but now the focus would be on Mark Twain.

Typical student errors/mistakes

- *Leaving the verb "to be" out of the sentence.*
- *Using the verb "to be" in the wrong tense.*
- *Overuse of "by."*

Teaching Ideas

- *Cutting up varied active/passive sentences and getting students to match them.*

- *Students write a general knowledge quiz using passive examples.*
  For example, "Who was 'Murder on the Orient Express written by?"

RELATIVE CLAUSES

Clause: A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb.

Independent clause: An independent clause is a complete sentence. It contains the main subject and verb of a sentence.

Dependent clause: A dependent clause is not a complete sentence. It must be connected to an independent clause.

Relative clause: A relative clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun. It describes, identifies, or gives further information about a noun. It can also be referred to as an adjective clause.

A relative clause is introduced by a relative pronoun: who (whom), which, that, whose, etc., or there may be no relative pronoun. There are two types of relative clauses defining and non-defining.

The information given in a defining relative clause is e**ssential** to the meaning of the sentence. The man **who lives at number 35** has been arrested. A defining relative clause makes clear which person or thing we are talking about.

The information given in a non-defining relative clause is **not** essential to the meaning of the sentence. Mr. White, **who lives at number 36**, has been arrested. Punctuation is important in non- defining relative clauses. A comma is put before the relative pronoun and at the end of the clause.

Relative pronouns in defining relative clauses:

			Example Sentence
Subject	Person	who (that)	This is the man who fixes my car.
	Thing	that (which)	Things that go bump in the night scare me.
Object	Person	Ø (that, who, whom)	They've arrested the man (that) I spoke to.
	Thing	Ø (that, which)	I've lost the pen (that) you gave me.
Possessive	Person	whose	This is the man whose girlfriend you stole!
	Thing	whose (of which)	I haven't seen a Disney film whose story I've liked!

NOTE: The pronouns in brackets are less commonly used.

Relative pronouns in non-defining relative clauses:

			Example Sentence
Subject	Person	who	George, who is now 44, is still a great tennis player.
	Thing	which	This tie, which I bought last month, has had it.
Object	Person	who(m)	Gladys, whom I adore, is married.
	Thing	which	This watch, which Gladys gave me, is a fake.
Possessive	Person	whose	This man, whose girlfriend you stole, is a boxer.
	Thing	whose	The rock, whose source is unknown, wasn t thrown by me.

PHRASAL VERBS

Phrasal verbs, or multi-word verbs, consist of a verb plus one or two particles. (A particle may be a preposition or an adverb, or an adverb plus a preposition.) They operate as one item.

She told Paul off. = She criticized/scolded Paul.

There are three basic types of phrasal verbs:

Type 1
Intransitive, i.e., they cannot be followed by a direct object:
He didn't turn up. (meaning that he didn't arrive)

Type 2
Transitive separable
With Type 2 phrasal verbs, an object pronoun can only come between the verb and the particle:
She took her on. correct (meaning that she opposed her)
She took on her. incorrect

An object noun can come either between the verb and the particle or after the particle:
She took Anna on. correct
She took on Anna. correct

Type 3
Transitive inseparable
With this type of phrasal verb, the object phrase or object pronoun both come after the particle:
She got over the operation. (meaning that she recovered)
She got over it.

This type also includes phrasal verbs that have two particles: an adverb followed by a preposition.
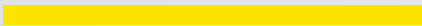She looks up to her grandmother.
My wife puts up with a lot of criticism of her cooking.

As the addition of the particle frequently changes, the meaning of the verb, phrasal verbs are very difficult for students to understand, and are perhaps best learned as vocabulary items.